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Marsh, Herbert W. AUTHOR

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Relationships Among Dimensions of Self-attribution, Dimensions of Self-concept and Academic Achievements

Herbert W. Marsh The University of Sydney

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Running Head: Self-attrributions

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Relationships Among Dimensions of Self-attribution, Dimensions of Self-concept and Academic Achievements

ABSTRACT

In a sample of 559 fifth grade students measures were collected to assess: 1) dimensions of self-attribution for causes of academic outcomes; 2) multiple dimensions of self-concept; and, 3) academic achievements. The empirically derived dimensions of academic selfattribution replicated and extended results of previous research, but failed to support bipolar dimensions (e.g., internal-external, stableunstable) found when characteristics of the attributional situation are manipulated. Overall, students who attribute academic success to ability (and to a lesser extent to effort) and who do NOT attribute failure to a lack of ability (and to a lesser extent not to a lack of effort) were found to have: 1) better academic self-concepts (based upon self-reports; and self-concepts inferred by peers and by teachers); and 2) better academic achievement (based on test scores and teacher ratings). The specificity and the predictability of the the observed pattern of relationships supports the construct validity of interpretations based upon both the self-attribution and selfconcept instruments.

Relationships Among Dimensions of Self-attribution, Dimensions of Self-concept and Academic Achievements

Attribution researchers ask subjects for their perceptions of the cause of a particular outcome and examine the perceived causes (4.e., attributions) which people use to explain events. They argue that perceived causes of success and failure have important implications and these have been widely applied in educational settings.

Individual differences in the way children attribute outcomes to such causes as ability, effort and luck are related to school performance, self-concept, and academic behaviors (Bar-Tal, 1979; Marsh, et al., 1984; Weiner, 1979). Nevertheless, self-attribution is a hypothetical construct whose usefulness must be shown through the demonstration of its construct validity.

In different experimental contexts, attribution researchers examine individual differences in the way subjects explain their own behavior in different settings (a dispositional or trait emphasis) and examine how systematic manipulations in the context alter attributions. (a situational or state emphasis). In both types of study subjects are typically presented with stimull depicting success or failure and asked to judge the likelphood of each of a series of possible . causes for the outcome (e.g., ability, effort, luck, task difficulty). Dispositional studies ask subjects to make self-attributions about their own behavior, while situational studies typically ask for attributions about a hypothetical other person. Dispositional studies generally give subjects little information about the cause of the outcome in the stimulus, while stimuli in situational studies provide detailed information. For example, a subject in a dispositional study may be told only that he/she did poorly on a math test and asked to judge the Pikelihood of various causes while subjects in a situational study may be told that a hypothetical other person did poorly and that the person is intelligent, that the test was easy, and that the person did not study very hard for it. In situational research components of the stimulis are systematically varied (e.g.; the hypothetical person was or was not intelligent; the test was easy or difficult; etc.) and effects of these situational manipulations which generalize across subjects are sought. In dispositional research attributional tendencies in individual subjects which generalize across situations are sought. It is important to emphasize that neither approach is inherently superior and that the attribution process is affected by both situational and dispositional tendencies. Nevertheless, it is

clearly inappropriate to assume that findings from one approach will generalize to the other, though the mistake is common in attribution research (see Marsh; et al., 1984). The focus of this study is on the identification of dispositional tendencies in the way children form attributions about academic outcomes, and how these relate to other constructs.

The study of individual differences in self-attributions stems primarily from "locus of control" research (Rotter, 1966) where a generalized expectancy for the internal or external control of events is hypothesized. Marsh et al. (1984) have recently argued that such dispositional tendencies may be specific to particular content areas such as academic achievement or even to particular subject areas within an academic setting (e.g., verbal or mathematical achievement). Attribution theorists place more emphasis on different causes (é.g., ability, effort, luck, etc.) and stress the effects of situational variables which are experimentally manipulated. Thus, Weiner (1972; 1974) argued for a two-dimensional taxonomy where bipolar dimensions are locus (internal-external) and stability (stable-unstable). Hence, perceived causes can be classified into one of four types representing the $2 \times 2 = 4$ combinations of the endpoints of the two dimensions (e.g., ability is an internal, stable cause). While this earlier formulation has been the basis of most research, Weiner (1979, 1980) has more recently postulated a third dimension of controllability (controllable-uncontrollable), which results in eight cells or types of attribution (i.e., $\overline{2} \times \overline{2} \times \overline{2}$):

Weiner's model; which is based upon a logical analysis of the attribution process; has been quite heuristic, and a large body of empirical support for the model is summarized by Weiner (e.g., 1979, 1980). Despite this empirical support, many problems still remain (see Marsh, et al., 1984 for further discussion). Certain combinations appear to be mutually exclusive (e.g., external/controllable) so that some of the eight cells in the Weiner model may be empty. Weiner has not specified whether his theoretical dimensions are orthogonal, though this seems unlikely. The relationship between these dimensions and outcome (i.e., success or failure) has not been specified adequately. The measurement of attributions is typically conducted with ad hoc instruments with untested psychometric properties. The classification of causes (e.g., ability as internal/stable, and effort as internal/unstable) cannot be made independent of the particular attribution context (see Weiner, in



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press). Most importantly for the present research, support comes almost entirely from situational research, and there is little research to test whether or not these theoretical dimensions also describe dispositional differences in the way subjects perceive causes of their own behavior. The dispositional-situational distinction is particularly confused here in that the term "dimensions" hormally refers to factors which result from individual difference research.

Factor analytic studies of dispositional tendencies in the attribution process typically fail to support the theoretical dimensions found in situational research. Fennema (Fennema, Wolleat & Pedro, Note 1) and Relich (Note 2) independently developed selfattribution scales for performance in mathematics. Mach was designed to measure four scales derived from Weiner's earlier model and considered outcomes representing both success and failure. The Relich study resulted in five clearly defined factors: 10 ability (where items representing ability attributions for success outcomes -- i.e., success/ability items -- and failure/ability items loaded in opposite directions); 2) success/effort; 3) fallure/effort; 4) success/task difficulty and success/luck; and 5) failure task/difficulty and failure/luck. Factors identified in the Fennema data (see Marsh, et ai., 1984) were consists t with these except that the two effort scales did not appear as separate factors. Marsh et al. (1984) designed a self-attribution instrument to measure the 18 scales representing the factorial combination of three facets; academic content (math, reading, and general school); outcome (success or failure); and perceived fause (ability, effort, and external causes). Factor analysis of responses to that instrument resulted in seven factors; three failure factors representing ability, effort and external causes, two success factors representing effort and external causes, and two content-specific factors representing primarily ability in math and ability in reading. This research led the authors to conclude that dispositional tendencies in the attribution process are specific to outcome; perceived cause; and content.

