EXPLICATION OF RELATIONS BETWEEN PARENT AND CHILD EXPECTATIONS OF ACADEMIC ABILITY IN CHILDREN WHOSE PARENTS EXHIBIT INITIATING BEHAVIOUR ON BEHALF OF THE CHILD

by

Helen W. Thom

B.A., University of British Columbia, 1955

B.S.W., University of British Columbia, 1956

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF

THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF ARTS (EDUCATION)

in the Faculty

of

Education

SIMON FRASER UNIVERSITY

April 1982

APPROVAL

Name: Helen W. Thom

Degree: M.A. (Education)

Title of Thesis: Explication of Relations Between Parent and Child Expectations of Academic Ability in Children Whose Parents Exhibit Initiating Behaviour on Behalf of the Child

Examining Committee:

Chairman: M. Gibbons

L. Prock
Senior Supervisor

T. O'Shea
Assistant Professor

J. Koepke
Associate Professor
Department of Psychology
Simon Fraser University
External Examiner

April 8, 1982
Date Approved

PARTIAL COPYRIGHT LICENSE

I hereby grant to Simon Fraser University the right to lend my thesis, project or extended essay (the title of which is shown below) to users of the Simon Fraser University Library, and to make partial or single copies only for such users or in response to a request from the library of any other university, or other educational institution, on its own behalf or for one of its users. I further agree that permission for multiple copying of this work for scholarly purposes may be granted by me or the Dean of Graduate Studies. It is understood that copying or publication of this work for financial gain shall not be allowed without my written permission.

Title of Thesis/Project/Extended Essay

Explication of Relations Between Parent and Child Expectations of Academic Ability in Children Whose Parents Exhibit Initiating Behaviour on Behalf of the Child

Author: _____
(signature)

Helen W. Thom
(name)

April 8, 1982
(date)

ABSTRACT

This study investigated expectations for academic achievement. Research has indicated that self-perceptions of ability influence the motivation of children to achieve. Children's expectations for success are learned from past success history and from expectations communicated to them by significant others (parents, teachers and peers).

The literature shows that learning disabled children hold low expectations for academic success as compared to normally achieving children. Most studies have compared expectation levels between groups of learning disabled children and control groups of normally achieving children. Few studies have isolated and compared children's expectations for academic achievement with those held by their parents.

A relatively homogeneous group of learning disabled children and their parents participated in the study. Relationships within and between the two groups were examined. An attempt was made to determine whether parents and children held the same expectations for academic achievement, whether the children's expectations seemed lower than for normally achieving children, and whether there were age and sex effects. The Projected Academic Performance Scale (PAPS) and the PAPS--Parents' Version were used. Children were members of the summer 1981 tutoring program for learning disabled children at Simon Fraser University. Results were analyzed using mean scores and t tests.

Parents and children had higher expectations for academic achievement for the distant future than for the near future. Parents

who had taken initiative for remedial help outside the school, had lower expectations for academic success than did their children. Children's expectations were consistent with those from the normative study of the PAP Scale and were lower for academic achievement than those of normally achieving children. No significant developmental trends were identified in this group. Girls tended to have lower expectations than boys for achievement in the near future.

The design of this study may provide a fruitful model for further research with learning disabled groups. Findings suggest that the educational system should work toward enhancing parents' academic expectations for their children since their role is vital in influencing their children's expectations and consequent levels of academic achievement.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to extend my sincere thanks to Dr. Leone Prock for her guidance and unfailing support and kindness during the past two years. My special thanks also to Dr. Tom O'Shea for his assistance with this research paper and to Shirley Heap who has been exceptionally helpful and efficient in creating the final typed document. I further wish to acknowledge the loving encouragement given to me by my husband Gordon.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS (continued)

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

Society defines what its individuals should learn and what is appropriate learning for certain individuals. These individuals and others who are significant to them hold certain expectations for the achievement of defined goals. Thus, in the area of academic achievement social forces become influential in student behaviour as student and parent expectations take on a significant role in shaping ultimate achievement outcomes (Brookover & Erickson, 1969, p. 19; Covington & Beery, 1976, p. 6; Rotter, 1971, p. 30).

In this introduction research findings supporting the belief of the important role of expectations in academic achievement will be discussed briefly. New directions for studies of expectations of academic achievement will be suggested, the problem addressed in this study will be explicated, and critical terms will be defined.

Context of Problem

Expectations are part of the affective characteristics of schooling. It is "clear that the affective characteristics are important in ... influencing the student's achievement" (Bloom, 1976, p. 104). Such affective characteristics as expectations are seen as "another motivational variable complimenting the roles played by ability perceptions and causal attributions in learning" (Chapman & Boersma, Note 1). Indeed, expectations of parents may have important consequences for motivation of children (Rosen & D'Andrade, 1959).

One of the earliest studies in the area of academic performance expectation pointed out that subjects refer to their past performances in similar situations when estimating their chances of success (Feather, 1966). It is now generally accepted that expectations are learned and that the child's evaluation of self are what we call expectations (Entwisle & Hayduk, 1978, p. 1; Rotter, 1971, p. 49). The child bases these judgements on numerous cues including specific information on past academic success history and on expectations communicated by significant others (Jones, 1977, p. 125; Nicholls, 1975). Individual differences such as gender, socioeconomic status, age, race, I.Q. as well as the individual's own affective reaction to achievement-related situations, in this instance specifically academic achievement, will all have a bearing on expectations. Yet even though the concept of expectancy or the subjective probability of success seems to play a role in performance academically, little seems to be known as to how expectations are formed (Entwisle & Hayduk, 1978, p. 168; Weiner, 1976).

Summary of Current Hypotheses

In general, self-concepts and self-expectations of academic achievement are thought to be very important among the many and complex factors that influence a child's performance in academic areas (Jones, 1977; Chapman & Boersma, Note 1; Bryan & Bryan, Note 2). How children precisely form their ideas about their own ability and how these ideas shape the earliest academic attainments is still not clear (Entwisle & Hayduk, 1978). In particular, in studying learning disabled children we are just beginning to explore the area of academic expectations. Some studies on expectations have shown that parents of learning dis-

abled children tend to hold low expectations for their children's academic success as compared to parents of normally achieving children (Chapman & Boersma, 1979b; Bryan, Pearl, Zimmerman & Matthews, Note 3). Other studies showed that the children themselves hold low expectations for their own success as compared to the groups of normally achieving children (Brookover, Erickson & Joiner, 1967; Chapman, Boersma & Maguire, Note 4; Chapman, Cullen, Boersma & Maguire, Note 5; Dunn, Pearl & Bryan, Note 6).

New Directions in Research

Relatively little research has been done specifically on academic expectations with learning disabled children and their parents. It is important to replicate studies done and build upon our beginning knowledge. Past research procedure has been to study large groups of learning disabled students selected on a random basis from elementary schools and high schools, usually with a control group of normally achieving students. Generalizations are then made from the data. This study is a deliberate attempt to move away from the more typical comparative type of research. It is an attempt to examine a smaller, particular group of learning disabled children and their parents in the hope that trends might be uncovered that would be useful for future research on a wider scale.

That there is a need for a smaller, descriptive study in the expectations of academic achievement in learning disabled populations has been noted:

> At the most preliminary level there is a need for studies aimed at simply describing intrinsic motivation in children with learning disabilities.... For example, in specific areas of deficiency such as the three R's do LD children manifest lower or unrealistic expectations of success and failure, etc.? (Adelman, 1978, p. 52)

The originators of the Projected Academic Performance Scale (PAPS), Children's and Parents' Version used in this study have called for future research using their scales including the variables of parent and teacher expectations (Chapman et al., Note 5). It is hoped that further studies will add to our knowledge toward clarifying the causal and predictive role of these significant others in terms of affective development and academic achievement.

The Problem

This study was designed as an analysis of the academic expectations of a small group of learning disabled children and their parents. The group was selected from a slightly larger group of children who had been enrolled in a special tutoring program. Those students who were excluded either were not learning disabled or were too old. An attempt was made to look at trends in the groups by analyzing the relationships between parents' and children's expectations. Further analysis was made of the variations within the groups on the basis of other variables such as the school subjects in which the students receive instruction, age and sex, and in the context of two time frames, near and distant future.

Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations implicit in a study such as this one. One concerns the lack of use of a control group. This research was an exploratory, descriptive study of a particular group. An attempt was made to see if the relations between children's and parents' expectations in specific academic areas revealed any trends that might point to justification for wider range, comparative studies in certain areas. In obtaining data for examination of the parent/child relationships, a comparison to earlier studies using a recently developed scale has been made. Trends which emerged were examined against findings of the earlier studies.

This study might provide some useful information with regard to possible developmental trends in the relationship of affective characteristics and school performance. Resulting implications may validly apply to aspects of classroom management and remedial techniques. The questions to hypothesize are difficult to formulate in that some of the most provocative issues are as yet poorly understood in light of the sparse amount of research in this area. The results of this study will apply to the particular group of children and parents studied. Results may be generalizable to similar future populations of learning disabled youngsters drawn together by their parents for special tutoring instruction at Simon Fraser University, or elsewhere.

Definition of Terms

Expectation

Expectation refers to anticipation; thing expected; probability of a thing happening (The Concise Oxford Dictionary).

Subjective Probability

Subjective probability refers to a degree of hopefulness, an expectation that one can achieve some goal; some reasonable subjective probability of success at one's endeavors (Jones, 1977, p. 127).

Self-Concept of Academic Ability

Self-concept of academic ability refers to the evaluating definitions an individual holds of himself in respect to his ability to achieve in academic tasks as compared with others in his school class (Brookover, et al., 1967). Self-concepts are relatively stable because of their direct linkage with expectancy of success (Weiner, 1976, p. 194).

Self-esteem

Self-esteem refers to how the individual feels about himself; his appraisal of his self-worth; his feelings of self-respect and personal acceptance (Covington & Beery, 1976, p. 5).

Affective Characteristics

Affective characteristics are the emotional components of schooling. They refer to the attitudes toward school and learning; may include interests, likes, dislikes and school motivation; may be subject-specific affect or may be a generalized affect referring to school and school learning (Bloom, 1976, p. 86).

Significant Others

This is a concept that refers to those who hold the most significant influence in children's lives; parents, teachers and peers.

Attributional Theory

Attributional theory refers to achievement-related situations. The concept refers to the belief that four causes are most used to interpret and predict academic outcome: ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck. Future expectations of success and failure are based on these four causal attributions. Causes have two primary dimensions; stability (stable and unstable), and locus of control (internal versus external). These dimensions respectively influence the subjective expectancy of success and the affective reactions to success and failure (Weiner, 1976, p. 183).

Locus of Control Theory

This concept grew from Rotter's (1966) social learning theory and refers to the concept that expectancy shifts are related to internal versus external perceptions of causality. It refers to whether or not individuals perceive that they have or have not the power to control the things that happen to them. The theory emphasizes predictive inferences (Weiner, 1976, p. 204).

Learned Helplessness Theory

Learned helplessness theory refers to the concept that the individual perceives the likelihood of an event to be independent of what he or she does. It is similar to a belief in external control or the causal perception that outcomes are determined by luck (Weiner, 1976, p. 204).

Chapter II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Part I: Children's Expectations of Academic Ability

Introduction

For a large group of children labelled "learning disabled", receipt of poor grades on their report cards contributes a negative impact to their self-esteem, self-concept and their resulting future expectations for academic achievement. This kind of reaction is "inevitable in a society like ours where a primary determinant of one's status is the ability to perform" (Covington & Beery, 1976, p. 6). Concerns about the importance of affective variables in academic achievement have led to a number of studies in the areas of self-concept and causal attributions. Inferences about expectations have been made from these studies but only recently has some attempt been made to study children's school achievement expectations per se (Entwisle & Hayduk, 1978; Chapman & Boersma, Note 1; Chapman, et al., Note 4). Thus, research in related areas must be reviewed to form a background for this study.

Related Studies: Self-concept, Causal Attributions, and Locus of Control

Studies in self-concept of academic ability, causal attributions and locus of control form a basis for understanding the role that expectations have in children's success and failure experiences in school. Much research has been carried out in these related areas and the most noteworthy findings will be cited. Some of these studies utilized general subject populations of children while others specifi-

fically analyzed a learning disabled group.

Self-concept. Belief about oneself and one's ability are necessarily related to one's expectations (Hamachek, 1979, p. 270). It has been found that self-concept of academic ability was associated with academic achievement at all levels of schooling (Brookover & Erickson, 1969, pp. 104-105; Brookover, et al., 1967, p. 142; Purkey, 1970, p. 23). The classroom setting is the base for much social comparison and it has been found that the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement was manifest most strongly within this context (Rogers, Smith & Coleman, 1978). Our best evidence to date shows that there is a two way interaction between the self and academic achievement and that each directly influences the other (Purkey, 1970, p. 23). There is a persistent and significant relationship between the two areas. In fact, it has been found that self-concept of ability is a better predictor of school success than is overall self-concept measures (Brookover, et al., 1967, p. 142; Purkey, 1970, p. 19). It is believed that failure and disapproval over a number of years leads to an "attitude toward the self" about school learning (Bloom, 1976, p. 92). Eventually the pattern of failure leads the student to generalize about himself as a learner and he shifts the blame for lack of success toward himself.

Academic self-concept was studied in adolescent students based on the theoretical framework that school learning is limited by the students' self-concept and that self-concept results from the expectations and evaluations of significant others (Brookover, et al., 1967). It

was believed that items which assessed specific academic self-conceptions ought to be superior to general self-perception items when school achievement is to be predicted. It was found that the evaluations which students perceive that parents, friends and teachers hold for them are consistently correlated with self-concept of academic ability (Brookover, et al., 1967, p. 141). Noteworthy also was the finding that the relationships were not greatly affected by variation in either measured intelligence or socioeconomic status:

> Self-concept accounts for a significant portion of achievement independent of measured intelligence, socioeconomic status, educational aspirations and the expectations of family, friends and teachers. (Brookover & Erickson, 1969, p. 105)

Kifer's (1975) longitudinal study with children in Grades 1 to 8 provided strong support for the notion that with failure over the years comes lower levels of regard for self and abilities. Prock (Note 7) found similar trends that academic self-concept of elementary school students was influenced by the accumulation and duration of the failure expectations.

In another study of academic self-concept at the elementary school level using The Student's Perception of Ability Scale (Boersma & Chapman, 1977), results showed that learning disabled children held significantly more negative self-perceptions of ability in reading, spelling and mathematics than did the control group of normally achieving children (Chapman & Boersma, 1979a). In addition the negative attitudes toward school subjects in the learning disabled were accompanied by lower self-perceptions of ability in general, and by

expressions of less confidence in school and more negative attitudes toward school.

A recent study using the same scale found that the academic self-esteem of normally achieving children differs significantly from that of learning disabled students who are not achieving but does not differ from the academic self-esteem of those who are achieving to a criterion level set for work in learning assistance programs (Prock, Note 7).

