Motivation as an important factor in the reading program in grades four through eight

Cynthia Marek

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalcommons.stritch.edu/etd

Part of the Education Commons

Recommended Citation
Marek, Cynthia, "Motivation as an important factor in the reading program in grades four through eight" (1972). Master's Theses, Capstones, and Projects. 853.
https://digitalcommons.stritch.edu/etd/853

This Research Paper is brought to you for free and open access by Stritch Shares. It has been accepted for inclusion in Master's Theses, Capstones, and Projects by an authorized administrator of Stritch Shares. For more information, please contact smbagley@stritch.edu.
MOTIVATION AS AN IMPORTANT FACTOR
IN THE READING PROGRAM IN
GRADES FOUR THROUGH EIGHT

by

Sister Cynthia Marek, O. S. F.

A RESEARCH PAPER
SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS IN EDUCATION (READING SPECIALIST)
at The Cardinal Stritch College

Milwaukee, Wisconsin
1972
This research paper has been approved for the Graduate Committee of the Cardinal Stritch College by

Sister Marie Colette O.S.F. (Adviser)

Date October 29, 1971
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Sincere appreciation is expressed to Sister Marie Colette, O.S.F. for directing this research paper.

Grateful acknowledgment is also expressed to the librarians at the Cardinal Stritch Library, to my typist, Juleen Jaeger, and to my friends for their encouragement toward the completion of this work.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgments ................................ iii

Chapter                                      Page

I.  INTRODUCTION ........................................ 1
    Statement of the Problem
    Scope of the Problem
    Significance

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE ............... 3
    Psychology of Motivation
    Role of the Home in Promoting Motivation
    in Reading
    Role of the Teacher in Motivation in Reading
    Materials that Readily Motivate in Reading

III. PSYCHOLOGY OF THE UPPER ELEMENTARY CHILD .. 71
    Stages of Development
    Sexes Differ in Their Rate of Growth

IV.  SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS ..................... 82
    Procedure
    Findings of This Study
    Conclusions and Implications

Bibliography ........................................... 84
CHAPTER I
THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The teaching of reading is recognized as the most important task of the elementary school. Surely there has never been another time in which it was so important for people to be able to read - and to read - as it is today. Reading is, or should be, a part of nearly every experience of children, young people, and adults. Other media of communication, valuable as they are, function inadequately for full coverage: of reporting events, of expressions of opinion, of findings of investigations, of descriptions, of recounting experiences. Only in books does it seem possible to find the inclusive, extended coverage necessary for adequate analysis, interpretation and application.¹

Reading must, therefore, become an integral part of every instructional experience which the school provides for its young people. Learning to read symbols must include the ability to read thoughts, to understand concepts, and to analyze, interpret, and apply them. The teaching and learning of reading must not be an end in itself. Reading is a very functional thing - unless one has reason for

reading, a reason which one accepts, there really is little value in learning to read.¹

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this investigation is to present in concise form the findings of authorities regarding motivation as an important factor of a good reading program. The writer's prime interest lies in the upper elementary grades. However, articles dealing with motivation in general will be cited since they are applicable to this study.

Significance

It was hoped that the contents of this paper would provide the reader with an overview of the nature of motivation, the degree of motivation, and forms of motivation in a stimulating reading program concerned with each student's potential growth.

¹Ibid., p. 64.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Psychology of Motivation

Current discussions of the proper definition of the term "motivation" have raised interesting questions regarding profitable approaches to stimulating reading interests. Learning does not occur simply by repetition of an act or exposure to a situation. There must be motivation; the child must want to learn.¹

We know that performance is closely dependent upon motivation. Without motivation learning seldom, if ever, occurs. The reading teacher employs his knowledge of motivated learning to direct children first toward learning to read and later toward reading to learn. Interests are closely related to motivation: they develop from attempts to satisfy basic motives. The teacher wants to know the factors that direct interest toward reading and that attract the child to specific reading content. Effective reading not only creates interests but it can be a product of interest as well.²

The entire process by which persons attain goals was commonly named motivation. "A motivating condition is one that causes a child to start, to continue, and to limit his activity on a particular task."³

It has an internal aspect in which growth, psychological state, and


past experience are influential, and it also has an external aspect in which the total situation and specific incentive are observable.¹

Motivation is a general term, an essential condition causing some unresolved tension or "goal-seeking tendency." An incentive is, more specifically, the object or condition which releases the general motivating force and sets off the learning pattern. The concern here was the importance of motivation as a general factor in learning. The illustration below explains a reverse in an incentive pattern for two groups, causing them to exchange places as far as efficiency in learning is concerned.²

Kennedy speaks of a satisfactory condition of motivation.

A satisfactory condition of motivation does not mean that a given child must excel as compared with other children. The real test consists in whether or not the child accomplishes successfully what he is trying to do. Under the concepts of level of aspiration, success and failure are relative to the goals that a learner sets for himself.³

---

¹Ibid.
²Ibid., p. 13.
³Ibid.
Keisler suggests that the control of reinforcement is the key to motivation.

Pupils are motivated to certain types of reading, not because they are "interested" in such reading but because such reading has been reinforced or rewarded in the past. Thus interest does not represent an internal state which impels an individual to a certain type of reading but a learned set toward certain reinforced behavior. Boys read science materials, for example, not because of their sex, but because such reading has met constant reinforcement from the environment.¹

Eller sees reading interest as a function of the law of effect. He believes students have to be rewarded through reading, or they will not develop lifetime "interest." Eller describes the prime reward of reading as information or entertainment, and the second reward as the approval by another person.²

In a series of experiments, Keisler supports his contention by proving that children read for certain types of comprehension, or even for any appreciable degree of comprehension, only as they are directed by a learning set structured by the teacher's directions and rewards. Eller reinforces his argument by citing the known negative effects of formal book reports, overanalysis of classics, and overdependence upon a single textbook upon reading interests.³

There exists an opposing school of thought that suggests reading interests stem from a variety of internal drives or needs.

Lind mentions reading for escape, for temporary diversion, as an organizing influence upon personality, and for information related to objective interests. Lyness adds such drives as love, glamor, and vicarious adventure and violence. Walter Loban demonstrates the tendency for socially-sensitive adolescents to seek idealistic books, while the socially insensitive choose those emphasizing cruelty. Hanna offers a list of eleven needs of young people which may be met by books. In addition to those already mentioned, she enumerates the needs for reassurance of normality,

²Ibid., p. 171.
³Ibid.
emotional independence from adults, solutions to problems of family relationships, a personal philosophy, and others.\(^1\)

Whether it is believed that individuals developed reading interests as they were conditioned by reinforcement or as a reflection of inner urges common to their age and sex is not of great significance here. With either formulation of thought, it must be realized that the individual must be studied in order to understand what it is he wants from reading and others must help him to find those gratifications.\(^2\)

"When he has not yet realized that his needs may be met in part by reading, we must awaken him to that possibility and reinforce the development of rewarding interests." \(^3\)

An interaction exists between a child's basic needs and the means he uses to satisfy them. From this interaction interests have risen.

The child who is interested in reading is usually the child for whom reading satisfies the basic needs of self-esteem, esteem of others, curiosity, or the need for success and personal adequacy. Interests are the active forces that direct our attention to activities or objects. They determine whether the child will read, how much he will read, and in what area he will read. The average child is actively seeking new experiences. His reaction to the world about him is selective. He chooses what he wants to experience and usually rejects those elements in which he is not interested.\(^4\)

Psychologists indicate that interest is a fundamental motivational factor in the learning process. Bush and Huebner quote Mednick,

\(^1\)Ibid.

\(^2\)Ibid.