In self-concept research, a relationship between attributional tendencies and self-concept is frequently hypothesized, but the theoretical basis of this hypothesis is seldom elaborated. In a review of the theoretical and empirical basis for this relationship, Marsh et al. (1984) argued that a favorable self-concept was consistent with attributions to ability and effort as perceived causes of success, but not with a disposition to attribute failure to a lack of effort and particularly not to a lack of ability. On the basis of

this review and their empirical findings they concluded that academic self-concept is substantially correlated with success/ability and success/effort attributions (positively), and with failure/ability attributions (negatively), and less substantially correlated with failure effort attributions (negatively). Also, the magnitude of these correlations is largest when self-attributions and self-concepts involve the same area of academic content (e.g., reading or mathematics).

The Present Study.

The purpose of the present study is to replicate and expand findings from the Marsh et al. (1984) study.' The findings are based upon a refined version of the Sydney Attribution Scale (SAS) used in the earlier research, a multidimensional self-concept measure, selfconcepts inferred by peers and by teachers; achievement test scores in math and reading, and teacher ratings of student academic abilities. A 72-item revision of the SAS was used instead of the 180-item instrument employed in the earlier study. Dimensions underlying the self-attributions were examined with both conventional/exploratory factor analytic techniques considered earlier and also with confirmatory factor analyses. The addition of self-concepts inferred by teachers and by geers; as well as the self-report measure used previously, provides a stronger basis for examining the selfattribution/self-concept relationship. The collection of a wide variety of achievement scores in this study also allows the examination of relationships between self-attributions and academic achievement. On the basis of the literature review and empirical results from the earlier research it is predicted that:

- i) self-attribution responses to the SAS Will define seven facture corresponding to: reading ability; math ability; success/effort; success/external causes; (bilume/ability; failume/effort; and failume/external causes;
- 2) Academic self-concepts will be substantially correlated with success/ability and success/effort attributions (positively), with failure/ability attributions (negatively), less substantially correlated with failure/effort attributions (negatively), and least correlated with success/external and failure/external scales. The magnitude of correlations which are predicted to be substantial will be largest when both self-concept and self-attribution measures are specific to the same academic subject (i.e., reading or math). This pattern of results is also predicted to generalize to self-concepts inferred by teachers and by peers.
- 3) Academic achievement scores will be most highly correlated with success/ability (positively) and failure/ability (negatively) scales, and less substantially correlated with effort scales. Again, the magnitude of correlations predicted to be substantial will be largest when achievement and self-attributions are specific to the same academic subject.

These predictions emphasize both the convergence of measures which are theoretically or logically connected; and divergence of

measures which are designed to measure separate components. Thus the pattern of results is as important as the actual magnitude of correlations; and follows an approach to construct validity which is based upon the logic of multitrait-multimethod analysis (see Marsh, 1982; Marsh, et al., 1984).

METHOD:

Sample and Procedures.

Subjects were were the 559 fifth grade students (mostly 12 year olds) enrolled in 19 fifth grade classes in one of seven private Catholic schools in Sydney, Australia. Most of the students attended single-sex classes (18 of the 19 classes). Children in the sample came from families which varied in socioeconomic status from lower-middle to upper-middle class. Across all the children in the study. academic abilities were about average. Data considered are part of a larger project which is described in more detail by Marsh, Smith & Larnes (Note 3):

The self-concept and self-attribution measures were administered by one of the authors to intact, classes of no more than 34 students. For both self-report instruments several practice examples were given along with instructions to ensure that pupils understood what was expected of them, and then the items were read aloud at a fairly rapid pace (though children had copies of the instruments in front of them and could rest along with the researcher). After students had completed the self-concept instrument, they were asked to write their name on a second copy of the SDO and to exchange papers with a pubil sitting beside them. They were then asked to take the new survey to a different desk so that they were sitting besides a different pupil and to complete the survey as if they were the pupil whose name was on the paper. Thus, the task of the peer was to "predict" the responses made by the subject: care was taken to ensure that the subject and the selected peer did not discuss the subject's responses. While the various instruments were being administered to the students; the classroom teacher was asked to complete a rating sheet about each child which included ability ratings for reading, math, and school . subjects in general, and inferred self-concept ratings in the same scales as assessed by the self-concept instrument. Teacher ratings were made with a nine-point response scale varying from "1 - very poor" to "9 - very good." Some teachers were unable to complete the ratings until later, and one teacher declined to complete the forms at ā11.



The achievement tests were distributed to the schools by the researchers, but were actually administered by the classroom teachers during a regular class session before the administration of the self-report measures. These tests were then scored by the researchers with the understanding that feedback would be given to the schools. Two of the schools declined to participate in the achievement testing, though they did agree to the administration of the self-report measures and to complete teacher ratings.

Testing Materials.

Sydney Attribution Scale (SAS). The purpose of the SAS is to measure students perceptions of causes of their academic success and failure. The revised version used in this study is designed to measure 12 scales which result from the factorial combination of three facets: academic content (MEmath or REreading); outcome (Sesuccess or F=failure); and perceived cause (A=ability, E=effort, or X=external zauses). Thus RSA or reading/subcoss/ability refers to the stale represented by items which measure attributions to ability as the cause of success in reading. Each of the 12 scales is measured by 6 of the 72 items. The instrument consists of 24 brief scenarios describing a situation in which the student is to suppose him/herself in a situation representing an academic success or failure. With each scenario dre three fandomiz ordered, plausible causes for the outcome and students mite independent ratings of each cause along i five-point response =:318 Which /aries frod "i-False" to "5-True!" The rationale for the design of the SAS is described by Maran; et al. (1984); The revised version differs from that earlier version in that six items (instead of 10) were gelected to represent each scale; and the size scales relating to "school subjects in general" were excluded. An example of one of the scenarios and the three causes is as follows:

A preliminary item analysis of responses to the SAS (conducted with the commercially available SPSS program, see Hull & Nie; 1981) indicated that none of the SAS items in any of the 12 scales was a negative discriminator, and that 67 of the 22 items had "corrected item-total correlations" (see Hull & Nie, 1981) of at least 0.30. Coefficient alphas for the six success scales (0.69 to 0.84 -- median

to 0.75 -- median = 0.66). For purposes of this study, based upun results described later and the results of Marsh et al. (1984), eight scores were used to summarize responses to the SAS. Six of these scores (success/ability, success/effort, success/external, failure/ability, failure/effort, and failure/external) were obtained by summing responses to reading and math items, wife the two content specific factors were defined only by reading items or only by math items (these scores and their empirical support are discussed later in more detail). These eight scores had coefficient alphas ranging from 0.70 to 0.86 (median = 0.83) and only the score representing attributions to external causes for failure outcomes had an alpha less than 0.80. Thus, despite the considerable reduction in the length of the SAS, the scores used in the analysis are reasonably reliable.