Causal attributions. Recent advances in studies in the area of human motivation and attributional conceptions are useful in the explanation of classroom behaviours and in our understanding of children's expectations (Nicholls, 1975, 1978, 1979; Weiner, 1976). Attributions are the internal explanations individuals give themselves to explain a success or a failure at a task. One's beliefs about the causes of success and failure are important mediators of performance in academic settings. The interaction of the four predominant causal attributions of ability, luck, effort, and task difficulty, according to Weiner (1976), can be viewed as the qualities of the person (ability and effort/internal locus of control), or the properties of the environment (luck and task difficulty/external locus of control). Furthermore, ability and task difficulty are stable in nature whereas effort and luck may be subject to change. Thus future expectations of success and failure are based on these four attributions (Weiner, 1974, p. 64, 1976, p. 180). Other less prominent causes of success and failure reported within the "luck" category include fatigue, mood, illness, and the bias of others. Shifts in expectancy occur after successes or failures and

are linked in degree to the causal ascriptions the student makes since some ascriptions can be changed whereas others cannot.

Locus of control. Locus of control theory is closely related to attributional theory. An attribution or belief that outcomes are the result of one's own efforts is called "internal control" whereas the belief that the outcomes result from factors over which the individual has no control is termed "external control" (Lefcourt, 1976; Phares, 1976; Rotter, 1966). The concept of locus of control operates both as a belief directed toward one specific situation or it may be a generalized expectancy covering numerous situations. The Coleman Report (Coleman, Campbell, Hobson, McPartland, Mood, Weinfeld & York, 1966) pointed out strongly the relationship between beliefs in personal control over academic rewards and academic achievement:

> A pupil attitude factor which appears to have a stronger relationship to achievement than do all the "school" factors together, is the extent to which an individual feels that he has some control over his own destiny. (p. 23)

In a recent study assessing children in Grades 1, 3 and 5, four situations were looked at in terms of the children's beliefs about causes and failures (Frieze & Snyder, 1980). These included a school testing situation, an art project, playing football and catching frogs. Causal explanations were found to differ across the four situations with the testing situation seen as the most internalized locus of control. Implications are that internal locus of control produces strong affective reactions of pride and shame. Thus not only does this attribution have a powerful impact on the student's self-esteem but also the data

indicate that the child's causal belief structure is situationally dependent (Frieze & Snyder, 1980, p. 193-194).

Not surprisingly studies have found that learning disabled children differ from nondisabled children in their locus of control (Chapman & Boersma, 1979b; Fincham & Barling, 1978; Hallahan, Gajar, Cohen & Tarver, 1978; Kifer, 1975; Pearl, Bryan & Donahue, 1980). In general the learning disabled child is more likely to attribute success to an external factor (such as luck) whereas the normally achieving child attributes his success to ability and/or effort.

In one study, Chapman, et al. (Note 5) found that age is related to attribution. Older learning disabled children, unlike non-disabled children who had internalized both success and failures, attributed their failures to internal causes (such as low ability) but still felt that any successes they may have had were the result of external factors such as luck or test ease rather than ability. This research suggests that children with learning difficulties do not have strong perceptions of internal control over their situation.

These locus of control findings are in accord with studies in the area of "learned helplessness" (Dweck, 1975; Dweck & Reppucci, 1973; Grimes, 1981). If a child views the situation as beyond his control, whether this is true or not, he may be suffering from "learned helplessness". It was found that the children who were most likely to give up in the face of failure, when compared to the more persevering subjects, not only took less personal responsibility for the successes and failures, but also when they took responsibility tended to attribute the outcomes

to poor ability rather than to effort. Thus they responded maladaptively to a failure (Dweck & Reppuccii, 1973).

Studies of Children's Expectations

Expectancies become a motivational variable in children's successful learning in view of their link to the children's self-perceptions that they have appropriate abilities and "where they see a correspondence between their abilities and effort, and the likely outcome of the task" (Chapman & Boersma, Note 1).

Crandall (1969) carried out some preliminary work in predicting behaviour from expectancy in intellectual tasks and found that expectancy was related to final academic competence. It was noted that there were sex differences in expectancy estimates with girls being consistently lower than boys in their expectations in intellectual situations but there was little success in a search for antecedents to this finding. This work is supported by more recent findings of sex differences in attributions and expectancies in studies which have reported more marked effects of failures on females than males with a resulting drop in expectancies (Nicholls, 1975; Parsons & Ruble, 1977).

Jones (1977) noted that underachieving children held lower performance expectations than normally achieving children. Similarly, Coleman et al. (1966) suggested that if children felt they could not succeed their expectations would be low. The expectations would affect the effort put into the task and the children's ultimate chance of success.

Nevertheless, on the whole very little attention has been directed

towards the study of children's school achievement expectations per se. Two exceptions are noted. The first was the recent longitudinal study over Grades 1 and 2 of how children's expectations develop at the start of school (Entwistle & Hayduk, 1978). The investigation of children's expectations before they begin to make causal attributions concluded that early school events were clearly of overriding importance (Entwisle & Hayduk, 1978, p. 5). Once the cycle of self-fulfilling prophecy started, expectations shaped performance, performance was evaluated, and then the evaluations (feedback influences) modified the expectations. Children built expectations as they grew and learned and expectations exerted powerful influences on future performance.

How the performance feedback from significant persons shapes the academic self-image is the social context of the situation. The effect of how social rewards are defined for the particular child and how the child establishes what optimum levels of expectations to aim for is significant to the academic outcome. Expectations and optimum levels may not necessarily be equivalent for various subjects but nothing is known about optimum expectation levels (Entwisle & Hayduk, 1978, p. 166).

The second exception regarding specific attention to young children's expectations has been the recent development of a scale to measure children's expectations of academic achievement (Chapman & Boersma, Note 8). It was believed that "one of the reasons for the virtual absence of studies on self-expectations probably relates to the lack of instruments for tapping this construct" (Chapman & Boersma, Note 1). Studies with this scale to date indicate that elementary school age

learning disabled children have lower expectations for the core elementary areas of Spelling, Reading and Mathematics. However, the children's predictions for Language Arts, Science and Social Studies are not significantly different from those of normally achieving students (Chapman & Boersma, Note 1).

Indications of Developmental Trends

It seems possible that some developmental trends in learning disabled children's affective correlates to academic achievement may be indicated by recent studies of self-concepts, attributions and expectations. This would seem a natural consequence to the implicit findings of group differences in affective characteristics between disabled and non-disabled children in situations where the academic difficulty is not being adequately remedied. The relationship becomes stronger and more powerful as the failure becomes prolonged and a consistent pattern of achievement emerges (Bloom, 1976, p. 95; Kifer, 1975). Older learning disabled children presumably have experienced more failure than younger children and expect to fail in the future (Dunn, Pearl & Bryan, Note 6).

Nicholls (1978, 1979) has shown that perception of attainments was more accurate in older children. Another study found a downward trend in perceptions of capacity amongst learning disabled children from Grade 5 to Grade 7 indicating that the longer children attend school "the less well they feel about their capability to perform academic tasks" (Prock, Note 7).

Weiner's attributional model of motivation noted that the sequen-

tial links are likely to be affected by the cognitive maturity of the student (Weiner, 1974, p. 43). Younger children have limited information processing capabilities and may conceive of only a small number of causes which will result in inaccurate future expectations for success and failure after a series of achievement outcomes.

One study investigating the development of achievement-related expectancies found that success/failure experiences had a more systematic effect on school-age children's expectancies than on the expectancies of pre-schoolers (Parsons & Ruble, 1977). Further, it was found that older children consistently reported lower expectancies.

Even as early as the first two grades it was noted that shifts from the typical optimistic expectations at the start of school toward a more realistic evaluation in line with their performance occurred as the children attuned themselves to social reality (Entwisle & Hayduk, 1978, p. 160).

A study that also looked at developmental considerations provided only slight support for a developmental interpretation of a differential contribution of affective variables at age levels (Chapman, Cullen, Boersma & Maguire, Note 5). The study noted however, that there was an increased tendency for affective variables of academic self-concept and expectations to correlate more highly with marks at Grade 5 and 6 than at Grade 3 or 4 although the results were not statistically significant. It was suggested that a wider age span be used in future to identify more specific developmental trends in school-related affective

development.

In any event, at some intermediate age between first grade and junior high school age the expectation levels for children with learning problems must drop because by adolescence it has been shown that older children's expectations can be very low. There was evidence that by this time neither expert treatment of deficit nor counsellor therapy had any significant effect on self-concept of ability behaviour (Brookover et al., 1967, p. 5).

Part II: Parental Expectations of Academic Ability of Their Children

Impact of Significant Others

Because of the interaction between the characteristics of the self and successful scholastic achievement (Hamachek, 1979, pp. 115 and 322; Purkey, 1970, p. 23), it is important to look at the persons in a child's life who will play some role in the development of self-concept, self-esteem and self-expectations as related to school experiences.

Probably the most crucial time in children's lives with respect to the shaping of their feelings of academic competency is the elementary school period because the sense of what they can achieve is incompletely formed during these years (Hamachek, 1979, p. 321). Those who shape children's self-attitudes--parents, peers and teachers--are often referred to as the "significant others" in their lives. At school, peers and teachers are the significant others who witness either successes or failures and who first introduce children to a social compari-

son outside of their families. Soon either positive or negative affective characteristics begin to grow and develop.

Brought to this situation are the self-images of abilities, competencies and worth that children have learned from the third significant other, their parents. These self-images heavily influence subsequent achievement patterns in school (Covington & Beery, 1976, p. 58; Love, 1970, p. 37; Smith, 1969; Veroff, 1969, p. 54). How children perceive the expectations held by others is important in how they evaluate themselves and in how the desires of the significant others will likely be carried out (Brookover & Erickson, 1969, p. 76).

Impact of the Home Environment

Some researchers concluded that home factors are more highly related to the personality characteristics in the early school years than in the later years (Kifer, 1975). Others believe that the assertion that parents are not an important influence on the academic achievement of adolescent students is unfounded (Brookover & Erickson, 1969, p. 78). Regardless of points of view on the relative impacts of the home environment, the evidence in general acknowledges that parents have an impact on subsequent academic achievement of their children (Brookover & Erickson, 1969, p. 71; Convington & Beery, 1969, p. 59; Entwisle & Hayduk, 1978, p. 146; Hess & Shipman, 1965).

Entwisle and Hayduk (1978) looked at parent and child expectations for academic achievement over a two year period taking into account specific subject areas and socioeconomic status. Results showed that

the children did not adopt their parents' expectations directly. Apparently the home environment did not lead parents and children to form the same expectations. But it was believed that a relationship between parents' and children's expectations would develop over time because both sets of expectations (in a middle class school and a working class school) tended to move toward the child's assigned marks over the two year period. However, in examining parents' influence over expectations, the reason for decline of the force of parental expectations in second year over first year remained unclear (Entwisle & Hayduk, 1978, p. 148).

Families of Learning Disabled Children

Studies examining affective school-related characteristics in samples of learning disabled children are emerging but there is still relatively little known about how parents of this subset of the school population view their children (Bryan, Pearl, Zimmerman & Matthews, Note 3). This study noted that in terms of parental attitudes toward their children's academic achievements, mothers of learning disabled children responded less positively to their children's achievement behaviours than did mothers of normally achieving students. Mothers of learning disabled children were more likely than the others to emit criticism and negative responses to their children's achievement attempts (Chapman & Boersma, 1979b).

An earlier study examining parental attitudes in families containing an educationally handicapped child found that parents not only

expressed less affection toward and put more pressure on their educationally handicapped child than his siblings, but also did so to a greater degree than a control group of parents (Owen, Adams, Forrest, Stolz & Fisher, 1971). On the other hand, a recent survey of the child-rearing attitudes of the mothers of learning disabled children carried out in an effort to understand the course of the mothers' adjustments to their child found more positive tendencies (Humphries & Bauman, 1980). It was found that these mothers exhibited stricter control of their children but were less hostile and rejecting than a control group of mothers. The researchers interpreted this finding as signalling a strong degree of the mothers' acceptance of their learning disabled child. They saw the mothers' strict control of the children's behaviour as being the mothers' perception of the need for this control of their children because of the typical problems involving disorganization, frustration, poor attention and school failure.

Studies of Parental Expectations

Chapman & Boersma (1979b) studied parental expectations in a group of mothers who had a learning disabled child and a group of mothers who had normally achieving children. At all grade levels (Grade 3 to 6) mothers of learning disabled children expected their children to perform less well in school in future than mothers of children who were achieving at a normal rate. This is in line with earlier findings that mothers of learning disabled children will bring their achievement expectations into line with their children's actual school performance

(Entwisle & Hayduk, 1978).

Others also have found that mothers of learning disabled children in a sample from Grade 2 to 6 were considerably less optimistic about their children's future performance than were mothers of nondisabled children (Bryan, et al., Note 3).

One study in this area looked at expectations of mothers with learning disabled boys (Epstein, Berg-Cross & Berg-Cross, 1980). Differences in expectations were noted on tests of cognitive ability depending on the position the learning disabled child occupied in his family of two male siblings. On a spelling task where parents received feedback (similar to receiving school reports or observing marked homework assignments), mothers of the learning disabled child who was second in the family of two appeared to reasonably adjust upward their previously low expectations. But where the child was the first-born they were unable to adjust previously low expectations despite the feedback indicated. It was hypothesized that mothers with first-born learning disabled sons develop special ways to deal with the stress of raising such a child first. In families where the learning disabled child was second, mothers presumably have had previously satisfactory child-raising experiences. Thus, they would have lowered self-concern that might have the effect of cutting off feedback information and perpetuating the established expectation system (Epstein, et al., 1980). This finding coincides with a finding that although birth order data are at present too sparse to estimate the total effect of position upon socialization and personality, the data so far show that birth order

accounts for a very small percentage of the variance in academic performance. Yet, the consideration that position in the family may influence the way parents react to a child which may in turn influence other variables should not be entirely neglected (Green, 1978, p. 61).

Measurement of Expectations

In general, very little substantive information regarding parents and family dynamics in the homes containing learning disabled children has yet been uncovered. Specifically, the area of children's and parents' expectations for academic achievement has only recently begun to be investigated. There has been no systematic development in producing a measurement scale to date. The research by Brookover, et al. (1967) used questionnaires for students and parents which were similar in format to that now being used by Chapman and Boersma (Note 8). The longer Brookover questionnaire included some questions of perceived expectations for self and by significant others, but the age group for whom it was constructed was for students beyond the elementary school level.

In fact, "apart from Entwisle and Hayduk's procedure, there appear to be few, if any measures available to tap achievement expectations across the main elementary subject areas for use with elementary children" (Chapman & Boersma, Note 1). The procedure referred to in the Entwistle and Hayduk (1978) study consisted of the children in Grade 1 and 2 "guessing" report card scores for reading, arithmetic and conduct by placing appropriate large numerals (1,2,3) or letters (A,B,C,D,) on a

stylized report card replica.