\(^3\)Ibid.

who states that motivational training is an anxiety-reducing process (the anxiety to know, to find out about). Rewards and satisfaction accompany the satisfying of needs through brain stimulus and social approval.¹

Performance depends on both motivation and learning. It should be mentioned here that fear impedes the motivation to learn; it results in avoidance reaction. If reading is associated with satisfying physiological and psychological needs, it becomes a meaningful activity that the child is apt to repeat. This repetition can result in a continued motivation to read. Reading itself becomes interesting. Thus interest in reading is acquired by the individual, based on his constitutional nature, his personality, and his set of unique experiences. He finds pleasure in the use of his mind and organs and learned ability.²

A knowledge of these needs may aid the teacher in understanding his responsibility in creating a classroom environment favoring intellectual activity and assisting in interest motivation. Maslow refers to these as the hierarchy of needs.³

1. The physiological needs
2. The safety needs
3. The love needs
4. The esteem needs—self-esteem and esteem of others
5. The need for self-actualization
6. The need to know

This hierarchy of needs must be met if the child is to develop a continuing interest in reading. The repetitive satisfaction in self-esteem, security, belonging, success, and curiosity results in habits being formed. These, in turn, are lost as the habit itself becomes self-propelling, creating an anxiety that requires the individual to attend to it. The interest is born in the object or


²Ibid.

³Ibid.
activity and becomes self-sustaining.¹

A teacher often feels his greatest challenge is to stimulate the intellectual curiosity of his students. According to Kennedy, educational psychologist at Kansas State University, however, students probably cannot be motivated in this direction until other, more basic, needs are met. Based on research which has been carried out at Kansas State University for three years through the Counseling Center's Study of Student Development Project, Kennedy lists "safety" needs, "belonging" needs, and "esteem" needs. The student's ability to survive in society may be his first concern. Kennedy notes:

His first concern may well be his immediate 'safety' need—the need to succeed. If a teacher is interested in helping this student become free to work up the line toward intellectual curiosity, the teacher must be as explicit as possible about what the student needs to do to survive in the course. Until the student's doubts about his survival have been at least partially allayed, there is little chance of the student being excited by some theory.²

Kennedy points out that teaching a safety-motivated student will require a much different approach than teaching one who is intellectually curious.

I feel teachers often assume that if they teach all students as if they were intellectually curious this will help students develop that curiosity. But more often than not, this approach simply raises more anxiety about the way to survive the course. The threat probably reduces, rather than increases, the probability that a student will become intellectually curious. Even after a student's fear of failure has moderated, he still may not be ready for intellectual stimulation. Some students who achieve moderate satisfaction over safety needs become occupied with needs in the area of belongingness and affection. It's important for the teacher who wants to "stimulate the mind" of the typical student to remember that a formidable contender for the

¹Ibid.

²Kennedy, "Meeting Students' Basic Concerns," p. 458.
attention of this mind is the student's social concerns. If a student learns he can survive the academic hurdles; if he finds he can form significant social relationships; if feedback increases his self-esteem--then he may be able to enjoy the luxury of being curious about the world, ask questions about ideas, and expand his value system. ¹

The writer was aware that there is danger in overmotivation. Although a moderate degree of motivation increases the rate of progress, great doses are not necessarily more effective. There have been experimental findings with regard to level of motivation, studies of both animal and human learning. Six plausible generalizations can be made from the group of studies.²

1. Learning increases with increased motivation, up to a certain point.

2. Maximum gain in learning occurs at a moderate degree of motivation.

3. The point at which maximum gain in learning will be reached depends upon: (a) the complexity of the problem, (b) the ability of the learner, (c) the degree of concentration of the motivation, (d) the susceptibility of the learner to motivation, i.e., his tolerance for emotional stress.

4. When tension increases beyond the optimal point, learning is disrupted.

5. An increase in the degree of motivation increases the variability in a group.

6. Altogether, the intermediate degrees of motivation result in the greatest efficiency in learning, especially in problem solving.³

In general, then, forms of motivation which are moderate for the child with whom they are used are most effective in increasing

¹Ibid., p. 189.
³Ibid., p. 38.
learning. "Intense motivation means either that the learner will learn
to tolerate failure and hence decrease his effort, or that emotion will
blot out thinking, and therefore learning."¹ Increase in motivation
should be gradual. By building individual goals for each child, the
teacher can help to make the child succeed, and in this way improve
the child's learning.²

Frandsen formulated an over-all theory of motivation which in-
tegrated some of the findings of research.

A theory of motivation which recognizes all the data just re-
viewed needs to take into account man's positive, creative striving.
Moreover, several observers of human behavior have been impressed
by man's characteristic striving, which, unless distorted by un-
healthy life circumstances, is readily channeled by the dominant
culture into constructive and socialized effort. R. May has men-
tioned the profound joy in fulfilling our potentialities as persons.
Jersild is impressed by the child's activity drives--his impulses
to put his energies and emerging capacities to use. Kluckhohn,
Murray, and Schneider assume that creative intellectual activity
is intrinsically gratifying. And, although it seems justifiable
to assume an innate basis for activity drives, Cantril has explain-
ed how characteristic human striving may be learned: as the child
grows and learns, he is continually rewarded by experiencing en-
chanced values.³

Rogers concludes that man's nature and motivation are positive
and constructive. This is a deep conviction of his that has grown out
of many years of experience. He views man:

as an organism able to achieve, through the remarkable integra-
tive capacity of its central nervous system, a balanced, real-
istic, self-enhancing, other enhancing behavior. Freed from
defensive self-distortions, man's behavior becomes "constructive"
and "socialized" because man learns in his society that he achieves
his potentialities most completely by constructive, socialized

¹Ibid., p. 42.
²Ibid., p. 47.
³Arden N. Frandsen, How Children Learn (New York: McGraw-Hill
behavior. Among the adherents of this theory, perhaps Maslow's statement is the most systematically developed explanation of man's creative striving.\(^1\)

Motivation is an important factor in the acquisition of meaning in learning and retention. The Bureau of Child Development and Parent Education has ten general principles to be kept in mind in designing a practical program of teaching.

1. Meaning develops only as we are ready for the particular learning.

2. We learn most efficiently what is related to our own purposes and interests.

3. We learn best and retain longest when the learning becomes incorporated into our way of living.

4. We do not learn efficiently when resistance is present in a learning situation. Prejudice against, resentment towards or hatred of the subject matter or the teacher, interferes with or entirely obstructs the learning process.

5. We learn best when we are actively involved in the learning.

6. We learn certain things from fear and shock. This is a dangerous form of teaching. Used outside of really hazardous situations, it quickly breeds anxiety or indifference. We may indeed become impervious to further learning in these areas.

7. We learn inefficiently in anticipation for future use, especially if such use is for some vague remote date.

8. We acquire meaning through processes of discrimination and integration. These are complementary processes and take place simultaneously.

9. Repetition assists in the learning process when used appropriately. If it creates resentment or boredom, or if it is substituted for meaningfulness or is given to a learner before readiness for the material has been reached, it tends to obstruct learning and cause confusion.

10. The emotional state of the learner is of great importance. Feeling of inferiority, a temporary humiliation, defiance or anger, a sense of being rejected, and other disruptive emotions affect the

\(^1\)Ibid., p. 234.
learning process. The reverse is true, a feeling of well-being and of being respected by others stimulates an alert mind, willingness to participate, and an attitude conducive to learning.¹

Murphy has stated that motivation is the key to changing educational times.

When one thinks about motivation, one is reminded of the predicament of the Australian chief who decided he needed a new boomerang: He couldn't throw the old one away. We are facing a universal problem; we don't know how to throw the old away! Our separation of motive from thinking has gone too far; we lose contact with children and youth when we look for motives at only the biological level and forget that thinking, understanding, and mastering problems can be motivated activities with built-in satisfactions.²

Many thoughtful people have tried to fit the educational system to the natural stages of unfolding of the child's mind in terms of the levels of concepts he is thought ready for. There remains this paradox: initially there is the eager, vivid, outreaching mind of the immature organism, the tremendous curiosity, the eagerness to make contact; then, only a few years later, there is a loss of eager curiosity. It appears that the educational system did not accommodate itself to the child's mind, or his motives.³ Many of the things that were thought to be motive and not cognition, or cognition and not motive, were really a fusion of the two.