Measures The Self Description Questionnaire (SDQ) measures seven components of preadolescent self-concept derived from Shavelson's model (Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976; Marsh & Shavelson, Note 4). These consist of self-concepts in four nonacademic areas (Physical Ability, Physical Appearance, Peer Relationships, and Parent Relationships) and three academic areas (Reading, Math and General School). A description of the seven-scale instrument, its theoretical rationale, the wording of the items, reliabilities and six separate factor analyses are presented elsowhere (Marsh, Barnes, Cairns & Tidman, in press; Marsh, Parker & Smith, 1983; Marsh, Relich & Smith, 1983; Marsh, Smith & Barnes, 1983). This research has shown the seven SDQ scales to be reliable (coefficient alpha's in the 0,20's and 0.90's), moderately correlated with measures of corresponding academic abilities (r's from .3 to .7), and in agreement with self-concepts inferred by primary school teachers.

In the current version of the SDO an eighth component of General-Self (which is similar to the self-esteem scale described by Rosenberg, 1965) has been added. Coefficient alpha's for the eight SDO scales in this study varied between 0.70 and 0.91 (median = 0.87). Total scores representing the sum of the four nonacademic scales (Tot NACD) and the sum of the three academic scales (Tot ACD) each had coefficient alphas of 0.91. The results of conventional/ exploratory factor analyses and confirmatory factor analyses of responses to the SDO for this data provide strong support for the eight factors which this version of the SDO is designed to measure. Furthermore, similar analyses of the interned self-concepts completed by the peers in the present study also identify the eight factors.



The results of these analyses are presented elsewhere (Marsh, Note 5; Marsh, Smith & Barnes, Note 3).

Factor score coefficients (see Nie, et al., 1975) were determined as part of the oblique factor analysis of the responses to the SDQ, and were used to compute factor scores to represent the eight SDQ factors. The same set of factor score coefficients was also used to compute interned self-concept scores for the peer responses. Teachers responded to eight summary ratings designed to represent each of the eight SDQ factors and these ratings served as indicators of self-concepts as inferred by teachers. Agreement between student self-concepts, self-concepts inferred by peers, and self-concepts inferred by teachers is significant, though modest, and is specific to particular dimensions of self-concept. This multitrait-multimethod analysis is described elsewhere in greater detail (Marsh, Smith & Barnes, Note 3):

Achievement Measures. Reading achievement was assessed with the comprehension and word knowledge sections of the Primary Reading Survey fests Acer, 1976). The word knowledge section consists of 40 multiple choice synonym items and takes 20 minutes to administer. While the comprehension section consists of 34 multiple-choice Items and takes 30 minates to administer. Scores from the two sections had split-half reliabilities of 0.87 and 0.92 respectively; and correlated 0.73 With each other. For purposes of this study scores from each of the two sections were standardized to have mean = 0.0 and SD = 1.0. and then summed to form a total score. Mathematics achievement was assessed with the Class Achievement Test in Mathematics (CATIM 4/5) examination which is based upon an "Australian average" syllabus TACER, 1979), this math tests consists of 45 multiple-choice items and takes about 45 minutes to complete: The split-half reliability of this score was 0.86. Teacher ratings of ability in reading; mathematics, and school subjects in general were also taken to be indicators of academic achievement. Statistical Analyses.

There were simost no missing responses to either the EAS or the SDQ (less than 1/4 of 1%), and the mean response was substituted for the few missing values which did occur. However, for the teacher ratings of academic ability there were 36 missing cas. (6%). representing primarily students from one class where the teacher 11d not complete the ratings, and 142 missing values (25%) for the achievement tests, representing primarily students from two schools

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which did not administer the achievement tests. For purposes of this study pair-wise deletion of missing data was used in the determination of the correlations (see Nie, et al., 1975). However, similar correlations based upon only those cases which had no missing data were nearly the same as those actually reported. Thus, while the large number of missing values for the/achievement measures does require that the results be interpreted cautiously, it is unlikely to have had any substantial effect.

For purposes of this study the six items from each of the 12 SAS scales were divided into three item-pairs such that the first two items were assigned to the first pair; the next two items to the next pair, and the last two items to the third item-pair. Factor analyses were performed on responses to these 36 item-pairs representing the 72 items. First, conventional/exploratory factor analyses were performed with the commercially available SPSS program (Nie, et al., 1975) using iterated communality estimates, a Kaiser normalization, and an oblique rotation to the final solution. Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were also conducted with the commercially available LISREL V program (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1981). In the CFA models we hypothesized splutions based upon different numbers of factors where the factors are correlated but the error/uniqueness terms for the measured variables are uncorrelated. The ability of the proposed models to fit responses to the SAS was determined by an examination of the parameter estimates, the ratio of the chi-square to the degrees of freedom; coefficient d (Bentler & Bonett, 1981), and the root mean square residual which is based upon differences between the original and reproduced correlation matrices (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1981). A more detailed presentation of confirmatory factor analysis and how goodness-of-fit is evaluated is beyond the scope of this paper, but is discussed elsewhere (Bentler & Bonett, 1931; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1981; Marsh & Hocevar, 1983; in press; Maruyama & McGarvey, 1980; Wolfle; 1981).

PESULIS:

Factor Analyses of Responses to the SAS.

Results of the conventional/exploratory factor analysis of responses to the SAS clearly identify the seven factors hypothesized from the results of the Marsh et al. (1984) study. The success/effort; success/external, failure/ability, failure/effort; and failure/external factors are each defined by items representing both reading and mathematics, while the reading and math factors are content specific. Both the reading and math factors are defined



primarily by success/ability items (which load positively), and to a lesser extent by failure/ability items (which load negatively) and a success/effort items (which load positively).

Insert Table 1 About Here

The ability of plausible, alternative models to fit the data was tested with confirmatory factor analysis (see Table 2). Though several different indicators of "goodness-of-fit" are presented, we emphasize coefficient d in our discussion. Coefficient d scales the observed chi-square along a scale of zero to 1.0 where zero represents the fit of a null model while 1.0 represents a perfect fit. The logic of this coefficient is similar to that developed for ANOVA models where the ratio of two variance components (e.g., eta squared) is used to infer the proportion of variance explained by an effect. However, the conclusions discussed below also follow from an inspection of each of the other goodness-of-fit indicators.