The instrument that has been devised recently for tapping the construct of subject-specific achievement expectations called the Projected Academic Performance Scale (PAPS) (Chapman & Boersma, Note 8) is an attempt to meet the needs in this area. Studies over a three year period using the scale indicate that the PAPS has reasonably strong psychometric characteristics, a good experimental validity and moderate validity in terms of predicting school achievement. It appears to be a promising measure of subject based achievement expectations. Two versions of the scale were used in this study; the children's version and the parents' version.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study has been to analyze the expectations of children and their parents in the area of academic ability. It is an attempt to explore the expectations of both children and parents in a group of children who have experienced repeated failures in school. The children have had special remedial help in Learning Assistance Centres and from special teachers, outside tutors and parents. Their parents sought out even further help by enrolling them in the Simon Fraser University Summer Tutoring Program for learning disabled children. There are several questions to consider in this study.

First, using a scale designed to measure subject-specific academic expectations in children and using a scale designed to measure subject-specific academic expectations of their parents, do parents appear to

hold low expectations as noted in other studies of mother attitudes? What relationships exist between parents and children in their academic expectations? How do the parent and child expectations relate in the tutored subjects? Are there any differences between parents' and children's expectations if they were not tutored in the subjects?

A second set of questions relates to age and sex. Were there any differences noted in expectations between the younger and older children? These developmental trends might be evident in a group where older children have been experiencing repeated failures. Likewise, were there any indications of child age-related differences amongst the parental group in their expectations for their children? Were any sex differences noted in the children's expectations? Or in the parental expectations for the respective sexes?

Third, how do the expectations for academic ability amongst children in this group, who had just been given special extra-school tutoring on a one-to-one basis, compare to the results of a large random sample of learning disabled children who had previously been tested with the same scale?

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Subjects

Twenty-six child/parent units were investigated in this study. The children ranging from ages eight to fourteen years attended elementary schools in a major metropolitan area and were enrolled in Grades 3 to 7 with one subject in partial Grade 8. There was some heterogeneity of socioeconomic background but children came from a predominance of middle-class homes with a typical mix of individual differences of income, occupational and educational levels, intact and single-parent families, at home and working mothers.

The twenty-six children were chosen on the basis of the age level for which the Projected Academic Performance Scale (PAPS) was designed. These children were regular school students who were attending a special summer program for learning disabled children offered by Simon Fraser University in the summer of 1981. The program is offered on a one-to-one tutoring basis, twice a week for two hours per session for a total of nine sessions. A student teacher, enrolled in a Simon Fraser University Professional Development Course for teachers in the area of learning disabilities, is assigned to work with one child.

The twenty-six parents participating in the study were the parents of the twenty-six youngsters from the summer class. The parents had made application to Simon Fraser University to have their child tutored. Since twenty-three applications were signed by mothers, one application

was signed by the mother and father and two applications were signed by fathers, a majority of mothers took responsibility for seeking remediation for learning problems and further references in the study to parents will reflect this distribution.

For the purpose of this study an operational definition of "learning disability" was set according to the wide range of criteria used in the child's own public school or in consultation with outside diagnostic centres. Children were being given remedial assistance at either the school's Learning Assistance Centre or by other teachers or Principals in the school. These children were all of normal or above average intelligence attending mainstream classes in regular school. They were diagnosed by their various schools in various ways as "learning disabled" including being one or more years below grade level in the affected subject area. Fourteen of the twenty-six children had been given extensive diagnostic tests at a variety of diagnostic centres in the metropolitan area outside of their schools.

Selection of academic subjects for each child's tutoring was based on the parents' request for help through their communications with the teachers in their child's school or on the basis of the reports from diagnostic centres. Requests were in the core areas of Reading, Spelling and Mathematics. In some cases the child was tutored in two subject areas, most notably reading and spelling where spelling was taught using the vocabulary from the reading lessons.

Instrumentation

To tap the students' and parents' academic expectations, two scales designed to measure academic expectations were used. For the children the Projected Academic Performance Scale (PAPS) (Chapman & Boersma, Note 8) was administered. For the parents, the Projected Academic Performance Scale--Parents' Version (Chapman & Boersma, Note 9) was administered.

The children's PAPS was originally designed in 1977 and underwent some revisions to its present form in 1978 (Chapman & Boersma, Note 8) (See Appendix A). The forty-two items on the scale were chosen to deal specifically with achievement expectations and attitudes in the main academic subject areas. These items are distributed across six subscales (Spelling, Reading, Language Arts, Mathematics, Social Studies, and Science), each containing seven items. The same set of item stems and answer choices is used for each school subject. For example, each subscale has an item that asks "How good do you think you will be in .... next year?" Answer choice: "a) I will be one of the best, b) I will be better than most kids, c) I will be better than some kids, or d) I won't be as good as most kids." Choice "a" is given a score of four points; "b", three points; "c" two points; and "d", one point. On each subject subscale there are seven items and five of these are scored in this manner. Two of the seven items are negatively expressed and the scoring is reversed. For example the item: "Would you be surprised if you ever did well in ....?" Answer choice: "a) yes, very surprised, b) somewhat surprised, c) not really surprised or d) not

at all surprised." Scores range from one to four from a) through d). On the entire PAPS, high full scale scores are indicative of high achievement expectations with the range being from a maximum of 168 to a minimum of 42.

In the documentation of the PAPS, point biserial correlations between test items and the full scale score met suggested minimal requirements (> 0.3), but it was noted that there were relatively low point biserial correlations for items 3 and 4 on each subscale in the PAPS--Children. In general however, "most items in the PAPS discriminate between children who have high scores and those who have low scores on the scale" (Chapman & Boersma, Note 1, p. 7).

In reliability studies cited by the authors of PAPS, estimates of internal consistency were obtained by means of Cronbach's alpha. The alpha for the Full Scale PAPS was .901. For the subscales, Mathematics and Science had alphas of .841 and .821 respectively; Reading, Language Arts, and Social Studies between .786 and .737; and Spelling was .675, suggesting that "items within individual subscales were fairly homogeneous, and that all items pooled together appear to be tapping a common domain" (Chapman & Boersma, Note 1, p. 10). Test-retest coefficients over grade level revealed a Full Scale coefficient of .803, while subscale values ranged from .646 to .805 all of which are reasonable values for test-retest reliability data considering that there were only seven items on each subtest. The most stable and internally consistent subscale was Mathematics followed by Science and Reading. "Overall, these coefficients suggest that the PAPS is a relatively stable and internally

consistent instrument" (Chapman & Boersma, Note 1).

To obtain estimates of external validity, Full and Subscale scores were correlated with end-of-year report marks. "A moderate relationship with average report marks was observed (r = .346)" (Chapman & Boersma, Note 1). Correlations of PAPS--Children's Version predictions of year-end report marks of interest were: Correlation of Spelling predictions and marks; .261; Correlation of Reading predictions and marks; .449; and Correlation of Mathematics predictions and marks; .113. Since sample size in the normative study was 293 subjects, these correlations appear to be acceptable. Thus external validity of PAPS for Reading appears to be quite good, Spelling is acceptable, but this particular Mathematics measure is not very convincing. Chapman and Boersma's claim of "moderate" validity in terms of predicting school achievement is based on the average of Full Scale scores. With individual differences noted, the scale seems to have merit as a beginning instrument for measuring expectations and further testing and refinements to improve correlations would be indicated.

Chapman and Boersma (Note 1) further point out that "an additional indicator of the PAPS's external validity lies in its ability to discriminate between groups of children who are achieving normally and those who are having learning problems." PAPS scores were correlated with measures of general self-concept, academic self-concept and academic locus of control. A significant correlation (r = .56) was found between the PAPS scores and the Student's Perception of Ability Scale (SPAS) (Boersma & Chapman, 1977) for academic self-concept. A moderate corre-

lation (r = .353) was found between the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR) (Crandall, Katkovsky & Crandall, 1965) for locus of control on the I+ scores which relate to perceived control orientations over successful school outcomes. However no relationship (r = -.019) was found between the Piers-Harris Children's Self-concept Scale (P-H) (Piers, 1969) or the IAR I- scores (r = -.143) which deal with perceived responsibility for failure outcomes. The authors of the PAPS conclude that the instrument shows a moderate to high relationship to other school-related variables which should logically be associated with achievement expectations (Chapman & Boersma, Note 1; Chapman et al., Note 4).

The parents' version of the PAPS is a modified version of the Children's PAPS (See Appendix B). It is shorter having a total of 12 items. Item characteristics are related to two items on the children's questionnaire. Questions 1 and 2 deal with Spelling, 3 and 4 with Reading, 5 and 6 with Language Arts and so forth for Mathematics, Social Studies, and Science. The two items per subject area are divided on the basis of two time frames, one dealing with parents' academic expectations for their child for "next year" and the second, for the long-term future ("when older"). For example, Question 1 for Spelling asks "How good do you think your child will be in Spelling next year?" Choices are: "a) one of the best in the class, b) better than most in the class, c) better than some in the class or d) won't be as good as most in the class." The second question asks about parents' academic expectations "when their child is older?" Full scale

scores range from a minimum of 12 to a maximum of 48. To date there is little reliability and validity on the PAPS-Parents' Version.

Procedure

The children's PAPS was administered at the last tutoring session at Simon Fraser University in late July, 1981 by the individual student tutors. The children were told that the questionnaire was designed to find out how well they thought they might do in school next year and when they were older. It was stressed that neither their parents nor their regular school teachers would be allowed to see the completed questionnaires. The instructions were explained individually and the items were read to the children.

At a parents' meeting at Simon Fraser University in July, 1981, a request for parents' future participation in a study was made. In September 1981, a letter enclosing the parents' version of the PAPS was mailed to them asking for their participation. Less than a third of the group needed a follow-up phone call reminder and only one questionnaire remained unanswered as the family had left the country. The final group consisted of twenty-six parent/child responses.

In the September letter a request was made for a copy of the child's first report card. Most of these were sent back by November but it was then decided that the information was unusable because of the diversity of the reporting systems between the numerous schools and school districts where the children were in regular attendance and because of the inability to formulate a comparative base for any meaningful information.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Results were analyzed centering on three areas of interest. The first and largest area of interest was the comparisons of parents and child expectations for academic achievement by subject. In addition, comparisons were made within and between the respective groups according to those who were being tutored in a particular subject and those who were not. A distinction was made in the comparison between expectations for the two time frames included in the questionnaires; the near future ("next year") and the distant future ("when older"). The core subjects of Spelling, Reading, and Mathematics were chosen as the basis for comparison.

Relationships Between Parent and Child Expectations for Academic Success

Since the parent questionnaire utilized only two major questions about academic expectations for each of the six subjects, the compatible questions from the children's questionnaire were used so as to make the parent/child comparison equitable. Thus parent/child comparisons were based on the questions "How good do you think (you/your child) will be in ... next year?" and "Do you think (you/your child) will be good at ... when (you/he or she) (get/is) older?"

In analyzing consistency of responses, from an inspection of the responses with respect to distribution across the subject matter, in general, there appears to be consistency in both the children's and

parents' responses. In both children's and parents' responses the most consistency in responses was found in the distant future time frame.

In interpreting the results of comparisons it is important to note that the "difference" in mean score is a "category difference," not a scale difference. That is to say a mere difference of one indicates a complete category change. There are variations in types of category choice within items so that scores of 4 through 1 may not be comparable between items. It is recommended that in considering number "differences" in the results the category choices be kept in mind.

Frequency Distribution of Responses

In Figure 1 the histograms show the distribution of the PAPS scores in the two sample groups; parents and children. This graph gives an overall picture of the distribution of scores within each subject, for the two time frames of near and distant future for each group. It is evident in both groups that trends shown in each distribution within the respective group are toward higher academic expectations for the distant future (the "when older" category). (See Figure 1)

The distributions between the child and parents groups may also be compared. In the near future ("next year"), parents were cautious in their expectations and higher numbers of them than the children felt that the children "wouldn't be as good as most in the class"--a choice of one on the PAPS scale--in all subjects. Even in the distant future, presumably when the learning difficulties may have been remediated adequately, a large number of parents indicated they felt it was "not likely their child would ever be good at" a subject--a choice of 2 on

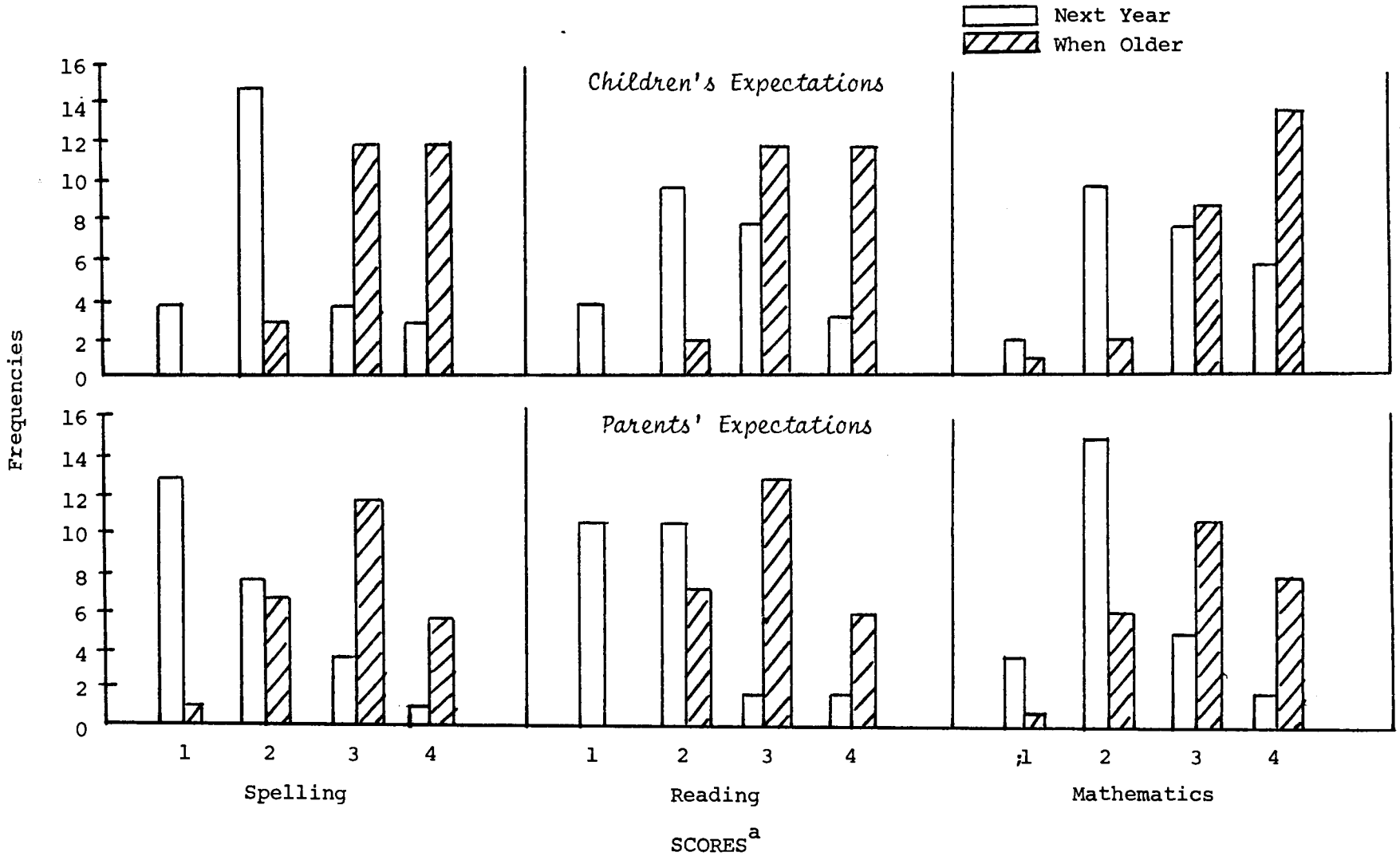

Figure 1: Frequency Distribution of Academic Expectations of Parents and Children by Subject for Near and Distant Future

[a]Scores are based on category choice within items with 1 being the lowest choice category and 4 being the highest choice category.

the PAPS scale--than did the children's group.