Research of the last 30 or 40 years, in an attempt to find out what is the drive in human nature which makes people look, listen, poke, and reach out; whether it is a question of making the most of the raw experience of a newly discovered sensation or whether it is

³Ibid.
a more complex form; whether it is that love of abstraction that we find in rare minds or the everyday exploration of real things.\(^1\)

It appears that some devices afford natural and intense sensory delights to certain children at specific ages. But as the child matures and develops the combinations of sensory pleasure in sequences of tone and rhythm, the mixtures of colors and forms, in which manipulation is combined with sensory-perceptual-cognitive delight is achieved. Recent research presents a good view of how sensory enrichment and sensory deprivation produce observable and measurable differences in a child's output, in the range of experiences acquired, and even in the capacity to transfer what has been learned to new situations.\(^2\)

At the very time in life when there is a mighty waxing of this capacity to enjoy the sense organs, we tend to draw away from them. We don't really trust the natural craving of the child to discover, to know, and, soon after, to think. We think we have to push him through a series of competitive exercises in order that the secondary satisfactions of being first in the class or bringing home a good report card somehow will make it unnecessary to appeal to the cravings that are already there.\(^3\)

"Cognitive stuffing," i.e., giving a child a book to enrich his life, can obliterate love for books and reading. The material must be offered when there is a need, when there is a wish, and when there is a potential for assimilation. There must be confidence in the child's own natural capacity to be curious and interested in life, in particular things at particular times, depending on his growth, his biology, his experience, the kind of people his parents are, and the needs and

\(^1\)Ibid., p. 40.

\(^2\)Ibid.

\(^3\)Ibid.
tensions of the community in which he lives. ¹

If you read the report "Achievement in the College Years," you will feel that motivation is amazingly complicated; that biological, personal, community, and social class factors are involved; and that whatever virtue there is in emphasizing curiosity lies in recognizing the broad and subtle differences which occur all the time and lead to different results in different people. Motivation is personal and individual; we have to discover what has important meaning and value to the individual child. Stimulation through the senses, through perception, through what is significant to the individual boy or girl, can never be completely described except in its full social context.²

In the case of the child who is not ready for effectiveness of instruction due to lack of motivation to learn, a search for the causes of the conflict should be made. If such factors cannot be found, or cannot be altered, special incentives, contingencies, and other non-cognitive factors should be introduced into the teaching process to increase motivational readiness for learning.³

However, when the particular motivational or emotional factors effecting readiness are unclear, then the theoretical or logical basis for introducing special techniques in the educational process remains also obscure. When that happens, the procedure is similar to the use or prescription of drugs which bring about desired changes without an adequate understanding or the processes responsible for the change.⁴

Lack of success more than any other single factor contributes to non-motivation. In an atmosphere of failure, effort and interest cannot exist; problems become overwhelming, and children withdraw. In this alienation and withdrawal, a child is trying to convey a message.

---

¹Ibid., p. 42.
²Ibid., p. 41.
⁴Ibid.
If one desires particular responses from children such as attention and a desire to learn, then it is necessary to scrutinize very carefully the kind of information that is fed into their self-evaluation system. Ordinarily, if children are to develop a favorable self-concept, they must see and feel effort producing tangible success for them, and hear others send out a positive message of approval.¹

Glasser phrased the question, "Why do schools no longer fit our young people?" He sought the answer from Marshall McLuhan.

I think one very good clue comes from a Marshall McLuhan interview in the March 1969 Playboy magazine. In it McLuhan said that students are searching for a role not a goal. Think about that. Then think about your schools. What are schools set up to provide for our students? Our schools are set up to reinforce goals. McLuhan says students are searching for a role, not a goal. I'd like to paraphrase that, for I won't go quite that far. I'll say that students are searching for a role first, and then they are willing to search for a goal. If anything, school is destructive to role reinforcement.

Role is the person's identity, the person's feelings that "This is me, I'm a separate person—hopefully a distinctive person, a person that stands for certain things, a person that wants to be accepted." This is almost a wish to be accepted "for me, regardless of what I do." That is an overstatement, but it means not being judged solely for what one does but being accepted for one's own basic humanity. This is what I call identity.²

If we no longer want to worry about traditional security goals but prefer reinforcement, then there must be a change in teaching. In such a shift from the traditional goal-orientation to the person-orientation, motivated learning will take place as the teacher hears the student say, "I want to be myself. Accept me for me, but let's not worry about what I'm going to do. I have basic value just because I am a human

²Ibid.
The student, in this shift to feeling worthwhile, should be able to relate the material to his life. For the higher I.Q. students this is not as essential as it is for the slower learner.

But the less motivated youngsters are interested in what you're saying that might possibly pertain to their lives. If what you are teaching doesn't seem to relate to their lives, they turn off very quickly. Once they turn off, it's very hard for them to turn on again. So far as possible, relate what you teach to their lives, to what they know and understand so that they can recognize that this is the kind of thing that happens to them.2

Sears studied three groups of children selected from fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. A "success" group had a history of satisfactory work, a "failure" group had a history of unsuccessful work, and an intermediate group had experienced both success and failure about equally.3

The object was to determine the effects of past experiences on the goals set for tasks in arithmetic and reading. The children with the record of success set realistic goals involving an ambition to make a reasonable improvement. The failure group did not set realistic goals. Some set their goals very low. They seemed to have a habit of failure. Others set their goals very high as if they expected luck to be with them. In other studies it has been discovered that children try to escape tasks that they perceive to be clearly beyond their ability and tend to persist in working upon those in which they hope to succeed.4

The expectancy of teachers and parents should be in accord with the abilities of children for the purpose of sustaining motivation. It

---

1Ibid., p. 20.

2Ibid., p. 21.


4Ibid., p. 499.
is also their task to temper the aspirations created by the child with some degree of adjustment to reality, and to build a sense of dignity and self-worth.¹

In considering motivation, a distinction should be made between physical fatigue and the fatigue derived from diminished motivation. In the first case, physical fatigue, there is a decline in the efficiency of work as the chemical waste products accumulate in the muscles. The usual reaction to this fatigue is the desire to rest. In the instance of diminished motivation, there is a wish to discontinue work at a time when there is little or no accumulation of chemical wastes in the muscles. This fatigue frequently occurs when motivation is low.²

When a student says he is fatigued by study, he may really mean that he is tired of studying. Studying seldom produces enough physical fatigue to reduce efficiency. In one experiment students read continuously for six hours. They were highly motivated. An electrical device recorded fatigue in their eye muscles and their reading comprehension was tested periodically. They showed only a small drop in efficiency of eye movements and comprehension during this six-hour-long study period. Being motivated in this case by a money payment they continued their work with little loss of efficiency for six hours. Physical fatigue was much less than might have been expected. It seems that even relatively long study periods produce little fatigue when motivation is high. This is not an argument against breaking up long study periods with brief rest intervals. But it does put the blame where it belongs; the feeling of fatigue from study is not physical fatigue but it is a loss of study motivation.³

³Ibid., p. 15.
Parents as Motivators

There are two major factors in learning and development: nature and nurture, or inherited genes and the individual's environment. The school can do much about the child's environment to make it favorably supportive of the reading process. This should extend into the home. There the parents set the tone for reading. They are tremendously influential in the young child's desire to read and his compatibility with books and other reading materials.

In the home where the vocabulary is extensive and the use of language patterns is good, there are many different kinds of books, and reading is an everyday occurrence—in this home conditions are favorable for the child's success in reading. There is usually a close partnership with the school program and cooperation is readily obtained. Unfortunately acculturation may work both ways— for and against reading. The following quotes convey their own influence on reading: 'too busy to read,' 'too many places to go and things to do,' 'too busy earning money;' too much parental pressure created by 'no play during the week,' 'do your homework,' 'bring your books home.'