Insert Table 2 About Here

The one-factor model (model 1) tests the ability of a single response tendency (i.e., the internal-external dimension proposed in "locus of control" research) to describe responses, but it clearly must be rejected. The two-factor model (model 2) proposes separate factors to account for responses to success and failure outcomes. While its ability to fit the data is substantially better than model i (.48 vs. .34) it also must be rejected. The three-factor model (model 3) proposes factors corresponding to each of the three causes (ability, effort, and external causes). Model 3 does not even do as well as model 2; so it is also rejected. The Six-factor solution (Model 4); a combination of models 2 & 3, proposes separate factors representing each cause separately for success and failure outcomes. This model proposes that attributions are specific to outcome and cause, are not specific to content area. Model 4 represents a substantial improvement over the first three models, but still does not fit the data adequately. .

Models 5 - 9 each propose seven-factor solutions similar to that depicted in Table 1; but differ in the way that the reading and the math factors are defined (see Table 2). In model 5 the reading and the math factor are each defined by success/ability and success/failure items; in model 6 the success/effort items also are allowed to load on the content specific factors; and so forth so that for model 9 the reading factor is/defined by all the reading items and

the math factor is defined by all the math items. Even the weakest of the seven-factor solutions (model 5) represents a substantial improvement over the six-factor solution (.78 vs. 0.66). While the differences between the models are statistically significant in each case except the difference between models 8 % 9; the differences are not large. For example the difference in coefficient d's for models 5 and 9 (0.78 vs. 0.82) is less than half of the difference between models 5 and 4 (0.78 vs. 0.66). Model 5 corresponds most closely with our characterization of the reading and math specific factors as ability factors. Model 6 appears to correspond most closely to the results of the conventional/exploratory model shown in Table 1.

Models 7 & 8 each represent marginal improvements, while model 9 does no better than model 8 (i.e., does not differ significantly from it) and can be eliminated from further consideration.

Model 10 proposes that each of the 12 SAS scales represents a separate factor. The ability of this model to fit the data differs little from the seven-factor solutions. Furthermore, the model is ill-defined in that two of the correlations among the 12 factors are greater than 1:0 and others approach 1:0, suggesting that the model is over-defined. We reject this model on these bases.

In the seven factor models (models 5 - 9), the highest loadings on the reading and on the math factors occur for the success/ability and to a lesser extent the failure/ability items. Inspection of the parameter estimates for model 6 indicates that factor loadings for the success/effort items are much smaller than for the success/ability and failure ability items. Also, in models 7, 3 and 9, while loadings for the failure/effort and success/external items are statistically significant and in the expected direction, the magnitude of the loadings is quite small. In model 9, the loadings for the failure/external litems generally do not even reach statistical significance and this accounts for why model 9 fits the data no better than model 8. Hence, these analyses not only support the necessity of seven factors to explain the data, but also support our characterization of the two content-specific factors as ability factors. Thus, we prefer to define the content specific factors with the ability items (as in model 5); even though model 8 received stronger empirical support. In subsequent analyses, the reading and math attribution scores as depicted in both models 5 and 8 will be considered (see Table 3).

In summary, the results of both conventional/exploratory and

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confirmatory factor analyses support the seven attribution factors hypothesized to underlie responses to the SAS. These results demonstrate that attributional dispositions are quite specific to outcome and cause, and to a lesser extent to content area (at least for ability attributions). Here, as in Marsh et al. (1984), the content specificity occurs primarily with attributions of ability. Relationship to External Criteris.

Self-concept. Correlations between the responses to the SDQ and the SAS (see Table 3) support the predicted relationships. The three academic self-concepts, and their total, are substantially correlated with success/ability and success/effort scales (positively) and with the failure/ability scale (negatively), less substantially correlated with the failure/effort scale (negatively), and nearly uncorrelated with the two external scales. The four nonacademic self-concepts, and their total, are less correlated with the SAS scores. The largest correlations between the self-concept and self-attribution scores, also as predicted, occur between the two reading specific scores and between the two math specific scores. These correlations are substantially larger than the other coefficients, and clearly support the content specificity of both self-concept and self-attributions.

Insert Table 3 About Here

In addition to the self-concepts based upon the student's own self-reports, self-concepts inferred from responses by teachers and by responses from peers were also collected. The <u>size</u> of the correlations between self-attributions and inferred self-concepts are consistently lower than those described above, but the <u>pattern</u> of results is very similar (see Table 3). This similarity is quite important; because it demonstrates that the predicted pattern of relationships between self-concept and self-attribution is not limited to results based upon two self-report instruments completed by the same person. Alternative explanations for the self-concept/self-attribution relationships which are based upon a response bias or method/halo effect no longer seem viable; when self-concepts are inferred by external observers.

Achievement Scorest The pattern of correlations between achievement indicators and self-attributions supports the predictions and the findings generalize across results from both achievement tests and teacher, ratings of academic ability. Reading achievement indicators are most highly correlated with self-attributions in reading/ability, positively correlated with ability/success



attributions, negatively correlated with ability/failure attributions, and less substantially correlated with the effort scales. Math achievement indicators are most highly correlated with self-attributions in math/ability, positively correlated with ability/success attributions, negatively correlated with ability/failure attributions, and less substantially correlated with the effort scales.

Predictions were not made for correlations between the achievement scores and the external attributions; Intuitively, we suspected success/external attributions would have zero-to-lownegative correlations with achievement (i.e., saying "True" to causes such as luck; task difficulty; etc. would be related to poorer achievement) while correlations with failure/external attributions would be zero-to-low-positive. Marsh et al. (1984) only considered one achievement indicator -- a reading achievement test -- which was not emphasized in their results. The sign of the observed correlations in the earlier research was in the predicted direction and the external/failure scales did have near-zero correlations with achievement; but the success/external correlations were quite substantial. Though less pronounced, this asymmetry in the pattern of correlations occurs in the present investigation as well. Failure/external attributions are virtually uncorrelated with achievement indicators, while success/external attributions are significantly (negatively) corretated with achievement indicators. Nevertheless; the replication of this pattern of result suggests the need for further investigation.

Summary & Discussion

The purpose of this study was to replicate and expand findings by Marsh et al. (1984), and strong support was demonstrated for a detailed set of predictions based upon the earlier research. Seven factors were hypothesized to underlie self-attribution responses to the SAS. Conventional/exploratory factor analyses identified these factors. Confirmatory factor analyses demonstrated that the seven-factor solution provided a reasonable fit to the data; while other plausible models did not. The pattern of correlations between self-attributions and self-concepts found previously was replicated, and a similar pattern was identified when self-concepts were inferred from responses by teachers and from responses by peers. Support for the predicted pattern of self-attribution/academic achievement relationships was found, and a similar pattern was observed with both

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academic test scores and teacher ratings of academic ability. In general, students who attribute their academic success to their own ability and, to a lesser extent, their own effort tend to have better academic skills and higher academic self-concepts. Students who attribute their academic failures to their lack of ability and, to a lesser extent, to their lack of effort tend to have poorer academic skills and lower academic self-concepts. Academic self-attributions and academic self-concepts are also specific to particular content areas so that attributions in verbal areas do not generalize to those about math outcomes.