Comparison of Parent and Child Expectations

Parents' expectations are lower in all subjects for both the near and distant future (See Table 1). Both parents and children have higher expectations for eventual achievement in all subjects than they do for next year, and t tests across groups are significant at the .05 level.

Although not predicted, a trend as shown in Table 1 toward a differentiation between the time frames of near future and distant future, became evident. There was consistency throughout the results that expectations for the future are higher for both parents and children. In both time frames, parental expectations were lower than the children's.

Expectations by age groups are shown in Table 2. Parents' expectations for academic achievements are lower than the children's in all subjects, in all age groups with one exception. In the highest age group, parents' expectations for Mathematics are slightly higher. For Reading expectation in the youngest age group, there is a discrepancy of at least one whole choice category (1.3 and 1.0) in both time frames between parents and children, with the parents having the lower expectations.

In Table 3 an attempt is made to show the match between parent and child expectations in each subject. There is a larger proportion of agreement between parent and child in expectations for Mathematics

Table 1

Comparison of Mean Score Expectations of Children and Parents by Subject

	Next Year[a]			When Older[a]		
	Sp	R	Math	Sp	R	Math
Children	2.2	2.5	2.7	3.4	3.4	3.4
Parents	1.7	1.8	2.2	2.9	3.0	3.0
t	2.17*	3.34*	3.14*	2.69*	2.52*	1.68*

[a] n=26

* $p < .05$

Table 2

Comparison of Mean Score Expectations of Children and Parents by Subject and Age

		Next Year			When Older		
		Sp	R	Math	Sp	R	Math
Age							
Group 1[a] 8/9 years	Children	2.0	2.6	3.0	3.7	3.6	3.4
	Parents	1.7	1.3	2.1	2.9	2.6	3.1
Group 2[b] 10/11 years	Children	2.4	2.4	2.8	3.3	3.2	3.5
	Parents	1.6	1.9	2.5	2.8	3.1	3.0
Group 3[c] 12/13/14 years	Children	2.3	2.8	2.3	3.4	3.6	3.0
	Parents	1.9	2.1	2.0	3.1	3.3	3.1

[a] n=7; [b] n=11; [c] n=8

than for expectations in Spelling and Reading. Lower expectations of parents in Reading and Spelling were most noticeable in the near future where 58% of the parents in the group had lower expectations for Spelling than did their children and 62% had lower expectations for Reading than did their children. Eighty-one percent of the parents in the group did not expect the same achievement in Spelling (either lower or higher expectations) as did their children, and 74% of the parents' expectations differed in Reading from those of their children. These figures suggest that parent and child expect something different in the way of report card marks for next year in sizeable proportions.

In Figure 2 differences between parent and child expectations in Spelling for the near future are grouped according to age (See Figure 2). By calculating the differences in each of the parent/child units along a scale according to age, a graph can be drawn to show agreement or disagreement between parent and child expectations with increasing age of the children.

On the average the difference of parent and child expectations in Spelling is -0.5 units. This value is obtained because there are 20 negative units and 7 positive units with a net result of -13. The average difference is obtained by dividing by the total group number of 26 units. This indicates that parental expectations were lower than their children's on the average.

The mean absolute difference is 1.0 units. This is a measure of disagreement without regard to whether the trend is to higher or lower

Table 3

Agreement Between Parent and Child Expectations[a]

Subject and Time Frame	Parent Exp. Lower		Parent Exp. Higher		Parent Exp. Equal	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
SPELLING						
Next Year	15	58	6	23	5	19
When Older	14	54	3	12	9	35
READING						
Next Year	16	62	3	12	7	27
When Older	12	46	2	8	12	46
MATH						
Next Year	11	42	1	4	14	54
When Older	11	42	4	15	11	42

[a] n=26

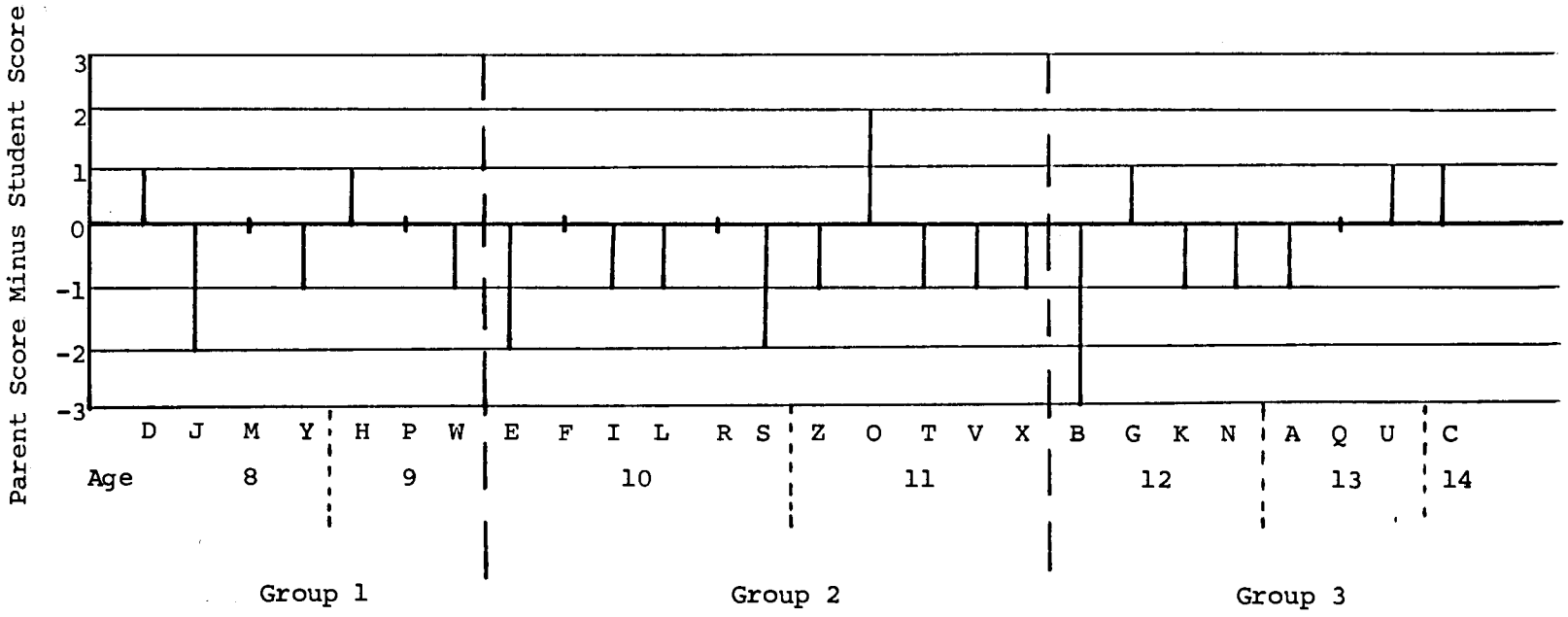

Figure 2: Differences in Parent/Student Spelling Expectations for Next Year by Age*

* Information based on Question 2 Student's Scale and Question 1 Parent's Scale "How good do you think you/your child will be in spelling next year?"

expectations. The smaller the difference the greater the agreement. There is no trend toward increasing agreement of expectations in Spelling achievement with the age of the child. The absolute difference for Group 1 is .9, for Group 2 is 1.1 and for Group 3 is 1.1.

Similar to Figure 2, the comparison of Reading expectation is shown in Figure 3. On the average the difference of parent and child expectations in Reading is -0.7 units (since there are 23 negative units and 4 positive units), a slightly larger difference than Spelling. As with Spelling, parental expectations for Reading are lower than their children's.

The mean absolute difference is 1.0 units. Again, there is no clearcut trend toward increasing agreement of expectations in Reading achievements with the age of the child. The absolute difference for Group 1 is 1.3, for Group 2 is 1.0 and for Group 3 is .9.

Referring to Figure 4, on the average the difference of parent and child expectations in Mathematics in this group is -0.5 units (since there are 13 negative units and one positive unit). Parental expectations are lower than their children's.

The mean absolute difference is 0.5 units. This is a smaller difference than in the subjects of Spelling and Reading. In Mathematics expectations, there seems to be a trend toward increasing agreement of parent/child expectations as the child grows older. The absolute difference for Group 1 is 1.0, for Group 2 is 0.5 and for Group 3 is 0.1.

To determine if any sex effects were noted in comparisons between parent and child expectations, the information was organized as shown

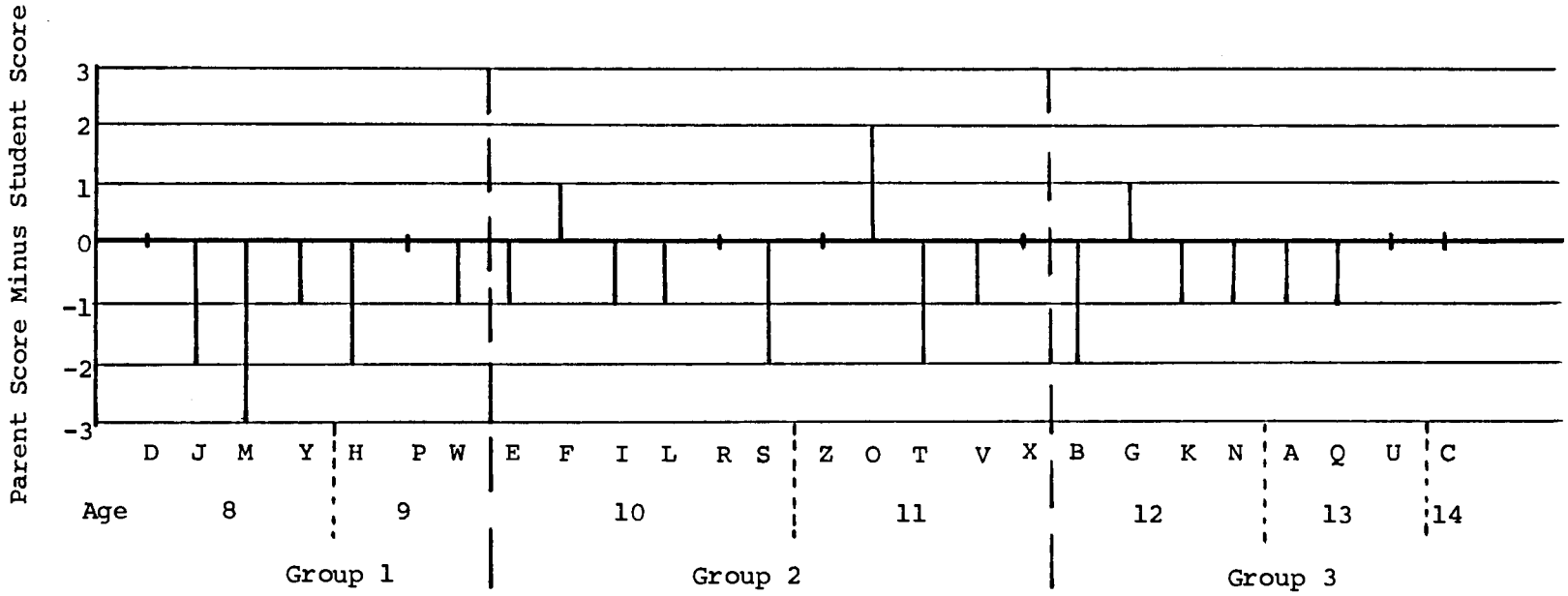

Figure 3: Differences in Parent/Student Reading Expectations for Next Year by Age*

*Information based on Question 9, Student's Scale and Question 3, Parent's Scale "How good do you think you/your child will be in reading next year?"

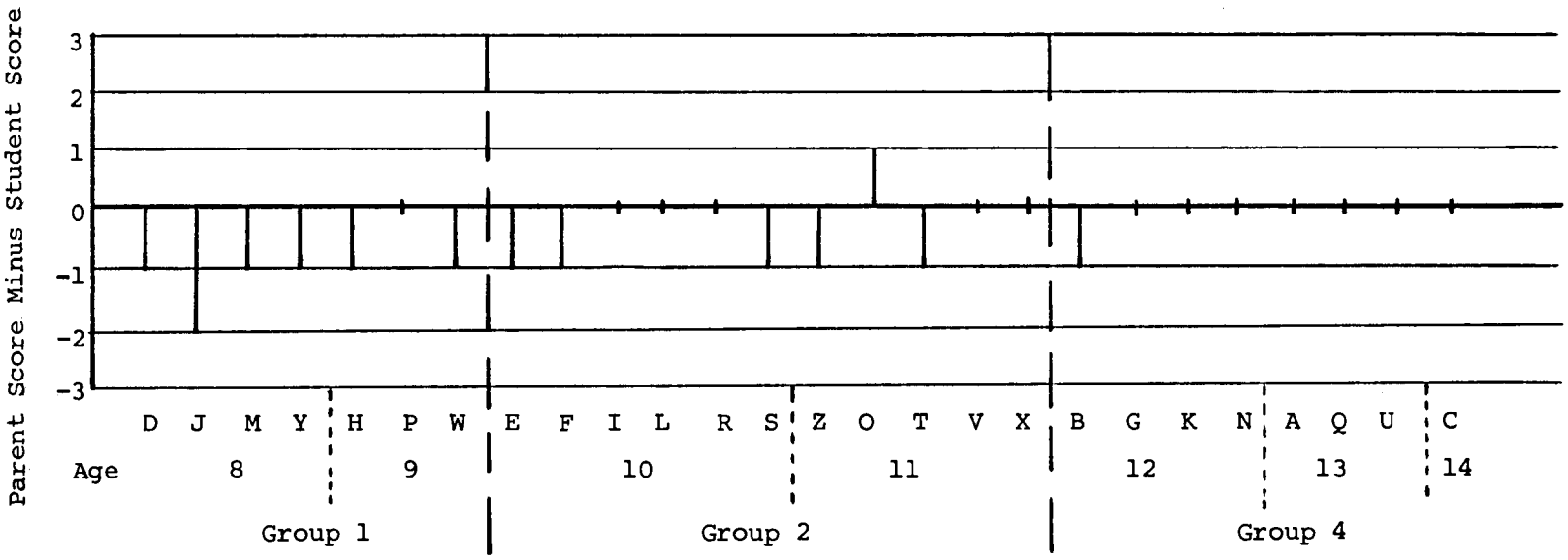

Figure 4: Differences in Parent/Student Mathematics Expectations for Next Year by Age*

*Information based on Question 23 Student's Scale and Question 7 Parent's Scale
"How good you think you/your child will be in math next year?"

in Figure 5. On the average the difference of parent and child expectations in Spelling for the parents of girls is 0.1 units. For the parents of boys the difference is -0.8 units. Parental expectations are lower in Spelling for the boys. The mean absolute difference for parents of girls is .9 units and for parents of boys is 1.1 units showing little dissimilarity according to sex of the child in absolute terms.