Educational facilities provided for children should not be a substitute but a supplement to the parents' own teaching. When parents understand and reinforce the school's efforts through proper motivation, children's learning increases. The home and school are the focal points of common interest complementing each other, working in harmony.

The teachers also depend upon parents to encourage the continuing development of the skills which are initiated at school. Cooperation is needed because there is work to be done for children and youth—work that will not wait. Almost all children want to learn. They are curious and eager to explore, and they want to know. They are willing to work very hard to learn, but they want

1Bush, Strategies for Reading, p. 175.
2Ibid.
to learn those things that hold personal significance for them. What the teacher or parent has to offer must be related to the child, where and what he is, his interest, his growth and what he hopes to become. When this personal significance is present, then the child is motivated to learn.1

A reading program cannot be entirely successful if it is left completely to the school.

Most of the school time must be spent in instruction; but instruction loses its potency when it is not accompanied by practice. The home can provide the time and place for some of this practice. Furthermore, reading skills are lost and the whole purpose of the reading program is defeated unless the child establishes a habit of reading for information and entertainment. The home, the public library, and the community centers should offer the situations and reading materials to entrench the habit. 'Hands off! This is our problem,' is no longer a justifiable response from the educator. Educators are aware that parents rightfully want to assist at home when their child has difficulty at school. Since it is realistic to assume parents are involved with helping their child with his education, it becomes desirable to learn more about the role parents are playing. Specifically, it seems probably that educators could do a better job of helping parents provide assistance if they were more cognizant of the types of activities which parents provide for their children.2

Reading represents the first contact children have with systematic instruction, and parents are reestablishing contact with systematic instruction after a lapse of years. In such a situation, it is only natural for parents to feel concern for their children. They are correct in frequently reiterating the question, "What can we do to help in reading?" Children are motivated by parental assistance of the right kind. The school should help parents understand the reading program and show them what may be done to help their children in

1Ibid., p. 12.

Parents need to be alerted to the contribution of out-of-school experience. A car ride, a visit to the museum or planetarium, and a trip provide new interests, new words for growing vocabularies, and a new background of information. Parents can contrive situations, such as reading directions and recipes, that will give practice while illustrating some of the purposes for reading. Playing games that increase observation while passing away the time spent on a trip also stimulates interest. "A child with few experiences brings little to his reading, but a child who shares a full family life usually possesses good listening and speaking vocabularies, a wide variety of interests, a useful fund of information, and a habit of observation and curiosity."2

As has been noted in research, the common activity of every day brings a child closer to happiness, and to success in reading.

Many popular television programs are excellent for supplying vicariously the background experience necessary for reading. Parents and older siblings can answer questions and illustrate how reference books and library books supply additional knowledge.3

The parent who wishes to help his child in reading should be made aware of the importance of home environment.

The reading done by parents sets an example for the child to follow. If he grows up in a home where reading is a part of everyday living and books are familiar companions, he, too, will accept reading and will grow up to love books. When a difference of opin-


2Ibid.

3Ibid.
ion results in the use of atlas, dictionary, or encyclopedia to settle questions among the various members of the family, children will soon seek these same sources of information to corroborate their statements.¹

Books make lovely gifts and effort should be made to help children appreciate and desire them as gifts.

Parents are consciously and sometimes unknowingly setting reading as a goal for their children when they frequently give books to their children on birthdays and holidays or as a special treat. Children who are in this type of stimulating environment are indeed fortunate.²

Providing experience and setting a pattern to show the child that pleasure may be derived from books is actually helping with reading instruction. Proper attitude and encouragement to achieve academically has played a crucial role in helping with reading instruction.³

"An abundance of books in the home is more likely to produce good readers than would the absence of books, but it is not essential and certainly provides no guarantee of success in reading."⁴

Guidance is vitally necessary in assisting a child in selecting books. This guidance may consist in the parents recommending books they liked as children. It also means being aware of children's rapidly changing interests.⁵ Continuous seeking for a fuller understanding of the developing child is basic to direction in motivation.

¹Ibid.


⁴Ibid., p. 16.

⁵Newton, Reading in Your School, p. 198.
Rigid old-fashioned discipline in the home conflicts with such objectives as the development of initiative and independence. The idea that a child should be seen and not heard conflicts with the development of creative expression. If children are inhibited they are likely to suffer from a lack of confidence and from an inability to express themselves in light of what they have read.\(^1\)

Chall supports parent involvement, stating "helping" but not "teaching" as a positive support to the reading program.

The basal-reader authors agreed that some form of parental aid is good, but they were concerned lest the parents take over the professional role of the teacher. The following statement represents the views of all three authors: 'Parental aid is a good thing in general. Sociologically, more and more parents are college graduates and, therefore, can be enlisted to help their children. But the teacher has to make some of the professional choices, such as when the child is going to use phonics. She knows best. The role of the parent is supplementary. Parents can see to it that the child has many books to read. Parents can also read to and with the child. But certain professional decisions have to be made by the curriculum director and by committees of teachers. We should help support parents more, though.'\(^2\)

It is important that the child be protected from pressures from parents for such exposure results in less achievement and frustration. Tremonti has words of caution:

Parents can avoid problems in reading by refraining from tense-ness and nervousness over the situation, thus imparting their fear to the child. Above all, do not compare the child with a sibling who is smarter or a neighbor's child who is smarter. This tends to lower Johnny's already low opinion of himself. Instead, encourage and praise and have patience. Give him work to do or books to read that he is capable of reading, so that he has an opportunity to experience a sense of achievement. Let him know


that you know he has a reading problem and that you will help him and in time he will be a good reader.¹

Smart notes the urgency of organizing environment which moti-
vate and foster the growth of intelligent, socialized, and socializing individuals. There are important elements that become the prime respon-
sibility of adults.

First, there should be a variety of experiences. By planning the variation the child is assured of a range of differences in the complexity, the novelty, and the content of his experiences. Hopefully, such an environment will make the appropriate demands upon his cognitive structure which requires him to make the accom­modative modifications necessary for developing ever-higher levels of thought. A bland experiential diet composed of familiarity, un-
liveliness, monotony, and boredom may cause tentative schemata simply to disappear from lack of use. The results may be deficits in a child's experiential foundation which, research indicates, may be cumulative.

A second element necessary to learning environments is a high quality of verbal interactions between adults and children. Each encounter should harbor a design for evoking a range of mental behaviors. For example, the phrasing of questions determines the cognitive demands made upon children's responses. Notice how the following questions are framed to stimulate:

'Recall: Have you ever seen anything like this before?

'Comparison: Does our cake look the same as before we baked it?

'Discrimination: How is it different?

'Prediction: What do you suppose will happen if we add red to our blue paint?

'Judgment: Why do you think so?

Such questions are silhouetted against the backdrop of listen-
ing to children and then modifying our verbal behavior to extend and to clarify their responses. Listening to children, then, be-
comes a third necessary component for learning experience.

The possibility of a fourth element is emerging from recent research. The evidence suggests that bilingualism may be an im-
portant factor in developing flexibility of cognitive organization.²

¹Tremonti, "The Role of the Home," p. 16.

Summary

The basis for a healthy, confident, and efficient approach to school learning is largely a product of good child-parent relationships. From such experiences the child develops a sense of trust, a sense of autonomy, and a sense of self-confidence and initiative. If he is accustomed to adequate provision for his physiological needs and feels safe, loved and esteemed, the child will be free for constructive and creative use of his talents.

Teachers as Motivators

The previously discussed conditions of learning include that learning will not occur unless the learner is "motivated" or "wants" to do what is required. Although wants, motives, urges and the like are popularly assumed to be internal causes of behavior, they still must be inferred from behavior itself. A student gives evidence that he wants to learn to read, if he cooperates with his teacher, follows instructions, persists despite setbacks, assumes the responsibility of extra practice, shows pleasure at even small intermediate successes, and continues to read after external pressure has been removed. Conversely, if behaviors like these seldom or never occurred, it may be said that the motivation was low and the student apparently did not want to learn.¹

Why success should be more likely when these behaviours occur is not difficult to see: they have the effect of permitting the fulfilment of the basic requirements of learning. When the learner persists (a major piece of 'evidence' of a want), he thereby

facilitates the occurrence of a series of situations containing the cue, and also gives the cue the opportunity of being or becoming the forceful feature. When he complies with instructions he facilitates the introduction of a prompt. And when he shows pleasure in success he exemplifies one of the circumstances known to serve as a reinforcer.