In their review of the theoretical and empirical basis of the self-concept/self-attribution relationship, Marsh et al. (1984) found a consensus of support for the hypothesis that academic self-concept is most positively correlated to success/ability attributions and most negatively correlated with failure/ability attributions. However, there was considerable controversy about the relationship between academic self-concept and effort attributions. Some theoretical accounts argued that academic self-concept should be negatively correlated with success/effort attributions and positively correlated with failure/effort attributions (e.g., Nichols, 1979), other researchers argued for exactly the opposite pattern (e.g.; Bar-Tal; 1973); a few arqued for an asymmetry in the pattern of correlations (e.g.; Covington & Omelich, 1979); and most did not make explicit prediction: Marsh et al. (1984) predicted, that academic selfconcept would be substantially correlated (positively) with success/effort attributions and less substantially correlated (negatively) with failure/effort attributions, and demonstrated empirical support for the prediction. This asymmetry was demonstrated again here. For example, total academic self-concept (Tot ACD in Table 3) correlates 0.52, 0.47 and -0.45 with success/ability; success/effort; and failure/ability; but only -0:30 with failure/effort (which is significantly smaller than each of the other correlations, p (.001). The same pattern of results is observed in self-concepts inferred by peers, but not in self-concepts inferred by teachers. We suspect that when teachers are asked to infer academic self-concepts, their ratings are more strongly influenced by -- objectively defined academic ability than are the students, actual self-concepts, and this may explain why the pattern of results differs somewhat for them.

Marsh et. al. (1984) did not emphasize the selfattribution/academic achievement relationship. However, based upon that study we predicted that ability attributions would be more highly correlated with ability than with effort attributions and we intentionally avoided making predictions about external attributions). The predictions were supported, though it is interesting to note that failure/ability attributions are more substantially correlated (negatively -- mult R = 0.41) than success/ability attributions

(positively -- mult R = 0.32), though no asymmetry was found in correlations with the effort attributions which were smaller (mult R's = 0.19 & 0.22). Apparently, attributions of effort are related more strongly to academic self-concept (particularly when the outcome is a success) than to academic achievement. This pattern is intuitively logical, is similar to findings from Marsh, et al. (1984), and also is consistent with the speculations offered by Covington & Omelich (1979). The findings also may explain why the self-attribution/self-concept relationship is more like the self-attribution/academic achievement relationship when self-concepts are inferred from teacher ratings.

Results described here and in Marsh, et al. (1984) argue that attributions are quite specific to outcome and the type of cause, and to a lesser extent the area of academic content. The content specificity of the attributions is quite clear for ability attributions, but not for attributions to effort and external causes. Our interpretation of these results is that students see their ability in verbal and mathematical areas as reasonably distinct, while they perceive that the amount of effort which they put into different subject areas as more similar. Weiner (in press) makes a similar point based upon findings by Foersterling & Engelken (1981) and his further research. He suggests that ability in physics provides no information about ability in German, but that trying hard in physics is predictive of trying hard in German. The content specificity of the attributions will also depend upon the similarity of the two content areas, and may not be so apparent for similar subjects (e.g., physics and mathematics).

Our emphasis here, and in Marsh et al. (1984) has been on ability and effort attributions, and not on attributions to external causes. The decision to combine a myriad of external causes into a single scale was partially pragmatic in an attempt to keep the length of the SAS reasonable, but was also based upon results from the Fennema study and particularly the Relich study discussed earlier. However, several anomalies make us uncomfortable with this decision. First, 'the

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internal consistency of responses to failure/external items (0.70) is substantially lower than for the success/external scale (0.83) or any of the other scales (0.80 to 0.86). Secondly, our intuition and other theoretical accounts suggest that the tendency to externalize attributions should be negatively correlated for success and for failure outcomes, but the observed correlations are statistically significant and positive. Third, attributing success to external causes is substantially correlated with academic achievement (negatively), while attributing failure to external causes is nearly uncorrelated with achievement. Only for the self-concept/self-attribution relationship did the two scales perform similarly in that each was nearly uncorrelated with academic self-concept. Even here; however, we expected the correlations to have the opposite sign (for the same reason that we expected the scales to be negatively correlated), but they did not.

We have no explanation for the anomalies which occur with the two external scales, but the consistency of their occurrence across the two studies argues that they require further research. Several observations may provide some clues. Success/ability and success/effort scales are substantially correlated with each other, but nearly uncorrelated with success/external. Failure/ability and failure/effort scales are substantially correlated with each other and postively correlated with the failure/external scale. This means that children who are unwilling to attribute failure to a lack of ability and effort are also unwilling to attribute it to external causes. This paradoxical finding may be related to the Ickes & Layden (1978) finding that students with high self-concepts judged all causes of failure to be unlikely. The self-serving bias where selfattributions for success are more "internal" than for attributions to failure (see Marsh, et al., 1984) may play a role. Finally, it would be important to determine if the anomalies are consistent across different types of external causes (e.g.; luck, task difficulty, health, environmental influences, other people -- teachers, parents, ētć.);

We have intentionally not attempted to make causal inferences about the relationships among self-attributions, self-concepts, and academic abilities for a variety of reasons. First, the nature of this study and state the of attribution research do not warrant this level of theorizing. Instead, our emphasis has been on the development of reliable and valid measurement procedures, and on the validation of the self-attribution construct. Without this level of

basic understanding of the self-attribution process; further research is likely to be unproductive. Second; the cross-sectional and correlational design of this study make it unlikely that alternative causal models -- or even causal predominance -- could be validly tested. Finally, we feel that the variables in question are interwoven in a network of reciprocal relationships such that a change in academic self-concept, academic ability; or academic attributions is likely to "cause" a change in the others. If this is the case, the search for which variables cause what is likely to be counter-productive, even if longitudinal and experimental data were available and appropriate statistical techniques were developed. Instead, we see the three sets of variables as forming a dynamic equilibrium such that if any one is changed or inconsistent with the others; there must be a change in the balance among them in order to reestablish the equilibrium.