On the average the difference of parent and child expectations in Reading for the parents of girls is -0.1 units. For the parents of boys the difference is -1.0 units. Thus, parental expectations are lower in Reading for the boys. The mean absolute difference for parents of girls is .9 units and for parents of boys is 1.1 units, indicating little dissimilarity according to sex of the child.

On the average the difference of parent and child expectations in Mathematics for the parents of girls is -0.4 units. For the parents of boys the difference is -0.5 units, indicating little difference in parental expectations for Mathematics between girls and boys. Absolute differences likewise showed little dissimilarity, with difference for parents of girls being 0.6 and for the boys being 0.5.

Parent and Child Expectations Related to Subject Tutoring

In the study comparisons were made within and between children's and parents' groups of the expectations of those being tutored in a specific subject versus those not being tutored in that subject. Generally speaking, within the group of summer students, the expecta-

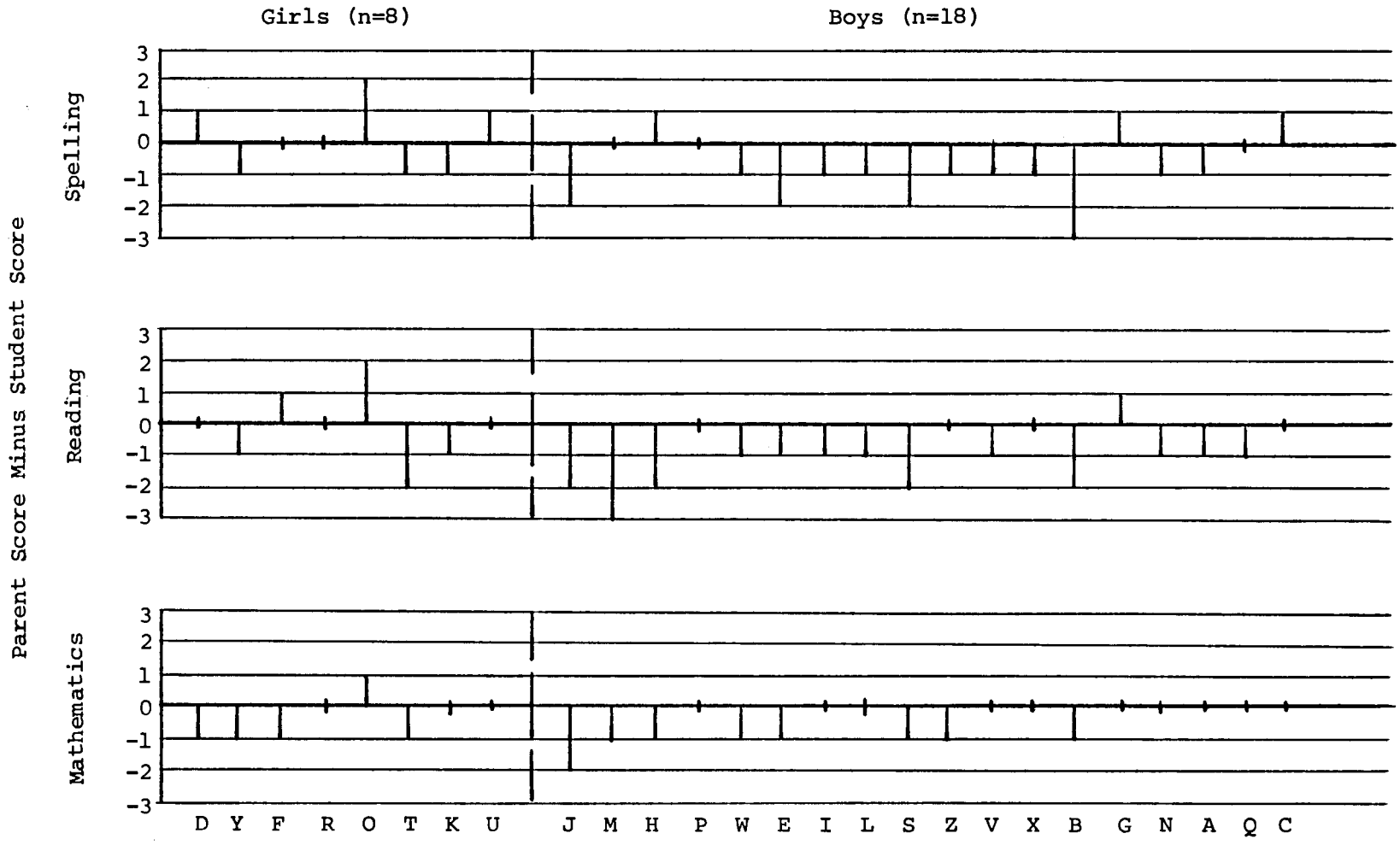

Figure 5: Differences in Parent/Student Spelling, Reading and Mathematics Expectations for Next Year by Sex *

*Information from Questions 2, 9 & 23 Student's Scale and Question 1, 3 & 7 Parent's Scale.

tions for academic success across subject of the children who were receiving tutoring in Spelling and Reading were similar to the expectations of those children who were not being tutored in Spelling and Reading, both for next year and in the long-term future (See Table 4).

Mathematics expectations showed more variation between those receiving help and those not receiving help, with a mean difference of at least one unit in both time frames. Mathematics expectations were lower than Reading and Spelling expectations. Here again, Mathematics predictions for the distant future were higher than for the near future. It must be noted, however, that only four students received Mathematics tutoring and this small number may be influencing the Mathematics results.

Using the total subscales by subject (See Table 5), there were some differences noted in academic expectations for those students who were being tutored in that subject area. Mean expectations for Spelling had a spread of 1.4 while for Reading it was 1.0. Students being tutored in Mathematics showed the widest spread in expectations (6.0) from those not being tutored, but again the low number of students being tutored in Mathematics is noted.

In all subjects, parents' expectations for their children's academic achievements by subject are lower for those parents whose children are being tutored in the subject (see Table 6). These lower expectations are both for next year and for when the children are older. There are also increases in all expectations for academic attainments for when the children are older in both groups; those tutored in the

Table 4

Children's Mean Score Expectations for Academic Achievement as Related to Subject Tutoring

Expectations for Next Year[a]

Subject	Total Group		Tutored in Subject		Not Tutored in Subject	
	Mean	n	Mean	n	Mean	n
Spelling	2.2	26	2.2	14	2.3	12
Reading	2.5	26	2.6	20	2.5	6
Math	2.7	26	1.8	4	2.9	22

Expectations for When Older[b]

Subject	Total Group		Tutored in Subject		Not Tutored in Subject	
	Mean	n	Mean	n	Mean	n
Spelling	3.4	26	3.1	14	3.7	12
Reading	3.4	26	3.4	20	3.3	6
Math	3.4	26	2.5	4	3.5	22

[a] Responses from questions 2, 9, & 23

[b] Responses from questions 7, 14, & 28

Table 5

Children's Expectations for Academic Achievement for Combined Near and Distant Future on Subscale Totals

Subject	Total Group		Tutored in Subject		Not Tutored in Subject	
	Mean	n	Mean	n	Mean	n
Spelling	18.9	26	18.3	14	19.7	12
Reading	19.7	26	19.5	20	20.5	6
Math	20.9	26	15.8	4	21.8	22

Table 6

Parents' Expectations for Academic Achievement for Their Children as Related to Subject Tutoring

Expectations for Next Year[a]

Subject	Total Group		Tutored in Subject		Not Tutored in Subject	
	Mean	n	Mean	n	Mean	n
Spelling	1.7	26	1.4	14	2.2	12
Reading	1.8	26	1.6	20	2.7	6
Math	2.2	26	1.8	4	2.3	22

Expectations for When Older[b]

Subject	Total Group		Tutored in Subject		Not Tutored in Subject	
	Mean	n	Mean	n	Mean	n
Spelling	2.9	26	2.6	14	3.3	12
Reading	3.0	26	2.9	20	3.2	6
Math	3.0	26	2.3	4	3.1	22

[a] Responses from Questions 1, 3, & 7 on Parents' questionnaire.

[b] Responses from Questions 2, 4, & 8 on Parents' questionnaire.

subject and those not tutored in the subject.

Information from Tables 4 and 6 are combined to show more clearly the relationships between parent and child expectations as related to those subjects in which the child is receiving remedial help (See Table 7). Generally in both time frames, in all subjects, and in both tutored or non-tutored groups, parents' expectations are lower than their children's. Two exceptions are noted, in Reading (next year not tutored) parents' expectations are slightly higher, and Mathematics (next year, tutored) parents' expectations are the same as the children's expectations. The most noticeable discrepancy occurs in the groups of children being tutored in Reading in the expectations of children and parents for next year. Here there is a category difference of one. Again higher expectations for academic success in all subjects are predicted by both parents and children for "when they are older."

Age and Sex Considerations

A second area of interest in the study centered around age and sex effects of learning disabled children with respect to their academic expectations. While the first area of interest used age and sex groups in the comparisons of parent expectations to children's expectations, this section analyzes age and sex effects within the group of learning disabled children. It was felt that students might show a decreasing expectation of success with age because of the repeated failures of the older students, many of whom have had fairly extensive diagnostic testing and remediation.

Table 7

Mean Score Comparisons of Expectations of Children and Their Parents for Academic Achievements as Related to Subject Tutoring

Expectations for Next Year

Subject	Total Group		Tutored in Subject		Not Tutored in Subject	
	Children	Parents	Children	Parents	Children	Parents
Spelling	2.2	1.7	2.2	1.4	2.3	2.2
Reading	2.5	1.8	2.6	1.6	2.5	2.7
Math	2.7	2.2	1.8	1.8	2.9	2.3

Expectations for When Older

Subject	Total Group		Tutored in Subject		Not Tutored in Subject	
	Children	Parents	Children	Parents	Children	Parents
Spelling	3.4	2.9	3.1	2.6	3.7	3.3
Reading	3.4	3.0	3.4	2.9	3.3	3.2
Math	3.4	3.0	2.5	2.3	3.5	3.1

Note: Information from Tables 4 & 6

In Table 8, an increase in expectations for the distant future in all subjects is shown in all three age groups. Contrary to predictions, this study found no consistent developmental trends in this group of learning disabled children.

An analysis for sex effects (see Table 9), showed that for next year girls' expectations in all three core subjects tend to be lower than the boys. The difference is more than half of a category lower: (0.6 in Spelling and Reading, and 0.8 in Mathematics). For the distant future there is more consistency between boys' and girls' academic expectation for the core subjects. For both boys and girls, expectations are higher for the long-term future with girls expecting to achieve larger increases in relative position. In the total sub-scale measurement, girls tend to have lower expectations for success in Spelling and Mathematics but not in Reading. Again the elements of "learning, liking, enjoying and surprise" enter into the total sub-scale scores. Because of sample size nothing conclusive can be indicated about sex effects.

Table 8

Children's Mean Score Expectations for Academic Achievement by Age

Expectations	Subject	Group 1[a] (n=7)	Group 2[b] (n=11)	Group 3[c] (n=8)
For Next Year Questions: 2, 9, & 23	Sp	2.0	2.4	2.3
	R	2.6	2.4	2.8
	Math	3.0	2.8	2.3
For When Older Questions: 7, 14, & 28	Sp	3.7	3.3	3.4
	R	3.6	3.2	3.6
	Math	3.4	3.5	3.0
Entire Subscale Score	Sp	19.7	18.5	18.9
	R	20.4	18.3	21.0
	Math	21.6	22.9	17.4

[a] Group 1 = 8 & 9 year olds

[b] Group 2 = 10 & 11 year olds

[c] Group 3 = 12, 13 & 14 year olds

Table 9

Children's Mean Score Expectations for Academic Achievement by Sex

Expectations	Subject	Boys[a]	Girls[b]
For Next Year Questions: 2, 9 & 23	Sp	2.4	1.8
	R	2.7	2.1
	Math	2.9	2.1
For When Older Questions: 7, 14, & 28	Sp	3.3	3.5
	R	3.4	3.4
	Math	3.5	3.1
Entire Subscale Score	Sp	19.5	17.6
	R	19.7	19.6
	Math	21.1	20.3

[a] n=18; [b] n=8

Comparison to PAPS Normative Studies

As a third area of interest comparisons were made to two studies used to develop the Projected Academic Performance Scale (PAPS) (Chapman & Boersma, Note 1). In the first comparison in Table 10, means and standard deviations for the two groups of learning disabled children are presented. Background were similar by age, sex ratio, attendance at urban schools, normal range I.Q., and part-time Learning Assistance help. The normative data were taken from a study investigating the ability of the PAPS scale to differentiate between failure-prone and normal achievers in Grades 3 to 6 (Chapman & Boersma, Note 1). Using the data from the present study for those children in Grades 3 to 6, analysis revealed that there were no significant differences at the .05 level of significance using two-tailed t tests either in the Full Scale scores or in the six content areas. Thus the results of PAPS scores for this specific group of learning disabled children are similar to those of the larger randomly selected group of children.

In the original study, Chapman and Boersma (Note 1) compared the scores of learning disabled children to those of normally-achieving children and found the learning disabled PAPS scores were lower in the Full Scale expectations and specifically in the subjects of Spelling, Reading, and Mathematics, the core elementary subjects. The children's predictions with respect to Language Arts, Science, and Social Studies were not significantly different from those of normally achieving students. Since the present learning disabled group is statistically similar to that of the Chapman and Boersma

Table 10

Summary Data of PAPS Scores for Learning Disabled Children in Two Similar Groups

	Normative Group (n=81)		S.F.U. Sample Group (n=23)		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	t
Full Scale	114.79	16.67	116.34	13.93	-0.41
Spelling	18.21	3.39	19.17	3.44	-1.20
Reading	19.06	3.57	19.08	3.07	-0.02
Language Arts	18.32	3.52	18.95	2.90	-0.79
Math	19.75	4.27	21.52	3.73	-1.80
Social Studies	19.28	3.80	18.22	3.44	1.21
Science	20.16	3.97	19.39	3.52	.84

Note: Data for the normative group taken from Chapman and Boersma, Table 8, Note 1.

study, similar conclusions may be drawn with regard to comparison of academic expectations with normally achieving students.

In a second comparison decile ranks are presented. (See Table 11) The normative data in this study were taken from a group of 543 children in Grades 3 - 6. Using the data from the present study for the children in Grade 3 to 6 it is shown that seventy percent of the S. F. U. sample group was at or below the 50th decile when compared to the group used for normative purposes. This may indicate the proportion of children in this group who were considered to be having problems severe enough to warrant testing at Diagnostic Centres. It may also give some insight into the parents' motivation to seek an outside tutoring resource.