A fundamental practical implication of this very brief analysis is that if we are to use the word 'want' at all we should be wiser to use it, not as the name of a supposed inner cause of behaviour, but to refer to the syndrome of behaviours from which inner wants are popularly inferred. In effect, to say that Mary wants to read is to say that she already behaves in ways like those we have been considering. This way of using the word has the advantage of concentrating our attention on something we can deal with at first hand—namely the pupil's behaviour. In particular, reference to the absence of a want to learn something will mean, not the absence of some internal cause over which we can have no control, but the absence of behaviours of a quite specific kind. And that in turn suggests the form the teacher's task must take. By one means or another he must see to it that the learner does persist, does comply with instructions, does have pleasure in intermediate success, does continue when external pressure is removed, and so forth. For all practical purposes, to create a want to learn means to induce these very behaviours.¹

The motivational problem, as it affects the teacher, can here be stated clearly and unambiguously. There are means that the teacher can use to induce behaviours of the kind referred to above.

Here again it would be out of place to produce a full-scale argument. All I shall do is state a general principle and provide illustrations of it. The answer, in motivational terms is that a new want has usually to be created by our exploiting some other want which is already present. In behavioural terms, the required behaviour usually has to be fitted into and made part of a pattern of behaviour which is already established. Here are two examples.

A class of semi-literate men, in a military detention barracks, who knew little or nothing of vulgar fractions, learned remarkably quickly to manipulate fractions once the topic had been presented in a context of betting-odds. In the same institution was an illiterate man who was also surly, aggressive, no respecter of persons, and showed no wish to learn to read and write. From the scanty conversation in which I was able to engage him, however, I deduced that he was strongly attached to his widowed mother; and when I offered to help him, privately, to write letters to her, the offer was gladly accepted and indeed bore fruit. Of each case it could, of course, be said that I had discovered a want to which

¹Ibid., pp. 89-90.
I could appeal, but all I knew for certain were the behaviours I was able to exploit--in the first case betting, and in the other a mode of behaviour which might be called 'doing things which pleased his mother.' True, it might have been interesting to know why these men behaved in these particular ways; but for my purely practical purpose it was sufficient to know that these actual modes of behaviour were established.¹

Though the details of these examples scarcely apply to school, they illustrate a principle that is widely employed. Curricula, in recent years, have tended to be based more and more on the activities in which pupils actually engage.

Measurement is linked with the lay-out of sports grounds, music with school concerts, mechanics with motor cars, and so on. In all these cases the teacher is exploiting an established mode of behaviour. The means of exploiting it can be expressed in a variety of ways. Sometimes it is sufficient to show the pupil that the new behaviour is a way of achieving an end he has not yet been able to reach, or a more efficient way of achieving an end he can now reach only with considerable difficulty.²

Other occasions call for more subtle engineering.

Teacher effectiveness.--It has been repeatedly stated, after methods research, that the teacher, not the program, made the difference.³ Certainly, this can be an important and positive finding if it leads researchers to concentrate their efforts on finding ways to achieve this maximum effectiveness. One significant area of this search focuses on the reading teacher's need to motivate, while simultaneously being aware of a child's growth, learning, and reading as interrelated processes. It is essential to establish this understanding as the basis for intelligent selection of appropriate materials and methods for each

¹Ibid., p. 90.
²Ibid., pp. 90-91.
A child is an indivisible unit of emotional, social, physical, and intellectual dimensions. This multi-faceted orientation allows for the fine teacher-student relationship which creates the growth-producing climate vital to all good learning situations. It is true that teachers who best learn to read children can best help children learn to read.¹

Knowledge of the pattern and rate of a child's growth and development is essential for good curriculum planning. The effective reading teacher always seeks: (1) through objective testing and personal observation, accurate evaluation of the reader's emotional maturation, in order to plan reading experiences that consistently foster a "can-do" attitude; (2) social maturation, in order to provide reading experiences that develop a sense of safety to try; (3) physical maturation, in order to provide reading experiences that include necessary perceptual-motor training; (4) intellectual maturation, in order to provide reading experiences that "charge what the traffic will bear," no more, no less.²

Knowledge of a remedial student's growth and development is crucial since his reading difficulty must be understood as a symptom of a cause or combination of causes. Effective assessment techniques must indicate appropriate remediation, deal with the source of trouble. Prescriptive teaching recommendations made from this assessment are based extensively on growth process and information.³

The teacher who provides a rich learning environment organized to promote concept development is ready to use all available resources to grasp and exploit "that golden teachable moment." An awareness of this moment, with its potential leaps of insight, comes from understand-

²Ibid.
³Ibid.
ing that a child learns how to learn through associating a known with an unknown.¹

Ultimately, success in language learning generally, and printed symbol reading particularly, depends on many real and vicarious experiences which develop concepts of the "known reality" which speech and printed symbols represent. In this way, concept development lays the foundation for all language arts instruction. Given a basically adequate store of concepts and the guidance of an effective teacher, a child can begin to explore his thoughts. Encouraged to tinker with ideas, to play with imagery, he will be freed to pursue new language adventures.²

A child's reading program must begin at the level he is able to achieve success. Many children can't learn to read print because they have not completed the prerequisite of understanding the idea of reading and/or have not learned to use the language that the print represents.

A student needs to grasp the significant sounds of language he hears and speaks, before he can be asked to decipher their representative symbols. Reading, understood in this broader sense, includes perceiving, seeing relationships, and making inferences. It involves the interpretation of all sensory stimulation, not just visual interpretation of printed symbols. An effective reading program considers all these aspects, not just the latter. When reading is appropriately considered as making discriminating responses to one's environment, all learners can be considered to read many things well, and they can accept more easily an honest appraisal of some reading which they need to improve.³

In the spring of 1966 at the Dallas Reading Convention, Bond and Dyksta presented the data of twenty-one first-grade research studies concerning the success of reading programs. These studies were conducted by the International Reading Association during the year of 1965. It was found that the outstanding achievement in each control-

¹Ibid., p. 127.
²Ibid.
³Ibid.
led method group was directly attributable to an able teacher.¹

Bush speaks of the teacher's daily challenge to meet the reading needs of each student. Motivating each child to be a student who reads is the most important task the reading teacher faces.

She motivates children by guiding their reading skills development. She helps improve the quality of their reading material for all areas of the curriculum. She helps improve the quantity of reading as she motivates children to read for many purposes both in and out of school. Thus she guides the learner to be a good reader who, in the final analysis, has become a good reader because he has done a good job of reading.²

In the past sixty years, teacher-effectiveness literature has been so clouded with arguments as to why pupil performance criterion measures are supposedly unworkable that at times it is difficult to see beyond this position. Justiz, a research educationist, has reported the absence of reliable pupil performance criterion measures of teacher effectiveness.

Consider the following excerpts from various research articles, as examples:

1. 'Researchers, with few exceptions, have not been too successful in demonstrating that the method differentiates between more and less competent teachers.'

2. 'It is never possible to isolate the influence which can be attributed to a given teacher over a given period of time.'

3. 'The tests used in developing the pupil gain criterion will have varying degrees of operational validity, except as the teachers agree to pursue certain stated objectives which can be defined with sufficient clarity to provide like meanings to all the participants.'

4. 'The imperfections in tests used make it difficult for some pupils and classes to demonstrate satisfactory gains no matter how


²Bush, Strategies for Reading in the Elementary School, p. 131.
effective the teaching.'

5. 'The gaps in the criterion arising from inadequate tests with which to measure pupil gain will be found to be considerable.'