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TABLE 1

Summary of Conventional/exploratory_Factor Analysis of Responses to the SDG I

Oblique Factor Pattern Matrix

		Read Abil		Succ Efft	Succ Extr	Fail Abil	Fail Efft	Fail Extr	
	Variables								
	RSAP1 RSAP2 RSAP3	67 23 80	10 08 19	17 13 -02	-06 -12 02	-06 -05 -06	04 03 -01	10- 503 701	
· .	RSEP1 RSEP2 RSEP3	26 35 11	-03 16 06	62 49 61	-15 00 09	05 13 09	02 -10 -08	03 -01 -07	
	RSXP1 RSXP2 RSXP3	- i - i - i i - i o	05 09 02	-18 -04 07	53 69 69	14 -02 08	-02 08 04	04 10 01	
	MSAP1 MSAP2 MSAP3	08 10 20	23 28 24	03 08 04	-09 -14 -04	01 -01 05	01 08 -04	03 01 11	
	MSEP1 MSEP2 MSEP3	-03 01 10	39 28 49	25 42 30	04 04 06	-20 -10 -07	03 02 01	-02 06 10	
	MSXP1 MSXP2 MSXP3	02 05 00	-16 -02 -05	07 -0 <u>3</u> 04	53 72 64	01 -04 -02	04 00 05	02 02 10	
	REAP1 REAP2 REAP3	-35 -35 -36	13 18 12	01 -05 13	04 00 04	53 55 46	12 15 33	-04 -04 -08	
	RFEP1 RFEP2 RFEP3	-05 -05 -26	04 15 08	-04 -18 04	-03 02 15	15 14 12	53 54 57	-02 -09 -03	
·	REXP1 REXP2 REXP3	03 03 -08	03 02 07	15 -13 -16	-01 14 07	12 -10 -16	-05 -07 -02	49 55 62	
	MFAP1 MFAP2 MFAP3	08 10 13	-32 -30 -33	-05 05 -06	05 10 13	55 57 สร	10 09 17	10 04 01	-
	MFEP1 MFEP2 MFEP3	06 06	10 -01 -25	-35 -02 14	03 05 05	40 -05 12	30 88 52	03 01 03	
	MEXP1 MEXP2 MEXP3	04 08 -03	-08 -02 -04	12 -09 12	-10 17 -03	25 04 -10	24 -15 17	29 54 52	
		Read t	1ath	Patte Succ Efft	Succ 1	Fail	tions Fail Efft	Fail Extr	
	Read Abil	100	100						

Read Abil 100
Math Abil 100
Succ Efft 29 25 100
Succ Extr -12 -08 -07 100
Fail Abil -18 -18 -07 14 100 -Fail Efft -15 -02 00 11 42 100
Fail Extr 06 06 02 22 08 11 100

Note: Measured variables are the three item pairs (P1, P2 & P3) which represent each of the 12 SAS scales. The scales are designated with a combination of three letters representing content (R=reading or M=math); outcome (S=success or F=failure); and cause (A=ability, E=effort, X=external).

Summaries of Goodness of Fit Indices for the CFA Models
Describing Responses to the SAS

	Model Description :	chi square	ä∓	chi-sq/ df ratio	RMS,	Cueff
,	O) Null Model	3,798	630	13.96	. 222	
	1) One "General" factor	5,814	594	9.79	.136	÷ 339
	2) Success (S) & Failure (F)	4,553	593	7.69	118	481
	3) Ability (A), Effort (E), and External (X) factors	4,828	591	8.17	.123	.451
	4) SA, SE, SX, FA, FE, FX Factors	2,958	579	5.11	.089	. 664
	5) SE; SX; EA; FE; FX Factors plus Reading & Math factors defined by SAM& FA items		567 : .	3.45	• छ होडू	.778.
	6) As in model 5 with Reading & Math factors defined by SA, FA & SE items	1,725	561	3.08	067	. 854)
	7) As Model 5 With Reading & Nath factors defined by SA, SE, FA & FE Items	1,631	555	2294	েত্ৰৰ	. 8î. 5
	8) As Model 5 With Reading & Math_factors defined by SA; SE; SX; FA & FE Items	1,582	549	2.85	160.	-322
	9) As Model 5 with Reading & Math factors defined by SA, SE; SX; FA; FE & FX items	i,554	543	2.36	.030	.823
	10) RSA, RSE, RSM, MSA, MSE, NSM, RFA, RFE, RFM, MFA, NFE & MFM factors	i.485	528	2.81	.561	.831*
						,

Note: Model 10 was ill-defined in that two of the correlations among the factors exceeded 1.0.

Correlations Between SAS Scales and Criterion Scores

COLLEGECT	niia b	# CMEE!	, ono			4	a	,			
Criterion Variables Student	Read Abil	Math Abil	Read Abl'	Math	ale Si Succ Abil	Sudic		Fail Abil	Pall Efft	Fāi I Extr	
Self- Concepts Phys Appr Phys Abil Peers Parents Tat NACD	116 08 17 05 17	20 15 15 15 22	20 10 15 09 20	21 18 15 11 25	· 21 13 17 06 21	28 16 23 19 32	-04 -07 -01 -04 -05	-15 -10 -15 -09 -13	-12 -06 -09 -04 -14	-01 -04 -07 -10 -08	•
Reading Math School Tot ACD	62 09 24 44	13 59 41 52	57 13 29 45	19 52 40 51	37 38 38 52	23 40 38 47	-19 -10 -16	-39 -30 -28 -45,	-28 -15 -21 -30	-04 -06 -13 -11	
General	35	42	āt	äi	43	4 i	-13	-35	-20	-02	
Self-concer Inferred b	215		. :				•				
Peers Phys Appr Phys Abil Peers Parent Tot NACD	-10 01 -01 01 -03	-04 00 00 01 02	-08 02 00 05	-04 03 02 03 01	-08 -02 -04 -02 -04	04 03 03 15	00 -05 -03 01 -02	01 -03 -03 -08	05 00 00 -03 01	-07 -07 -02 -04 -05	
Reading Math School Tot ACD	28 14 13 21	16 7 32 22 27	27 13 14 21	12.12.10 0.12.12.10 0.12.12.10	19 21 20	14 22 20 22	-15 -10 -10 -11	-23 -15 -22	- <u>i</u> 3 -00 -03 -07	-05 -05 -05	
General	03	GO	ତ୍ୟ	02	-02	87	-07	-05	ŏ !	-04	
Self-concer Interred by Teachers Phys Appr Phys Abil Peers Parent Tot NACP	2±≘ ⊻ 089 080 080 080	14 19 08 06	11 10 00 10 15	- 2000 1000 1000	03 15 01 03 08		-12 -15 -15 -118	-15 -15 -00 -05 -15	- 3 - 9 - 0 1 - 0 5 - 0 4 - 0 7	7 T + 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1	
Reading Math School Tot ACD	33 24 20 30	24 28 24	78 71 71	25.25	71.615.7	128	-26 -26 -26 -26 -28	72 73 73 73 73 73 73 73 73 73 73 73 73 73	-20 -19 -18 -21	00 -06 -04 -04	
General	iz	24	24	28	18	हुं छ	-71	-28	- i =.	-0J	
Achievement Test Scores Reading Math	41 20	25 33	77 200	25 33	5.5 5.2	51 09	-25 -24	- 38 - 30	-21 -12	- ලෙකි ලෙකි	
Teacher Abilit/ Ratings Reading Math School	-13 Pies	24 33 34	2.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00	7 28 78 78		11	1.1.1.1 19.10.10. 10.10.10.	114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4 114.4	-17 -1 <u>4</u> -16	- 10 d - 10 d	
Multiple P Based on fi Achievament Indicators Mult R	776	42	41 	41	~2	į o		可1 - 11 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 1	. 22	12	