Table 11

Decile Ranks for Full Scale Children's PAPS Scores

Normative Group[a] (n=543)		S.F.U. Sample Group (n=23)			
Raw Score	Decile	Percent	Number	Male	Female
100	10	9	2	0	2
107	20	17	4	3	1
112	30	9	2	2	0
117	40	26	6	5	1
121	50	9	2	2	0
125	60	13	3	2	1
130	70	4	1	1	0
136	80	0	0	0	0
145	90	9	2	0	2
		4	1	1	0

Note: Maximum Score = 168; Minimum Score = 42

[a] Data for the normative group taken from Chapman and Boersma, Note 1, Table 4.

Chapter V

DISCUSSION

Introduction

Results of this study are valid only for the particular groups analyzed and are not directly generalizable to the large group of children called "learning disabled" and their parents. It could easily be argued that this study produces more questions than conclusions in the search for knowledge of the affective characteristics of learning disabled children and their parents. Perhaps this focus on further questions is the prime contribution of an exploratory study. But it is important that follow-up research be undertaken (Torgesen & Dice, 1980). The present study exemplifies some new ways to assess data in future, larger studies. Analyses of data from the perspectives of this study have not been undertaken previously.

In organizing the data, elements and relationships were looked at in several ways. Attention is drawn toward more precise definitions within the general notion implicit in studies with learning disabled children, that negative school related feelings and attitudes will likely inhibit achievement. More specific analysis can then lead to better counteractive approaches to negative academic expectations in children who should eventually be able to achieve to regular classroom standards.

This discussion will centre on themes or areas that appear to have significance for further study and for translation into practical

application both in the home and in the classroom. These themes will address the questions of further divisions of the "future" time frames in subsequent studies, will include discussions and analysis of relationships between parent and child expectations for academic achievement, and will discuss age and sex effects. Some observations about the Projected Academic Performance Scale (PAPS)--Children's Version will be made.

Suggested "Future" Time Frames

A decision was made at the start of the analysis of the data to separate out two questions on the Children's PAPS so as to make the comparison questions parallel to those asked on the Parents' Version of the scale. The time frames of "next year" and "when older" on the parents' scale divided the two questions in each subject area as to academic expectations anticipated for their child. In compiling the data it became evident that both children and parents expected lower achievements for next year than for the distant future. This trend continued throughout the results whether it was an analysis by age, by sex, or by subject tutored. It could be argued that children might not have a clear concept of "when older", yet on the other hand most children by Grade 3, age 8, have been asked many times what they are going to be when they are older or when they grow up. Certainly parents know the meaning of the concept "when older."

To date in earlier studies of other learning disabled populations, no precise distinctions have been made in analyzing results within

the total concept of "future." Most studies simply refer to "future expectations for academic achievement." It may be more useful for studying developmental trends to indicate more precisely some time zones when asking elementary school children what they hope to achieve in the future. Perhaps the use of grade levels which is a concept familiar to the child might point up interesting developmental trends. For example "by next grade? by Grade 7? by Grade 12?" In this study, using the two time frames, results indicated that both parents and children have higher expectations for the distant future than for the near future.

Relationships Between Parent and Child Expectations for Academic Achievement

The study showed that parents who took the initiative to seek help for their children's learning problems outside of their schools have, on the average, lower expectations for their children's academic achievement than do their children. This trend remained through analyses by subject tutored, by age and sex of the children, through two time frames. The comparison to the normative study (Chapman & Boersma, Note 1), confirms that the level of these parental expectations would be low as compared to other mothers of normally achieving children. The parental trend toward lower academic expectations than their children is of interest in view of the fact that parents had to make a commitment for transportation and an accommodation of holiday time in order that the tutoring could be secured. One might have speculated that this group of parents would have exhibited a more

encouraging and less critical pattern of parent-child interaction as reflected in their expectations, unlike the less encouraging, more critical, less supportive home environments found in earlier studies of other learning disabled populations (Chapman & Boersma, 1979b; Bryan, Pearl, Zimmerman and Matthews, Note 3). Logically, the initiative that parents took might reflect a belief in higher academic expectations for their children given the existing definitions of "learning disability" with its connotation of "normal" learning capacity. Despite current teacher indications of poor academic achievement by their children, the implication is that these children will, with special teaching, achieve eventual "normal" results. In view of the parents' low expectations, an inference might be made in analyzing this group of parents, that their motivation was to prevent further failure and that their hopes for their children's academic achievements for both next year and the distant future are guarded. These findings differ from a study of the development of children's expectations where it was believed that a relationship between parents' and children's expectations would develop over time because both sets of expectations tended to move toward the assigned marks over a two year period (Entwisle & Hayduk, 1978).

To gain comparative parent/child information from another perspective, analysis of the expectations of the groups was made according to the subjects in which the parents had requested the tutoring. Although the children who were being tutored in Reading and Spelling showed no differences in expectations for next year whether they were

being tutored or not, the parents whose children were being tutored in a subject held lower expectations for success than did the other parents whose children were not being tutored in that subject. It might have been speculated that parents would have raised their expectations for the subject tutored with the type of one-to-one instruction that was being given, with the easily available parent-teacher contact, and with home reports giving specific information on test results and achievements. Contrary to research expectations, the parents' expectations remained lower than their children's. It would almost seem that the parents could not envision some increased academic achievement in spite of demonstrated success and individualized detailed reporting. Perhaps this is understandable in view of the severity of the problems many of the children had been having and with parents' contact with Diagnostic Centre and Learning Assistance Centre reports. Also the PAPS--Parents' Version has an emphasis on social comparison with regular classmates. Perhaps parents felt that one summer session, no matter how well it showed that their child could learn (and some made remarkable improvements in Grade level testing) was not going to be a lasting result in the child's "problem" area and would not bring the child up to a good achievement level in the class back at school. Parents may have trouble adjusting upward their previous expectations, especially if their child was among the older members of the group, because of the obvious failures their child had had in a typical school class situation necessitating very special efforts to learn what most assume to be the "basics" for school

success.

For the children being tutored in a subject, as noted, their reaction to demonstrated success in Reading and Spelling seems to have been the same as those children not being tutored in that subject. In each tutoring session, along with the skills teaching, there had been an emphasis on sharing achievement information by use of graphs, charts and pre and post-test results with individually prescribed and attainable academic goals. Since we do not know what the children's expectation levels were before the tutoring program, it can only be speculated as to whether changes in expectations had occurred over the sessions to bring previously lower expectations to the level of those not being tutored in a subject. But both sets of expectations (tutored and not tutored children) are in a lower range than those children in the normally-achieving group in the normative data (Chapman & Boersma, Note 1). Perhaps the summer students' reactions are similar to students' reactions in studies in the area of "learned helplessness" (Dweck & Reppucci, 1973) where students consider that they lack in sufficient ability anyway and do not attribute success to their efforts. The presently studied students might possibly be attributing the summer tutoring success to being contingent upon the student-teacher and the personal program (external sources) rather than to their ability to learn (internal sources). Lack of variations between those being tutored and those not being tutored might also relate to

children generalizing their expectations to all subjects because of their academic difficulties in one or more areas. Perhaps the expectations of those children not being tutored in the subject had generalized and should have been higher. Or, perhaps the tutoring experience did generalize positively and thus variations between expectations in children tutored and children not tutored did not occur. Without knowing entry expectation levels it is not possible to come to any conclusions.

Age and Sex Effects

A number of studies have shown, as would seem logical, that as the learning disabled child experiences more failures over the school years, his self-concepts, self-esteem and self-expectations for academic success become lower (Bloom, 1976; Entwisle & Hayduk, 1978; Nicholls, 1978; Parsons and Ruble, 1977; Dunn, et al., Note 6; Prock, Note 7). These developmental trends probably depend on cognitive maturity (increasing accuracy of self-perception) as well as on the cumulative effects of failures. In the present study, no consistent downward developmental trends for expectations were found. There were very slight or no variations in expectations as related to age in Spelling and Reading for the "next year" and "when older" categories. Since this result is different from the current findings in studies of other learning disabled populations, it might be that "typical" developmental trends in expectations over age have been changed by some other factors; perhaps by the intensity of the tutoring or the demon-

strated successes. Perhaps the individual relationships, formed with the student-tutors who were anxious to achieve success with the child's individual program and who may have conveyed more optimism and positive reinforcements than can a Learning Assistance Teacher with a group, may have had an effect. Perhaps the older students were better able to internalize and evaluate the meaning of the new successes.

Another possibility for lack of developmental trends in this group might have been the result of students achieving to a criterion level set for them. Recently a study showed that when learning disabled children were differentiated on the basis of those who were achieving to a criterion level set in a Learning Assistance Centre and those who were not, the successful learning disabled students' self-esteem did not differ significantly from the self-esteem of normally achieving children (Prock, Note 7). This is a new approach based on actual achievement in a Learning Assistance Centre (LAC) rather than on comparisons made because of attendance in a LAC currently used as the basis in most studies of learning disabled populations.

The trend throughout the study for higher expectations for the distant future than for the near future continued for all age groups. Since the level of expectations for any of the age groups at the start of the program is not known, no comments can be made about levels of expectations at the conclusion of the tutoring program by age groups other than to note earlier comments that this group's expectations would be considered low in comparison to the normative group.

Some studies of other learning disabled populations (Crandall, 1979; Nicholls, 1975; Parsons & Ruble, 1977) have shown that there may be sex differences in expectancies. In general, girls appear to have less confidence than boys, and age may interact with sex as well, although there are no empirical data on which to base developmental prediction (Parsons & Ruble, 1977). In the present study, in terms of next year's predications, girls' expectations in all three core subjects were lower than boys. When using total subscales, although girls still had lower expectations for Spelling and Mathematics, they held nearly the same expectations as boys for reading. Yet in comparison to the large random sample group in Table 11, only 57% of the girls compared to 75% of the boys in this learning disabled group fall below the 50th decile.

In looking at comparisons of expectations between parents and children when analyzed according to the sex of the children, parental expectations for boys were lower in Reading and Spelling, but expectations for Mathematics were about the same regardless of sex. However as noted earlier due to the small number of children brought to the summer school for help in Mathematics as compared to Reading/Spelling help, it would be unwise to place much emphasis on the trend in expectations displayed for Mathematics.

Projected Academic Performance Scale

Since many of the comparisons in the study parallel the first question of the parents' questionnaire "How good do you think your child will be in ... next year?" with the comparable child's question "How good do you think you will be in .... next year?" it must be pointed out that in the child's questionnaire the answer choices do not include the phrase "in the class." This is a regrettable omission although the developers have so far administered their scale in class situations and in general children tend to answer questions of social comparison on the basis of comparisons to their classmates. For this study since it was a special short tutoring program with no class comparisons and one-to-one tutoring, it is assumed that children automatically answered in terms of how they expected to do next year when back in their regular classes as compared to their classmates. But this omission should be borne in mind when interpreting the results and for future use of the questionnaire.

It was noted earlier that items 3 and 4 on each subject scale in the Children's Version of the PAPS showed low point biserial correlation coefficients in the Chapman and Boersma study (Note 1). This is a problem particularly on the fourth item of each scale "Would you be surprised if you ever did well in ....?" Problems were noted during the original development of the PAPS that children "may have had difficulty with the word 'surprise' in the context of the items" (Chapman & Boersma, Note 4, p. 5). In the present study the same difficulty was noted in the responses of six subjects to the "surprise"

item. For these six subjects an examination of the answers across the questions in each subscale showed that item four appeared unstable. (See Appendix C) These inconsistencies should be taken into account in the use of total subscale results. It is further pertinent to any revisions of the PAPS--Children's Version. Revisions might also give consideration to phrasing the answer choices in questions 7, 14, 21, 28, 35 and 42 in the same way as those in questions 2, 9, 16, 23, 30 and 37 in order to reflect expectations over time.

Implications for Further Research

One implication for further research lies in this study's demonstration of the need to analyze more parent and child units. Although it is important to be aware that parents and children in the learning disabled population hold lower expectations for academic achievement than parents and children who are achieving normally as shown in studies of learning disabled populations, it is also important to place more emphasis on the comparisons between the parents' and children's expectations. This emphasis will give us more information toward the possible resulting interactions in the home. This kind of information points to where our remedial efforts, in addition to teaching the academic skills, should be directed.

The results showing that parents have lower expectations than their children for their academic success (and the children have low expectations to begin with) have implications for further research in the area of correlation to actual achievement. Although difficult to standardize, actual school achievement information might yield insight into whether the parents' expectations are realistic especially for next year. Parents seem to have some more optimism for the distant

future presumably when the current problems are remedied. Groups of parents who do not seek any further outside help could be compared to groups of parents who do seek extra academic help for their children. While "initiating" parents held lower expectations than their children, the discrepancy might be different if compared with a "non-initiating" sample of parents of learning disabled children.

Consideration should be given to some alterations in the PAPS--Children's Version with regard to the "surprise" items. This new instrument can help provide useful insight into a child's and parent's feelings and can help detect discrepancies between the feelings of the active participants and the significant others in the educational process in elementary schools. Continued attempts should be made to study "clearly defined and relatively homogeneous subgroups of learning disabled children" (Torgesen & Dice, 1980). The small group idea could be expanded to include several and larger groups in school settings with results being combined. Results could be analyzed from the point of view of type of treatment situation, for example, where subjects were receiving Learning Assistance Centre help, private tutoring, special help from own teacher, or S. F. U. Summer Program.

For the children it might be useful to use a battery of tests and include other tests such as the Student's Perception of Ability (SPAS) Scale (Boersma & Chapman, 1977) and the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility (IAR) Scale (Crandall, Katovsky & Crandall, 1965) in the attempt to understand better the psychological processes that contribute toward the poor school performance of learning disabled

children.

Consideration should also be given to replicating this study with improvements using subsequent student groups attending future summer programs at Simon Fraser University. Improvements could include more definite background information (occupation/education) from parents, family position of the child, and possible pre-test of PAPS with children administered in the Spring before the tutoring. Then PAPS could be given at the end of the session as was done in this study. Consideration could be given to administering the PAPS--Parents' Version in a group at a parents' meeting toward the end of the tutoring sessions. It is important that some systematic research programs be set up in the areas of studying learning disabled children and this study provides a basic start for a series of studies.

Educational Implications

Successful students may generally be characterized by having a high self-regard and possessing a confidence in their ability to cope with life, and parents play an extremely vital role in this development (Purkey, 1970, p. 35). Results from this study provide a contrasting picture for the learning disabled student. Indeed these are children who are not coping successfully in their academic life and typically, their parents do not expect them to cope very well either.