6. 'Pupil gains measures tend to have low reliability (to be inconsistent) and so to be of doubtful validity.'

7. 'Pupil growth varies with different pupils; poor English speaking ability on the part of some pupils may handicap some teachers.'

Justiz had also given relevant data from a study of a teacher-training coordinator. This study was designed as a practical-method by which the coordinator could compare the general teaching ability of teachers. The findings of the study were based on the following general principles of teacher effectiveness:

1. Pupil change is the ultimate criterion of teacher ability.

2. Teacher ability may be assessed when all teachers in a group are provided with an equal opportunity to produce effective results. This includes identical objectives over time, reliable instruments, and equivalent pupil-group learning abilities (that is, control over all relevant variables other than the effects of the teaching itself).

3. The validity of the pupil achievement criterion depends on the discriminating power of the objectives, and the consistency of the teacher rankings (based on class mean scores), that is, reliability.2

Influence of motivation.—There is almost unanimous agreement among reading specialists on the influence of "motivation" or "set" or "purpose" on productive reading. This occurs when teachers motivate for effective study habits. Bush states these habits are developed when teachers:


2Ibid., p. 55.
1. Arouse curiosity by setting the stage with pictures, displays, visitors, and so on.

2. Ask a motivating question to prepare children for a short reading selection (sentence, paragraph, or single page).

3. Relate the new lesson to children's experience or to previous lessons when applicable.

4. Set a reading task that can be completed in an amount of time reasonable for the age and ability of the children.

5. Raise additional questions to emphasize the main points, details, sequence of ideas, conclusions (if any).

6. Review at regular intervals for reinforcement to assure retention.

7. Plan opportunities for students to use the information gained through reading (whenever possible).

8. Alternate reading lessons with big muscle activity to prevent fatigue.

9. Make new sources available; encourage creativity. 1

Psychological factors are important in dealing with all children. They are vital however, when the students are below-grade readers for whom reading is a difficult task, a stumbling block, or a cause of frustration and failure. The teacher must use every means to relate reading to the personal lives of his students, and make reading and books synonymous with progress, pleasure and satisfaction. 2 Recognition should be given to those eager to engage in activities for themselves. This is an opportunity for the teacher to give praise for "doing," thus establishing the respectability and expectation of self-

1Bush, Strategies for Reading in the Elementary School, p. 136.

A teacher who successfully accomplishes the above state objectives needs to develop independence in study techniques. Bush says he has achieved this when students:

1. Turn naturally to reading to satisfy their curiosity, for pleasure, and so on.

2. Ask themselves what they hope to learn from a reading selection; then concentrate on reading to find answers to the questions they themselves raise.

3. Note any relationships between the reading at hand and experience (personal or vicarious) that seem applicable.

4. Set a reasonable time for studying; then complete the task.

5. Record in their own words the main ideas, supporting details, illustrations, conclusions, and so on.

6. Review notes taken in step 5 immediately; review again before class and before examinations, to aid retention.

7. Develop self-confidence through the use of information gained in reading; keep alert to situations in which new information may be put to use.

8. Develop psychologically varied approaches to homework—planning, spacing, and timing.

9. Work on their own, or go beyond requirements in initiating a learning activity.2

Estes' three-condition process to build good reading habits of study can apply to motivation in reading. These are: anticipation, manipulation and evaluation.

Anticipation - It has been said that a person can learn only what he half-knows already. Certainly, learning involves past experience and knowledge. On this principle rests the idea of anticipation as a prerequisite condition to reading comprehension. There are numerous ways to create this condition, depending on the

---

1Anderson, Reading and Young Children, p. 45.

situation, but all fall under the heading of establishing purposes for reading.

**Manipulation** - This is the necessity to do something with information being assimilated as a consequence of reading. Perhaps it is as important as reading with definite purposes. Guidance is necessary to help the student mentally construct, sort, classify, order, etc., what he is reading and be able to do it independently. Suggested activities are: checklist of literal understandings, fill in details of an outline, checklist of possible interpretations of the material, organize content materials as to cause-effect, comparison-contrast or chronological order, and to have students make lists of ideas which occur to them as they read in the form of note-taking.

**Evaluation** - To be able to remember what one has read, it is well to stop and reflect after the reading. This evaluation is a judgment being passed. One basis for reflection is to think in terms of what was anticipated in reading. Did this selection fill in the gaps of the reader's knowledge of the topic? If so, was it well done? If not, why not? In teaching the skill to evaluate, the teacher will have to make suggestions and provide guidance. If it is done frequently enough, evaluation will become an integral part of each student's reading repertoire. ¹

Anderson speaks of the importance of goals in motivation. These goals must be set with the child and in accordance with his potentialities. Evaluation can only be made in relation to his capabilities. To favor any kind of activity, a student must have success. When a teacher rejoices with the child in such successes he affords him the best kind of motivation for setting new goals and working.

A teacher who can assess potentialities of a child, determine his interests, and help him to aspire toward ever broader and more far-reaching goals is deserving of the highest honors. To cause a child to want to know, to want to be healthy, to want to be a worthy citizen, and to want to become all he is capable of becoming with dignity and honor is the essence of INSPIRATION. ²

To assist teachers, Cassel offers six suggestions for motivat-

---

² Anderson, Reading and Young Children, p. 45.
ing students. His emphasis is similar to Anderson's. Teachers must:

1. Insure personal integrity and dignity of student. Basic and foremost in importance to any type of interaction with students is acceptance of the notion that the human being has dignity, status, and worth.

2. Emphasize student self-decision making. Educational development and growth is measured in terms of greater degrees of independence on the part of the student.

3. Strive for positive orientation. Effective education seeks to emphasize the positive approach. When negative goals and their likely consequences are depicted, the student is left without meaningful direction for continual endeavor, and with inhibited anxieties.

4. Provide objective assessment of talent. Students have a right to know what both their strong and weak talents are, and the teacher must be sensitive as to the manner and time this is to be done.

5. Relate student's aspirations to his capabilities. Success derives largely from establishing goals within the range of the person's own capabilities. Failure can be changed to success in two ways: by lowering one's goals for attainment, or by increasing one's level of performance in the direction of goals. Effective educational guidance seeks to establish goals that are compatible with the student's potentials and to alter such goals in accordance with the history of his performance.

6. Emphasize self-realization and happiness. Self-realization maintains that people are most content and happy when engaged in gainful employment. The teacher must assist the individual to obtain accurate assessments of himself and develop goals compatible with these assessments. ¹

Spache has written on this same topic—motivation toward reading interests.

Give students such reasons to read as (1) to prepare for a trip, a film, or a listening experience; (2) to further their interests in sports and hobbies; (3) to ready them for a major purchase; (4) to develop their popularity, appearance, and etiquette; and (5) to inform them about careers and current events. Powell has pointed out that permitting students to suggest titles to be added to the library and subsequent purchase of these may lead to sharply

increased library circulation. Some high schools stimulate reading by opening a paperback bookstore, thus bringing students and inexpensive books closer together. Amy Elizabeth Jensen stresses the importance of securing recognition and social approval for one's reading.¹

Brown was concerned with investigations on praise and criticisms. The findings indicate that teachers who use praise yield significantly more pupil-initiated responses than classes where less praise is used. These responses were indicators of motivation in the classroom. Brown also quoted the experimenters, Zigler and Kanges, who found that verbal reinforcers connoting praise or correctness increased the amount of time spent attending to the assigned task.²

The Bureau of Curriculum Development in New York published a guide to assist the teacher to motivate and approach the complexities involved in reading with a greater degree of confidence, security and success. Teachers were to be aware of three basic facts to assure success as a teacher of reading. They are:

1. Recognize the key role that reading plays in the learning activities and academic progress of all pupils.

2. Realize that reading is a complex process, which presents many problems to pupils, especially those with limited experiences and language patterns unlike those of the school.