a - Two variations of the reading and math scales for the SAS were considered, where Read Abil = RSA - REA, Math Abil - MSA - MFA - MFA READ Abil = RSA + RSE - RSX - RFA - RFE; and Math Abil = MSA + MSE + MSX - MFA - MFE. These correspond most closely to factors defined in models 5 and 9 in Table 2; though scores corresponding to the other models resulted in similar correlations:

NOTE: Coefficients are presented without decimal points. Correlations with an absolute value greater than .12 are statistically significant (p < .01, two-tailed).

		School			•	Teacher	 -		
		Ter Ter		-					
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OO NOT TALK TO AN	YONE ABOUT YOU	H ANSWERS OR					-		
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	•		Universitý a		•		ż		
مَر-			•						
		.*	•	•					:
		.*.	,			<u>-</u> ;	į . ·		:.

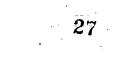


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		٠,		·		• .
	řá	¥		Sometimes True Sometimes False	Nosily True	True
i.	Suppose your teacher chose you to he in the top reading group in your class. It would probably be because	-	. /	•		
	a you are good at reading , ,		⇉.			
	b you work hard at reading				\Box	
Ž.	c the teacher made a mistake	⊒. [\exists		Ę.	
	maths exercises and no one wants to give you their book. This is probably because a nobody likes you very much	= : =	_	$\overline{\Box}$, ,
	b you are careless in your work and with corrections					
	c everyone knows you do maths badly		\exists			
ā.	Suppose you had trouble trying to answer the teacher's question about a story in reading leason. It is probably because			ē	•	
	a the story was too hard for everyone					•
	b you are a poor reeder					<u> </u>
4.	c you should have read it more carefully					٠
•	maths tests. This is probably because a you are one of the best students in maths		\Box			
	h it was your turn to do it					
_	c you always try to do well at maths	JC	∃ .			c
5.	Suppose the echool librerian wants someone to help count books and you are chosen. This is probably because, a you were sitting near the teacher when the librarian		_		 ;	
	akked for acmeone b you always work herd and carefully in maths		_	\equiv		= :
	e you are one of the best pupils in your maths class	_	_J		<u> </u>	; •
6.	Suppose the teacher asked you to read aloud part of a story for the class and you had trouble doing this. It is probably because	크 . ㄷ	_	<u> </u>	L i	`°
	a you are bed at reading aloud	J [<u></u> i	
	OE you had to read the hardest part of the etofy	∃. Ξ	3			5.
7 ;	g you were careless about reeding the story				<u> </u>	c
	a you often have trouble in maths	_				□•
	b the question was hard		⊒.			b
	C you never pay attention in maths lessons		_			
	state maths competition. This is probably because government of your best	=	_ i		;	
•	P Aon mere frackå	_ _ [1			
	S you are good at Maths	- <i>\</i> _3	∃` {			

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		PS.	Mostl lse False		Box1ly True	True	
9.	Suppo	se you start a new story in reading and you find it hard derstand straight away. It is probably because					1
	4	the teacher picks hard stories					!
	Ë	you were day dreaming					
	_		_ `				
	٠ 5	your reading is poor					
10.	Suppoi	se your parents tell you that your reading is good.					
1	•	you really work hard at reading				•	!
	<u>p</u>	you always do well at reading					
	2	they are only being nice					
11.	Suppos maths.	the class was eaked to choose the best five people in If they chose you it would be because		2	*.		
		you really are one of the best at maths					
•	Þ	ýðú work hard to be good at maths				<u> </u>	
	. <u>e</u>	they like you					
12.		2 e you get a maths problem to do on the board in front of see and you do it wrong. This is probably because	_			<u> </u>	
		you are unlucky to be asked the hardest problem					-
	-	<u> </u>	_		لـــــا ــــــــ		١.
	. <u>Þ</u>	ýou always have trouble sölving problems				<u> </u>	,
	Ξ.	you did it too quickly and made a silly mintake				□'	
13.	Suppose It wou	e your teacher says you are doing badly in reading work.					Ì
		you are lazy in reading				•	
	<u>5</u>	the teacher doesn't like you					
		you always do badly in reading					
			<u> </u>			`	
		you are chosen to read out a etory to all the parents recial assembly. It would probably be because	,				
	•	no one else wanted to do it					
	P	you are a good reader				b	
	5	you have been working hard on your roading all year					
15.	antk su Zabbose	the teacher awarded a gold star for today's reading d you got it. It would probably be because					
	Ā	you earned It by working hard				<u></u> :	
		you were lucky			_		
	_ · _ <u>c</u>	your reading is good					•
16.	Augment 1	the teacher shows you a new way of doing something in maths and it wrong. This is probably because	المحر ا			 "	
		you should pay more ettention				;	
	Ē	the teacher explains things badly					
	- c	anything in maths is hard for you	, <u> </u>				
	*		→	-			