It seems obvious that some practical educational efforts must be directed towards helping these children and parents view their future

possible academic achievements with more optimism. Realistically many of the children, although they are receiving remediation for skills deficits, may not be receiving appropriate nor adequate amounts of assistance. This would seem to be evidenced to some extent by parents seeking further help at Simon Fraser University (although some may be quite satisfied with the school help and may be merely trying to get all help available). But perhaps the more important educational implication from this study is that we should be giving help to children and parents in interpreting diagnoses and report cards, and in setting realistic expectations for the future. Report cards are particularly vague and confusing to parents. One parent commented "oh the report won't give you any real information." Likewise expert diagnoses and explanations of the child's problem are confusing to parents. Given the definition of "learning disability" these children should be able to achieve to regular school standards, whether more slowly or by different teaching methods. Because there may be discrepancies in academic expectations between parents and children, there may be a need for more help for parents in understanding the confusing ramifications of their children's lack of "normal" success at elementary school. One study found that parents want an honest evaluation of their child's problem and capabilities and wish to confront the child's problem directly (Dembinski & Mauser, 1977). This would indicate that training for teachers and school psychologists should include specific skills on interacting with parents of learning disabled children. Brookover et al. (1967, p. 201), in his study of adolescents found,

that by working with parents to enhance the academic expectations and evaluations parents held of their children's ability, the children's scholastic achievement was likely to show improvement. When the perceptions of the parents were modified, the students changed their self-perceptions positively and their grades improved. Further study in this area was suggested. Such interpretations and help for elementary school parents and their children might prove to be an invaluable adjunct to remedial teaching of the necessary skills.

APPENDIX A

Projected Academic Performance Scale

PROJECTED ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE SCALE

Prepared by

James W. Chapman and Frederic J. Boersma

NAME: _____

AGE: _____ BOY OR GIRL: _____

GRADE: _____ SCHOOL: _____

DATE: _____ ID: _____

These questions are to find out how you think you are going to do in school. Please circle the letter (a, b, c, d) of the answer that seems best for you. There are no right or wrong answers for these questions. This is not a test. Please answer all the questions, even if you are not sure.

1. How much do you think you will learn in spelling next year?

   a) just about everything that is taught
   b) most of what is taught
   c) some of what is taught
   d) very little of what is taught _

2. How good do you think you will be in spelling next year?

   a) I will be one of the best
   b) I will be better than most kids
   c) I will be better than some kids
   d) I won't be as good as most kids _

3. How well do you think you will like spelling next year?

   a) a lot
   b) a little
   c) not at all
   d) hate it _

4. Would you be surprised if you ever did well in spelling?

   a) yes, very surprised
   b) somewhat surprised
   c) not really surprised
   d) not at all surprised _

5. Do you think you will ever do as well in spelling as you would like to?

   a) yes, definitely
   b) probably
   c) not likely
   d) no _

6. Would you be surprised if you ever enjoyed spelling?

   a) yes, very surprised
   b) somewhat surprised
   c) not really surprised
   d) not at all surprised _

7. Do you think you will be good at spelling when you get older?

   a) yes, definitely
   b) probably
   c) not likely
   d) no _

8. How much do you think you will learn in reading next year?

   a) just about everything that is taught
   b) most of what is taught
   c) some of what is taught
   d) very little of what is taught

9. How good do you think you will be in reading next year?

   a) I will be one of the best
   b) I will be better than most kids
   c) I will be better than some kids
   d) I won't be as good as most kids

10. How well do you think you will like reading next year?

   a) a lot
   b) a little
   c) not at all
   d) hate it

11. Would you be surprised if you ever enjoyed reading?

   a) yes, very surprised
   b) somewhat surprised
   c) not really surprised
   d) not at all surprised

12. Do you think you will ever do as well in reading as you would like to?

   a) yes, definitely
   b) probably
   c) not likely
   d) no

13. Would you be surprised if you ever did well in reading?

   a) yes, very surprised
   b) somewhat surprised
   c) not really surprised
   d) not at all surprised

14. Do you think you will be good at reading when you get older?

   a) yes, definitely
   b) probably
   c) not likely
   d) no

8. How much do you think you will learn in reading next year?

   a) just about everything that is taught
   b) most of what is taught
   c) some of what is taught
   d) very little of what is taught

9. How good do you think you will be in reading next year?

   a) I will be one of the best
   b) I will be better than most kids
   c) I will be better than some kids
   d) I won't be as good as most kids

10. How well do you think you will like reading next year?

   a) a lot
   b) a little
   c) not at all
   d) hate it

11. Would you be surprised if you ever enjoyed reading?

   a) yes, very surprised
   b) somewhat surprised
   c) not really surprised
   d) not at all surprised

12. Do you think you will ever do as well in reading as you would like to?

   a) yes, definitely
   b) probably
   c) not likely
   d) no

13. Would you be surprised if you ever did well in reading?

   a) yes, very surprised
   b) somewhat surprised
   c) not really surprised
   d) not at all surprised

14. Do you think you will be good at reading when you get older?

   a) yes, definitely
   b) probably
   c) not likely
   d) no

22. How much do you think you will learn in math next year?

a) just about everything that is taught
b) most of what is taught
c) some of what is taught
d) very little of what is taught

23. How good do you think you will be in math next year?

a) I will be one of the best
b) I will be better than most kids
c) I will be better than some kids
d) I won't be as good as most kids

24. How much do you think you will like math next year?

a) a lot
b) a little
c) not at all
d) hate it

25. Would you be surprised if you ever enjoyed math?

a) yes, very surprised
b) somewhat surprised
c) not really surprised
d) not at all surprised

26. Do you think you will ever do as well in math as you would like to?

a) yes, definitely
b) probably
c) not likely
d) no

27. Would you be surprised is you ever did well in math?

a) yes, very surprised
b) somewhat surprised
c) not really surprised
d) not at all surprised

28. Do you think you will be good at math when you get older?

a) yes, definitely
b) probably
c) not likely
d) no

29. How much do you think you will learn in social studies next year?

a) just about everything that is taught
b) most of what is taught
c) some of what is taught
d) very little of what is taught

30. How good do you think you will be in social studies next year?

a) I will be one of the best
b) I will be better than most kids
c) I will be better than some kids
d) I won't be as good as most kids

31. How well do you think you will like social studies next year?

a) a lot
b) a little
c) not at all
d) hate it

32. Would you be surprised if you ever enjoyed social studies?

a) yes, very surprised
b) somewhat surprised
c) not really surprised
d) not at all surprised

33. Do you think you will ever do as well in social studies as you would like to?

a) yes, definitely
b) probably
c) not likely
d) no

34. Would you be surprised if you ever did well in social studies?

a) yes, very surprised
b) somewhat surprised
c) not really surprised
d) not at all surprised

35. Do you think you will be good at social studies when you get older?

a) yes, definitely
b) probably
c) not likely
d) no

36. How much do you think you will learn in science next year?

a) just about everything that is taught
b) most of what is taught
c) some of what is taught
d) very little of what is taught

37. How good do you think you will be in science next year?

a) I will be one of the best
b) I will be better than most kids
c) I will be better than some kids
d) I won't be as good as most kids

38. How well do you think you will like science next year?

a) a lot
b) a little
c) not at all
d) hate it

39. Would you be surprised if you ever enjoyed science?

a) yes, very surprised
b) somewhat surprised
c) not really surprised
d) not at all surprised

40. Do you think you will ever do as well in science as you would like to?

a) yes, definitely
b) probably
c) not likely
d) no

41. Would you be surprised if you ever did well in science?

a) yes, very surprised
b) somewhat surprised
c) not really surprised
d) not at all surprised

42. Do you think you will be good at science when you get older?

a) yes, definitely
b) probably
c) not likely
d) no

APPENDIX B

Projected Academic Performance Scale--
Parent's Version

PROJECTED ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE SCALE - PARENT VERSION

Prepared by

James W. Chapman and Frederic J. Boersma

Department of Educational Psychology

University of Alberta

1978

ID:_____

The following statements are designed to find out how well you think your child will perform on school subjects in the future. Please circle the letter (a,b,c,d) of the answer which best describes how you feel. Please answer every question, even if it is difficult to decide, but make sure that you only circle one letter per question.

Thank you.

1. How good do you think your child will be in spelling next year?

   a) one of the best in the class
   b) better than most in the class
   c) better than some in the class
   d) won't be as good as most in the class

   ___

2. Do you think your child will ever be good at spelling when he/she is older

   a) yes, definitely
   b) probably
   c) not likely
   d) no

   ___

3. How good do you think your child will be in reading next year?

   a) one of the best in the class
   b) better than most in the class
   c) better than some in the class
   d) won't be as good as most in the class

   ___

4. Do you think your child will ever be good at reading when he/she is older?

   a) yes, definitely
   b) probably
   c) not likely
   d) no

   ___

5. How good do you think your child will be in language arts next year?

   a) one of the best in the class
   b) better than most in the class
   c) better than some in the class
   d) won't be as good as most in the class

   ___

6. Do you think your child will ever be good at language arts when he/she is older?

   a) yes, definitely
   b) probably
   c) not likely
   d) no

   ___

7. How good do you think your child will be in math next year?

a) one of the best in the class
b) better than most in the class
c) better than some in the class
d) not as good as most in the class

8. Do you think your child will ever be good at math when he/she is older?

a) yes, definitely
b) probably
c) not likely
d) no

9. How good do you think your child will be in social studies next year?

a) one of the best in the class
b) better than most in the class
c) better than some in the class
d) not as good as most in the class

10. Do you think your child will ever be good at social studies when he/she is older?

a) yes, definitely
b) probably
c) not likely
d) no

11. How good do you think your child will be in science next year?

a) one of the best in the class
b) better than most in the class
c) better than some in the class
d) not as good as most in the class

12. Do you think your child will ever be good at science when he/she is older?

a) yes, definitely
b) probably
c) not likely
d) no

APPENDIX C

Raw Data from Children's Scale PAPS

Equivalent				Questions																
				1	8	15	22	29	36	2	9	16	23	30	37	3	10	17	24	31	38
Child	Age	Gr	Sex	Sp	R (learn how much?)	LA	M	SS	Sc	Sp	R (good at next year?)	LA	M	SS	Sc	Sp	R	LA (like?)	M	SS	Sc
A	13	6		3	3	3	3	4	4	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	4
B	12	5		3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	2	2	4	4	4	4	3	1
C	14	8		4	4	3	3	4	4	1	4	2	2	2	2	3	4	3	3	4	4
D	8	3	F	2	2	3	3	3	3	1	2	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	3
E	10	4		4	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	1	3
F	10	5	F	2	3	3	4	3	2	1	1	1	3	2	2	4	3	3	4	3	2
G	12	6		4	3	4	3	3	3	2	1	2	2	1	2	4	3	3	3	1	3
H	9	4		3	4	3	4	4	3	2	3	2	4	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	3
I	10	4		3	3	3	4	2	3	2	2	3	4	2	3	4	3	3	4	3	4
J	8	3		4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	4	3	3
K	12	6	F	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	2	2	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	4
L	10	5		4	4	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	3
M	8	3		4	3	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
N	12	6		3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	3
O	11	6	F	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	4	3	3	3	3	3
P	9	4		2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3
Q	13	7		3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3
R	10	4	F	2	2	2	4	1	3	1	1	2	3	1	2	1	2	2	4	2	3
S	10	4		4	2	4	4	3	2	4	4	2	3	2	2	4	4	1	4	3	3
T	11	5	F	3	4	2	3	3	4	2	3	2	2	2	3	4	4	3	4	4	4
U	13	7	F	3	3	2	1	2	2	2	4	3	1	2	2	3	4	4	1	3	3
V	11	5		4	1	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	3	2	2	1	3	2	3	2	3
W	9	4		4	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	4	4	4	4	4	4
X	11	5		3	3	3	4	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	4	4	1	1
Y	8	3	F	4	3	4	4	4	4	2	2	2	2	2	2	4	4	4	4	4	4
Z	10	4		3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	2	2	3	4	3	3	3	3
Means				3.2	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.1	3.1	2.2	2.5	2.4	2.7	2.3	2.4	3.1	3.3	3.1	3.5	2.9	3.1

Equivalent				Questions											
				4	11	18	25	32	39	5	12	19	26	33	40
				Sp	R	LA	M	SS	Sc	Sp	R	LA	M	SS	Sc
Child	Age	Gr	Sex	(suprised if did well?)						(do as well as like to?)					
A	13	6		3	3	3	3	3	4	2	2	2	3	2	4
B	12	5		4	4	4	4	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
C	14	8		3	4	3	3	4	4	1	4	4	2	4	4
D	8	3	F	1	3	3	3	3	3	1	2	2	2	2	2
E	10	4		3	3	3	4	1	3	2	2	2	4	1	2
F	10	5	F	4	3	3	4	3	2	2	2	3	4	1	3
G	12	6		4	3	3	3	1	3	4	2	2	1	1	1
H	9	4		3	4	3	4	4	3	2	1	2	1	2	2
I	10	4		4	3	3	4	3	4	2	2	1	4	1	3
J	8	3		3	3	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	4
K	12	6	F	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	1	1	1	4
L	10	5		4	4	3	4	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	1
M	8	3		4	4	4	4	4	4	1	1	1	1	1	1
N	12	6		3	3	3	3	2	3	1	1	3	2	2	3
O	11	6	F	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	2	1
P	9	4		3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2
Q	13	7		3	3	3	4	3	3	2	1	1	1	2	2
R	10	4	F	1	2	2	4	2	3	1	1	2	4	1	1
S	10	4		4	4	1	4	3	3	2	2	2	1	3	2
T	11	5	F	4	4	3	4	4	4	2	4	3	4	4	4
U	13	7	F	3	4	4	1	3	3	1	4	4	1	2	2
V	11	5		1	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	1	3	2	3
W	9	4		4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3
X	11	5		1	1	4	4	1	1	3	2	4	4	4	1
Y	8	3	F	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	3	3
Z	10	4		3	4	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	2
Means				3.1	3.3	3.1	3.5	2.9	3.1	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.1	3.4

Equivalent				Questions							Questions						Entire Test Totals
				6	13	20	27	34	41	7	14	21	28	35	42		
Child	Age	Gr	Sex	Sp	R (surprised if	LA	M	SS	Sc enjoyed?)	Sp	R (good at	LA	M	SS	Sc older?)		Max. 168
A	13	6		2	2	2	2	2	4	3	3	3	3	3	3		116
B	12	5		2	2	1	1	1	1	3	4	4	4	4	4		123*
C	14	8		3	4	2	1	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	4		128
D	8	3	F	2	2	2	3	2	2	4	3	4	3	3	3		107
E	10	4		2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3		123
F	10	5	F	2	2	3	4	3	3	3	3	2	4	3	3		113
G	12	6		1	3	3	4	1	1	4	4	3	2	1	3		108*
H	9	4		2	1	2	1	1	2	4	4	3	4	4	3		121*
I	10	4		2	2	1	4	1	2	3	3	3	4	3	3		117
J	8	3		3	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4		148
K	12	6	F	1	2	1	1	3	3	4	3	3	3	4	4		122
L	10	5		1	1	1	1	1	1	4	4	4	4	3	3		114*
M	8	3		1	1	1	1	1	1	4	4	3	4	3	4		126*
N	12	6		3	2	2	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3		107
O	11	6	F	2	1	1	3	2	1	3	3	3	1	2	2		92
P	9	4		1	2	2	2	2	2	4	4	3	3	3	4		105
Q	13	7		1	1	1	1	1	2	4	4	4	3	3	3		111*
R	10	4	F	1	1	1	4	1	1	3	3	2	4	3	2		89
S	10	4		2	2	4	1	2	1	4	2	2	3	4	3		118
T	11	5	F	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4		145
U	13	7	F	1	4	4	1	2	2	3	4	4	2	4	3		112
V	11	5		2	1	2	1	3	2	2	3	4	4	3	3		105
W	9	4		3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	2	2		116
X	11	5		1	1	3	4	1	1	3	3	4	4	1	3		108
Y	8	3	F	3	4	3	3	2	2	4	4	4	4	4	4		138
Z	10	4		1	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	2		115
Means				1.9	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.2	2.2	3.4	3.4	3.2	3.4	3.1	3.2		116.42
																	S.D. 13.93