3. Remember that any pupil in grades 5-8 seriously below grade in reading achievement has already experienced failure and may have developed negative attitudes toward school and reading. He may well have become a behavior problem.³

In every teaching situation there is present the inescapable human dy-

¹Spache, Toward Better Reading, p. 172.


³Bureau of Curriculum Development, p. ix.
namic, the student. It is the teacher's unique role to be the catalyst which brings students and process together in a meaningful, exciting relationship. This is done by:

- Trying to establish a one-to-one relationship with pupils in order to get to know them as individual human beings, thus building morale and mutual respect.
- Convincing pupils of your sincere interest in them; showing your confidence in their desire and ability to learn to read and demonstrating your determination to teach them to read.¹

Carter's definition of a teacher who motivates students to greater accomplishments is:

A teacher does motivate when he stimulates his listeners, informs those who inquire and guides the activity of those who seek his aid. He incites his pupils to action, accentuates their successes and mitigates their errors. Pupils in his classes become students, and students become disciples. Creative scholarship is their goal. A good teacher is productive and is a builder of ideas. He has much to offer, for his stimulation, information, and guidance modify significantly human behavior.²

Patterson views emotional response to characters in the story as an important way to motivate children to read. When there is an integration of emotion, the student can appreciate the character's feelings in terms of his own experiences, which adds enjoyment and interest. Teachers should aid students in identifying words or groups of words which express either a physical or emotional change in the character. Through discussion, the student would be led to discover a deeper comprehension of these words. Guidance is also needed in interpreting the implied meaning of the author, and the comprehension of figurative expressions. These are complex processes, and when simplified with as-

¹Ibid.

sistance, children will enjoy reading and be motivated to make it a leisure-time activity.¹

Chall quotes Moore's position on motivation. It varies considerably from that of all the others she cited. Referring to the teacher:

He discourages any emotional reaction on the part of his teachers to the child's successes or failures. The primary motivation should spring from the child's natural curiosity and desire to learn to read. The child's reward comes from his own discoveries and achievements. There is no need to entice and "sugarcoat." The child wants to learn. In fact, he needs to learn as much as he needs to eat and sleep.²

Teachers must be increasingly aware of the social matrix in which the child operates and by which he is conditioned. They must be immersed in the smell, taste, and throb of the social realities of cities and suburbs, homes, neighborhoods and gangs that children bring to school with them.³

Children can think critically about those situations which are a part of their own experiences or can be related to them. However, Painter states that many children will not do critical reading and thinking unless the teacher directs or challenges them. Critical reading calls for teachers who are critical thinkers themselves.⁴

Motivation flows from interest. Without interest there is usu-

¹Oliver Patterson, "Emotional Responses in Reading Comprehension," Reading Improvement, IV (Winter, 1967), pp. 31-32.
²Chall, Learning to Read, p. 61.
⁴Helen W. Painter, "Critical Reading in the Primary Grades," The Reading Teacher, IX (October, 1965), p. 36.
ally no will to do, no drive to learn. Without motivation, the pupil simply will not develop into a mature reader. It is often said, "Appreciation should be caught, not taught," but evidence seems to indicate that children cannot catch it by themselves. They need help, especially from teachers.

Children develop interests through learning, conscious or unconscious emulation, and identification. The child readily identifies with parents or individuals who take their place. He generally accepts their values and develops their interests. If the teacher is sincerely interested in reading, the child tends to incorporate this interest.

DeChant alerts teachers to motivational readiness. "Readiness for and achievement in reading are dependent on the pupil's motivational readiness." Children generally come to school wanting to learn to read. The teacher must locate those lacking this intent. He must know how to further the interest of the child who wants to read. There exists a concern and knowledge of the type of reading materials that will encourage extensive reading and that will raise the child's general level of reading interests and tastes. DeChant has defined the nature of interest.

Interests are defined as positive attitudes toward objects or classes of objects to which we are attracted. Ryans says that interests are learned responses which predispose the organism to certain lines of activity and which facilitate attention. Getzels defines interest as a disposition which impels an individual to seek out particular objects, activities, understanding, skills, or goals for attention. Cummins and Pagin suggest that interest is an emotional involvement of like or dislike which is associated with attention to some object. Interest is the set of attending; the tend-

---

1DeChant, Improving the Teaching of Reading, p. 94.
2Ibid.
3Ibid., p. 91.
ency to give selective attention to something.¹

For teachers, there is concern with two phases of interest. First, the interest of the child somehow must be captured if he is to learn to read, and second, the child must be helped to make reading an habitual activity.

As a person learns to read, reading enters his mental make-up as a permanent mode of behavior . . . Henceforth he uses reading as a means of enjoyment and as a means of studying and thinking. To the extent that he can read with ease, reading is a major factor in the control of his behavior. He will often arrange his daily schedule of work and play in order to provide time for reading. He will make sacrifices in order to provide himself with books to read. He will turn to reading as a means of discovering new interests and of losing himself for a time from the actualities of the external world. It is at this point that we see the employment of advanced spontaneous attention. No longer is reading an end on the outside that conflicts with other tendencies. It is now a dominating interest that is within.²

The motivation of interests in children requires preparation by the teacher. Before systematic instruction can be presented there are certain characteristics and procedures in which the teacher must be competent.

He should be thoroughly familiar with the works of Nancy Larrick, May Hill Arbuthnot, Leland Jacobs, and others in the field of recommendations and analyses of children's literature. He should read children's books, develop interesting and provocative questions on them, know their characters. He must learn how to listen to children, accept their reaction in a respectful permissive manner, and lead them into their own correct responses. This requires good rapport with the youngsters. He must have the right books available, in both quantity and quality. Knowing the interests children bring to the instructional situation helps him know where to begin to build new interests. He might become the "scribe of his children and listen and record their words and sentences."³

---

¹Ibid.
²Ibid., p. 92.
Utilizing pupil interests.--The teacher cannot ignore the interests of children, nor can he give the student only what he likes. He must stimulate the child to increase the variety of his interests and acquire other tastes. Children need to develop discrimination by being allowed and encouraged to read a variety of material. "It is often found that the brightest children and most voracious readers, read much that is of a trashy nature, as well as much that is good. Taste develops through comparison and contrast, not from ignorance."¹

DeChant alerts teachers to developing reading tastes and cautions them to remedy the situation of inadequate quality and undeveloped permanent interest.

First: He must use his understanding of the pupil to help the pupil choose books that will lead him to a higher level of appreciation. It is not enough to know that the book does not positively "harm" the child. The teacher must encourage the pupil to read books that make a positive contribution to his cultural, social, and ethical development. Second: He must be well acquainted with the books that he recommends to the pupil. When he suggests a book to a child, he must have the conviction that the content and the style will motivate him to read it. Third: He must know the specific interests of each child. If he is to help the pupil to develop reading tastes, he must consider the pupil's interest patterns, his voluntary reading, the availability of materials, and the time that he has for leisure reading.²

Bush considers six factors important in evaluating children's interests. They include intelligence, age, sex, self-concept, thinking, and social setting. The level of intellectual functioning of the child seems to be related to his interest in reading and to the type of interests he develops. Children with lower mental age prefer to read simple stories about activities familiar to them, while children with

¹DeChant, Improving the Teaching of Reading, p. 97.