		False	Montly False	- True Sometimes False	Rontly True	True
,	17. Suppose that the teacher asked people in your class to try out to read a poen on a TV show but did NOT ask you. It would probably be because					
	a your reading is not good enough	<u>i</u>	لِل			世•
	you decided to play instead of trying to get the poem ready	\cdot			\Box	ь
i	the teacher forgot to ask you/					
	18. Suppose you read a story well in front of your class. It would probably be because				. : =:	
	a you are good at reading					
	b the story was an easy one					
	g you made e special effort to read it	· 🗀				ē
	19. Suppose the teacher tells you not to help a friend with their maths. This would probably be because	. —				
:	a you should work harder on your own maths	· <u></u>				≝. ∣
	b you make a lot of mistakes in maths yourself	· 🗀				
	c it is unfair	· 🔲				
	 Suppose the teacher asks you to collect and count the money for an excursion trip. It would probably be because 		$\overline{}$; <u> </u>
	it is your turn to collect money this time	· 🗀 :	<u>'</u>			\\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\
	b you always try hard in maths classes					L °
	you are good at matha and will collect the right noney					
	21. Suppose you did really well on a reading test. It is probably because		·		·	<u> </u>
	yoù were lucky					닏.
	b you tried very hard					= '
	g you always do well in reading tests					°
	22. Suppose you find it hard to understand a etory you are reading. It is probably because			==		<u> </u>
	g you need to try harder at reading		لبا			
	b you are a poor reader					
	the story is boring	لبا	لبا			⊟ °
•	23. Suppose you did badly in e maths test. This is probably because a you always do badly in maths tests	. [<u> </u>	一	<u> </u>
	byou spend too little time studying maths					
					`	
	c the test was hard for everyone 24. Suppose the teacher chooses you to do a special problem in maths. It would probably be because	` _		نـــا		□'
	g you know more maths than most children					
	b you would work harder on it than your class mates					b
	$ar{\underline{c}}$ nobody else wanted to do it					Ē .
	:	- 1			;	
	$\bar{29}$					44
	X		:	į		

SELF DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

łame		Boy	Girl	Grade/
				tear -
	School	Teacher		
·				
				-
is is a chance to k	ook at yourself. It is not a ter sure that your answers show he	it. There are no right answ	ers and ever	yone will ha
Terent arswers, de Tour vour ansv	VERS WITH ANYON ELSE.	We will keep voor answers	. r.LEASE E Brivate and	not show the
anyone		,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,		
	o begin, please read each senter	nee and deside water annual	IVou may	read quietly
	ud.) There are five possible a			
ree answers in betw	een. There are five boxes next	to each sentence, one for	each of the	answers. T
swers are written at	the top of the boxes. Choose	your answer to a senten	e and put a	tick (v) in t
x under the answer	you choose. DO NOT say yo	ur answer out loud or talk	about it w	th anyone e
fore you start there	are three examples below. Son	nebody named Bob has aire	ady answer	d two of the
ntences to show you	I how to do it. In the third on	e you must choose your o	wn answer a	ind put in yo
m tick (≠).				
** *** *** ***			•	
	يالمتار ساوم سا		ME.	
	and the second of the second of the second	MOSTLY F	MES MOS	TIV
	č	FALSE FALSE SC	ME. TRU	
			MES . Rue	• .
		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	VUE	
CAMPLES				
I like to read com	ic books		ᆜᄂ	╛┖┸╛
7010 111 I 414 1	n the box under the answer "7	DDC" This masse that he	enativ like	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
	d not like to read comic bool			
"MOSTLY FALS				
	المستعلق واستعمانا التما	. 31		
In general, I am n	eat and tidy		71 [
•				
	SOMETIMES FALSE, SOMET	'IMES TRUE" because he	is not very	nëat, but hë
not very messy ei	tner.j			
	The second secon			
I like to watch T.	v	. 3 🔲 🗀 닡		┛╚┛
	ze you have to choose the answ		es and min	t decide if t
	JE" or "FALSE" or somewhe			
you would answe	er "TRUE" by putting a tick in	the last box. If you hate	watching T	.V. you wou
answer "FALSE"	' by putting a tick in the first b	ox. If your answer is some	vhere in bet	ween then y
would choose one	of the other three boxes.)			
_				
•		. :		
vou want to chang	e an answer you have marked	you should cross out the t	ick and but	a new tick
other box on the sar	ne line. For all the sentences be	sure that your tick is on th	e same line :	s the senten
	u should have one answer and	only one answer for each	sentence. Di	o not leave o
y of the sentences.	•			
vou have any question	ons put up your hand. Turn ove	the page and begin. Once	you have sta	rted, PLEAS
NOT TALK.				
	(A) III (A)	D Smith		2
	© H, W, Marsh and I. The University of S			
	. 1981	,,,		

ERIC

	•		FALSE	MOETLY FALSE	FALSE, SOME: TIMES	MOSTLY TRUE	TRUE	-
1.	I am good looking	i.						1
Ž.	I'm good at all SCHOOL SUBJECTS	2						2
	l can run fast	ā						3
4.	I get good marks in READING	4						4
<u>-</u> 5.	My parents understand me	5						5
Ĝ.	I hate MATHEMATICS	6						6
ī.,	I have lots of friends	7						7
ë.	I like the way I look	8						8
9.	I enjoy doing work in all SCHOOL SUBJECTS	9						9
10.	I like to run and play hard	10						0
11.	1 like READING	11				口		1
	My parents are usually unhappy or disappointed with what I do	12						2
ī3.		13						3
14.	I make friends easily	14					i	4
15:	I have a pleasant looking face	15						5
16.	I get good mark n all SCHOOL SUBJECTS	16						6
ī7.	I hate sports and games	174						7 ^
18.	I'm good at READING	18						8
19.	I like my parents	19						19
20.	I look forward to MATHEMATICS	20						20
21.	Möst kids have more friends than I do	21						21
22.	I am a nice looking person	22						22
23.	I hate all SCHOOL SUBJECTS	23						23
	1 ēnjōy sports and games							24
	I am interested in READING							.5
36 ;	My parents like me	26	Ш				2	16

		FALSE	MOSTLY FALSE	FALSE, SOME- TIMES	MOSTLY	TRUE	٠
53. (Overall I have a lot to be proud of	53		TRUE		53	
54. I	I'm better looking than most of my friends	54				54	
55. I	l look forward to all SCHOOL SUBJECTS	55				55	
56. i	I am a good athlete	56				56	
57.	I look forward to READING	57				57	
58:	I get along well with my parents	58				58	
59.	I'm good at MATHEMATICS	59				59	
60.	I am popular with kids of my own age	60				60	
61.	I can't do anything right	61				61	
62.	I have nice features like nose, and eyes, and hair	62				62	
63.	Work in all SCHOOL SUBJECTS is easy for me	63				63	
64.	I'm good at throwing a ball	64				64	
65.	I hate READING	65 .				65	
66.	My parents and I have a lot of fun together	66				66	1.
ē7.	I can do things as well as most other people	67				67	
68.	I enjoy doing work in MATHEMATICS	68				68	
69.	Most other kids like me	69				69	
70.	Other people think I am a good person	. 70				70	~
71.	i like all SCHOOL SUBJECTS	. 71				71	-
72.	A lot of things about me are good	. 72				72	
73.	I learn things quickly in READING	73				73	
74.	I'm as good as most other people	74				74	
 75.	I am dumb at MATHEMATICS	. 75				75	
76.	When I do something, I do it well	76				76	