* = showed inconsistency in responses

Child	Age	Gr	Sex	Tutored in	Subtest Totals Q 1-7 (incl.) Sp	R	M
A	13	6		R/Sp	18	18	19
B	12	5		R/Sp	21	21	22
C	14	8		M	16	28	18
D	8	3	F	R	12	17	20
E	10	4		R	20	19	26
F	10	5	F	Sp/R	17	17	26
G	12	6		R	23	19	17
H	9	4		R	19	21	22
I	10	4		R/Sp	19	18	27
J	8	3		R	25	24	28
K	12	6	F	R	20	20	16
L	10	5		R/Sp	21	21	20
M	8	3		R	20	21	22
N	12	6		R/Sp	18	17	18
O	11	6	F	M	18	15	15
P	9	4		Sp	17	19	17
Q	13	7		R/Sp	19	18	19
R	10	4	F	R/Sp	11	12	27
S	10	4		R/M	24	19	20
T	11	5	F	R	23	27	25
U	13	7	F	M	16	27	10
V	11	5		R/Sp	17	17	19
W	9	4		Sp	21	19	19
X	11	5		Sp	16	15	26
Y	8	3	F	R/Sp	24	22	23
Z	10	4		R/Sp	17	21	21
				$\bar{x}$	18.9	19.7	20.9
				S.D.	3.4	3.7	4.3

APPENDIX D

Raw Data from Parents' Scale PAPS

Questions: (Next Year and When Older: Expectations in:)			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Entire Test	
			Sp			R			LA			M			SS			Sc				
Parent of Child	Ch. Age	Ch. Sex	N	Yr	O	N	Yr	O	N	Yr	O	N	Yr	O	N	Yr	O	N	Yr	O	Totals Max. 48	Tutored in
A	13		1		2	1		2	1		2	2		3	1		2	2		2	21	R/Sp
B	12		1		3	1		3	1		3	1		3	1		3	1		3	24	R/Sp
C	14		2		3	4		4	2		3	2		2	2		3	3		4	34	M
D	8	F	2		3	2		3	2		3	2		3	2		3	2		3	30	R
E	10		1		3	2		3	2		2	2		3	2		3	2		3	28	R
F	10	F	1		2	2		2	2		2	2		2	2		2	2		2	23	Sp/R
G	12		3		4	2		4	2		3	2		4	2		3	2		3	34	R
H	9		3		4	1		3	2		3	3		4	2		4	2		4	35	R
I	10		1		3	1		3	1		3	4		4	4		4	3		3	34	R/Sp
J	8		1		3	1		2	1		2	2		3	2		3	2		3	25	R
K	12	F	2		3	2		3	2		3	2		4	2		3	2		3	31	R
L	10		3		4	3		4	3		4	4		4	4		4	4		4	47	R/Sp
M	8		2		3	1		2	1		3	3		3	2		3	2		3	28	R
N	12		1		3	1		3	1		3	2		3	1		3	2		3	26	R/Sp
O	11	F	4		4	3		4	2		3	2		3	2		3	2		3	35	M
P	9		2		3	2		3	2		3	2		3	2		3	2		3	30	Sp
Q	13		2		3	2		3	2		3	3		4	3		3	3		3	34	R/Sp
R	10	F	1		2	1		3	2		3	3		4	2		3	3		3	31	R/Sp
S	10		2		3	2		4	2		3	2		2	2		2	2		2	28	R/M
T	11	F	1		2	1		3	1		2	1		1	2		2	1		2	19	R
U	13	F	3		4	4		4	3		4	1		2	2		3	2		3	35	M
V	11		2		4	2		3	2		3	3		3	2		3	2		3	32	R/Sp
W	9		1		2	1		2	2		2	1		2	2		2	2		3	22	Sp
X	11		1		1	2		2	1		2	2		2	2		3	2		3	23	Sp
Y	8	F	1		2	1		3	2		4	2		4	3		4	3		4	33	R/Sp
Z	10		1		2	2		2	2		1	2		3	2		3	2		3	25	R/Sp
Means ($\bar{x}$)			1.7		2.9	1.8		3.0	1.8		2.8	2.2		3.0	2.1		3.0	2.2		3.0	28.9	
																				S.D.	6.0	

APPENDIX E

Correspondence

SIMON FRASER UNIVERSITY

MEMORANDUM

Helen Thom	From: Dr. Audrey Doerr, Chairman University Research Ethics Revie Committee
Faculty of Education	
bd. Ethical Approval	Date: September 24, 1981

On behalf of the University Research Ethics Review Committee I approve your research proposal, "Explication of Relations between Parent and Child Expectations of Academic Ability in the Population of Learning Disabled Children," as satisfying the University requirements for the ethical design and conduct of research.

AD/rj

cc: Dr. Leon Prock,
Faculty of Education

September 22, 1981

Dear

As we mentioned to you at the parents' meeting on July 13, 1981, we are hoping to gather some follow-up information with regard to your student's achievements following his attendance at the summer tutoring sessions. We wish now to obtain the necessary data and I will outline the procedures we plan to follow.

We are asking for your help in two ways. First, we ask you to complete the enclosed short questionnaire and mail it back in the self-addressed and stamped envelope by October 30th, 1981. The second involvement will require you to photocopy your child's first report card and return it in a second envelope that will be sent to you at the appropriate time.

May I point out that you are free to participate or not in this survey, that you may withdraw at anytime, and that you may contact Dr. Prock at 291-4117 if you have any questions. Naturally we hope that you will want to participate as a way of helping us to learn more about children who are in some ways having difficulties in their academic achievements so that in turn we may provide leadership in promoting changes in our educational institutions towards providing better services suited to childrens' particular needs.

You may be assured that there are no right or wrong answers as you will note from the kinds of questions being asked. We assure you too, that the information you provide will be held in strictest confidence, that collected data will simply be coded without names as group information into a computer, and that the original questionnaire and report photocopy will be destroyed or returned to you on request.

Also please note that the questions in the questionnaire referring to "next" year mean this present academic year 1981-82. Your return of the questionnaire to Simon Fraser University is your consent to participate in this survey.

... 2

We hope that you will be able to return the enclosed questionnaire by October 30th, 1981. Please make a note to photocopy your child's first report card for us when it comes in November.

When the survey is completed we will send you a copy of the results. We thank you sincerely for your help.

Helen Thom

and

Dr. Leone Prock
Associate Professor
S.F.U.

SIMON FRASER UNIVERSITY, BURNABY, B.C., CANADA V5A 1S6
FACULTY OF EDUCATION: 291 3395

November 5, 1981

Dear

We are enclosing a self-addressed and stamped envelope for your convenience in mailing to us the photostatic copy of your child's first report card which is due in November. Most branches of the Public Library have photostat machines and we hope that you will be able to mail your copy before the end of November to avoid the mail congestion that often occurs in December.

Thank you for returning your questionnaires promptly. We very much appreciate your cooperation.

Helen Thom

and

Dr. Leone Prock
Associate Professor
S.F.U.

Reference Notes

1. Chapman, J. W., & Boersma, F. J. Measuring achievement expectations in elementary school children. Unpublished manuscript, University of Alberta, 1980.

2. Bryan, T. H. & Bryan, J. H. Some personal and social experiences of learning disabled children. Manuscript submitted for publication, 1980.

3. Bryan, T., Pearl, R., Zimmerman, D., & Matthews, F. Mothers' evaluations of their learning disabled children. Unpublished manuscript, University of Illinois, 1981.

4. Chapman, J. W., Boersma, F. J., & Maguire, T. O. Technical data on the Projected Academic Performance Scale. Unpublished manuscript, University of Alberta, 1979.

5. Chapman, J. W., Cullen, J. L., Boersma, F. J., & Maguire, T. O. Affective variables and school achievement: A study of possible causal influences. Manuscript submitted for publication, 1981.

6. Dunn, G. E., Pearl, R., & Bryan, T. Learning disabled children's self evaluations. Unpublished manuscript, University of Illinois, 1981.

7. Prock, L. M. Mapping relations between learning disabilities and emotions. Manuscript submitted for publication, 1981.

8. Chapman, J. W. & Boersma, F. J. The Projected Academic Performance Scale. Unpublished instrument, University of Alberta, 1978.

9. Chapman, J. W. & Boersma, F. J. Projected Academic Performance Scale--Parents' Version. Unpublished scale, University of Alberta, 1978.

List of References

Adelman, H. S. The concept of intrinsic motivation: Implications for practice and research with the learning disabled. Learning Disability Quarterly, 1978, 1, 43-53.

Bloom, B. S. Human characteristics and school learning. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1976.

Boersma, F. J., & Chapman, J. W. The Student's Perception of Ability Scale. Edmonton, Alberta: University of Alberta, 1977.

Brookover, W. B., & Erickson, E. L. Society, schools and learning. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1969.

Brookover, W. B., Erickson, E. L., & Joiner, L. M. Self-concept of ability and school achievement III: Relationship of self-concept to achievement in high school. U.S. Office of Education Cooperative Research Project No. 2831, East Lansing Office of Research and Publications, Michigan State University, 1967.

Chapman, J. W., & Boersma, F. J. Academic self-concept in elementary learning disabled children: A study with the Student's Perception of Ability Scale. Psychology in the Schools, 1979, 16, 201-206. (a)

Chapman, J. W., & Boersma, F. J. Learning disabilities, locus of control, and mother attitudes. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1979, 71, 250-258. (b)

Coleman, J. S., Campbell, E. Q., Hobson, C. J., McPartland, J., Mood, A. M., Weinfeld, E., & York, R. L. Equality of educational opportunity. Superintendent of Documents. Catalogue No. 5S5;238:38011, Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, 1966.

Covington, M. V., & Beery, R. G. Self-worth and school learning. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1976.

Crandall, V. C. Sex differences in expectancy of intellectual and academic reinforcement. In C. P. Smith (Ed.) Achievement-related motives in children. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1969.

Crandall, V. C., Katkovsky, W., & Crandall, V. J. Children's beliefs in their own control of reinforcements in intellectual-academic achievement situations. Child Development, 1965, 36, 91-109.

Dembinski, R. J. & Mauser, A. J. What parents of the learning disabled really want from professionals. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 1977, 10, 578-584.

Dweck, C. S., The role of expectations and attributions in the alleviation of learned helplessness. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1975, 31, 674-685.

Dweck, C. S., & Reppucci, N. D. Learned helplessness and reinforcement and responsibility in children. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1973, 25, 109-116.

Entwistle, D. R. & Hayduk, L. A. Too great expectations. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1978.

Epstein, J., Berg-Cross, G., & Berg-Cross, L. Maternal expectations and birth order in families with learning disabled and normal children. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 1980, 13, 45-52.

Feather, N. T. Effects of prior success and failure on expectations of success and subsequent performance. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1966, 3, 287-298.

Fincham, F., & Barling, J. Locus of control and generosity in learning disabled, normal achieving, and gifted children. Child Development, 1978, 49, 530-533.

Frieze, I. H., & Snyder, H. N. Children's beliefs about the causes of success and failure in school settings. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1980, 72, 186-196.

Green, E. J. Birth order, parental interest and academic achievement. San Francisco: R & E Research Associates, Inc., 1978.

Grimes, L. Learned helplessness and attribution theory: Redefining children's learning problems. Learning Disability Quarterly, 1981, 4, 91-100.

Hallahan, D. P., Gajar, A. H., Cohen, S. B., & Tarver, S. G. Selective attention and locus of control in learning disabled and normal children. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 1978, 11, 231-236.

Hamachek, D. E. Psychology in teaching, learning and growth, (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1979.

Hess, R. D. & Shipman, C. Early experience and the socialization of cognitive modes in children. Child Development, 1965, 36, 869-886.

Humphries, R. W., & Bauman, E. Maternal child rearing attitudes associated with learning disabilities. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 1980, 13, 459-462.

Jones, R. A. Self-fulfilling prophecies, social, psychological and physiological effects of expectancies. New Jersey: Laurence Erlbaum Associates, 1977.

Kifer, E. Relationships between academic achievement and personality characteristics: A quasi-longitudinal study. American Educational Research Journal, 1975, 12, 191-210.

Lefcourt, H. M. Locus of control: Current trends in theory and research. New Jersey: Laurence Erlbaum Associates, 1976.

Love, H. A. Parental attitudes toward exceptional children. Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1970.

Nicholls, J. G. Causal attributions and other achievement-related cognitions: Effects of task outcome, attainment value and sex. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1975, 31, 379-389.

Nicholls, J. G. The development of the concepts of effort and ability, perception of academic attainment, and the understanding that difficult tasks require more ability. Child Development, 1978, 49, 800-814.

Nicholls, J. G. Development of perception of own attainment and causal attributions for success and failure in reading. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1979, 71, 94-99.

Owen, F. W., Adams, P. A., Forrest, T., Stolz, L. M., & Fisher, S. Learning disorders in children: Sibling studies. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 1971, University of Chicago Press, Vol. 36 (No. 4, Serial No. 144).

Parsons, J. E., & Ruble, D. N. The development of achievement-related expectancies. Child Development, 1977, 48, 1075-1079.

Pearl, R., Bryan, T., & Donahue, M. Learning disabled children's attributions for success and failure. Learning Disability Quarterly, 1980, 3, 3-8.

Phares, E. J. Locus of control in personality. New Jersey: General Learning Press, 1976.

Piers, E. V. Manual for the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. Nashville, Tenn.: Counselor Recordings and Tests, 1969.

Purkey, W. W. Self-concept and school achievement. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Rogers, C., Smith, M., & Coleman, M. Social comparison in the classroom: The relationship between academic achievement and self-concept. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1978, 70, 50-57.

Rosen, B. C., & D'Andrade, R. The psychosocial origins of achievement motivation. Sociometry, 1959, 22, 185-218.

Rotter, J. B. Generalized expectancies for internal vs external control of reinforcement. Psychological Monographs, 1966, 80, (1, No. 609).

Rotter, J. B. Clinical Psychology, (2nd ed.), New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1971.

Smith, C. P. The origin and expression of achievement-related motives in children. In C. P. Smith (ed.) Achievement-related motives in children. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1969.

Torgesen, J. K., & Dice, C. Characteristics of research on learning disabilities. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 1980, 13, 531-535.

Veroff, J. Social comparison and the development of achievement motivation. In C. P. Smith (Ed.), Achievement-related motives in children. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1969.

Weiner, B. Achievement motivation and attribution theory. New Jersey: General Learning Press, 1974.

Weiner, B. An attributional approach for educational psychology. Review of Research in Education, 1976, 4, 179-209.