²Ibid.
high mental ability choose books that represent a wide variety of interests that may even reach the adult level. Age is a factor in reading interests.¹

As they get older, they gradually develop choices and will choose reading according to likes and dislikes, according to authors whom they like, according to type of story, poetry, or subject. Although research studies done by teachers and librarians have linked this factor of book selection with age, probably other factors are more important and account for the reasons, such as reading ability, experiences, basic and secondary needs.²

Sex differences in reading interests begin to emerge as soon as the children are reading independently. Generally boys move in the direction of sports, science and adventure, whereas girls generally move toward romance and related literature involving sentiment. Girls generally read more than boys as boys use their leisure-time in activities that interest them. Once again, in working with children, one finds a wide range of choice within the sexes. Among the psychological bases of children's interests, no other factor is as important probably, as the individual's self-concept. This point is reiterated here because it must be considered in juxtaposition to mental ability, maturity, age and sex. Another dimension that is important in the concern over interests that continue throughout one's lifetime is the type of thinking that the child is taught and encouraged to engage in for learning and accomplishment.³

If he reads to find the answer to a question, the way something should be done, the person to quote, the response that fits, the one solution, then he is engaging in convergent thinking. Al-

¹Bush, Strategies for Reading in the Elementary School, p. 190.
²Ibid.
³Ibid., pp. 190-191.
most all of our school instruction is concerned with the one correct solution to the problem. On the other hand, divergent thinking deals with situations for which there are many reasonable solutions, and it calls for fluency and imagination. The school should concentrate its efforts more than it has in the past on the interests that will cause the child to read widely and find multiple solutions to problems, to integrate ideas that he finds widely dispersed, and to use imaginative ideas. In other words, if interests are to be developed and used, they should lead the child to the divergent thinking approach to his problems and their solutions.

There is a tendency for a child's interest to develop in common with those of the society which surrounds him. His interests are shaped by the goals these adults and peer group set for him.

He starts with his own constitutional determinants, then he assumes a specific role in each of his social groups. There are situational determinants that influence these roles: if he is an older child in a family where the father or mother is absent, he is apt to assume a more adult role sooner. In such a case he matures quickly in matters that are important to the family. If he retains the youngest child role, he may mature more slowly.

Many writers emphasize the need for providing time for reading in the school day. Spache cites a sixth grade class studied by Hoggenson that showed significant gains in reading skills when materials and time for "free" reading were provided. However, he also quotes Handlan who reminds teachers that such gains in volume or skill do not happen automatically, as accessibility to books is increased.

Students do not necessarily happen upon books which meet their needs or interests. Without guidance, student choice tends to be immature and to stress the most easily accessible. The teacher must continually assist by stimulating reasons for reading, by leading students to relate books to their other interests, and by creating a class atmosphere which approves and supports the values of reading. Group discussion of books, choral reading, dramatization,

---

1Ibid., p. 191.
2Ibid.
3Spache, Toward Better Reading, p. 172.
book displays and bulletin boards arranged by students, integration of books with radio, television, movies, and recordings, and collections of books on topics of concern to pupils are some of the approaches that teachers and librarians have found effective.\(^1\) On the other hand, intensive study of types of literature or biographical material on authors, formal book reports, careful analysis of poetry, and new vocabulary encountered tend to condition students negatively toward reading.

Formal records of the reading accomplished by the student in the form of lists, or even fancy charts are influential in keeping with the philosophy of their use. When such charts became a manifestation of competition or comparison among pupils they may well result in negative motivation toward reading, particularly among poorer or less skillful readers. Records of actual reading are desirable only when they help the pupil realize the direction in which his reading is taking him, and lead him to sample related or tangential reading areas. Records are valuable when they result in sharing pupil reactions to books, not merely because they dramatize the volume of reading.\(^2\)

The writer wishes to re-state the fact that the child who is motivated is the child who is easiest to teach. Since there is a dependent relationship between motivation and success in reading, teachers would be foolish not to take advantage of interests. Durkin promotes "interest sub-groups" in the classroom organization of achievement levels. Consequently, in interest grouping, teachers should expect to have children who might vary considerably in what they are able to read.\(^3\)

This is all to the good, for a classroom organization that only allows for groupings based on achievement almost inevitably creates status groups. Knowing that descriptions like "Blue Birds" and "Cardinals"—or, more recently, "Jets" and "Rockets"—do

\(^1\)Ibid.

\(^2\)Ibid., pp. 172-173.

little to hide unequal abilities, it is a wise teacher who brings
together groups of children who might differ in how well they read
but who share a particular interest.¹

Once appropriate materials are found, various procedures can be used to
allow interest groups to function smoothly and, eventually, with a min-
imum of teacher assistance. These groups are not only valuable in en-
couraging children to read, they are also a means for profitable group
discussions.

Many teachers create interest through the use of study units.
It is important to recognize that pupils are interested in the scien-
tific wonders of the world, in the cultures of the present and the past,
and in the problems of everyday living. Through unit study, pupils can
demand quality in factual presentations as well as in narrative ones.²

The professional literature that reports studies of children's
interest is extensive. It is difficult to assess because of the many
variable in the methodology, the numbers of children, the grade levels,
the numbers of each sex, socioeconomic levels, and other factors.

There are, though, certain common findings and certain trends
developing in recent studies that are summarized. Some studies
are listed because they appear to be soundly conducted and report-
ed and seem to be representative of the more frequent findings.
The most noticeable trend is the overwhelming lead that television
viewing has taken in children's leisure-time activities, and the
resulting number of studies that deal with this phenomenon. A
second trend is the continuously rising amount of interest in sci-
ence when all the various areas of that field are lumped together.
A third trend is of a slightly different nature, but is very im-
portant for the classroom teacher to know and utilize: educational
research studies are being increasingly funded by foundations, the
Federal government, the states, and the research allotments of
school budgets. Several important results are developing: (1)

¹Ibid., p. 158.

²H. Alan Robinson, Reading: Seventy-Five Years of Progress
larger number of children are sampled in the studies, thus hope­fully making the sample more representative of the population; (2) the standardization of hypotheses, variables, and methodology yields more reliable and comparable generalizations; (3) the dis­semination of findings is improved through publication in journals, their annual research summaries, and clearinghouses such as ERIC-CRIER.1

Through a questionnaire, Curry asked 43,979 fifth grade children from fifty states to rank preferences for nine school subjects. Reading ranked fifth for boys and girls. Boys chose art, arithmetic, spelling, health and physical education ahead of reading, whereas girls chose spelling, art, music, and arithmetic in that order.2

Bush refers to a survey by Greenblatt. He asked 300 children and their 10 teachers to list their favorite subjects in order of preference. Only art and arithmetic came ahead of reading.3

Teachers can discover children's interests by means of interest blanks and inventories. Lists are found in Harris,4 Witty,5 and Dolch.6

---

3Bush, Strategies for Reading, p. 203.
4Albert J. Harris, How to Increase Reading Ability (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1956), pp. 479, 482, 483.
Other sources of reference are the tests of Witty, Kopel and Coomer,\textsuperscript{1} and Thorpe, Meyers and Sea.\textsuperscript{2}

Despite all of the values inherent in wide and wisely selected reading, recreational reading seems to be declining. This is certainly true among adults and appears to be true among adolescents.

The school has the responsibility of guiding the growth of children and cannot possibly wait for a child's needs to drive him into recreational reading. Recreational reading is a special instructional problem because of the discrepancy between the tremendous potential residing in recreational reading and the actual values presently achieved in our schools.\textsuperscript{3}

Heilman stresses four ways in which teachers can help develop an interest in recreational reading. The first means is to make reading attractive to children by reading to them. The teacher may read a book or story in its entirety or just enough to whet appetites. The teacher will need to be well-prepared, reading with expression and feeling to provide a model interpretation. Teachers must be prepared to guide children in selecting books. They must know the characters' backgrounds, accomplishments and contributions; they should be aware of events and conditions which make the story more meaningful. A factor jeopardizing the success of recreational reading is too great an emphasis toward wide reading, since a balanced diet is not neces-

\textsuperscript{1}Paul Witty, D. Kopel, and A. Coomer, \textit{The Northwestern Interest Inventory} (Psycho-educational Clinic, Northwestern University: Evanston, Indiana, 1949).


\textsuperscript{3}Arthur W. Heilman, \textit{Principles and Practice of Teaching Reading} (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1967), p. 175.
narily the first step. Heilman's opinion is:

If he reads extensively, he will soon become satiated with "series" books, mysteries, westerns, myths or whatever he is currently engrossed in. Recreational reading is by definition an individual matter. There is little cause for fear that the avid reader will not gradually broaden his interests and taste. He should be guided in this direction but not pushed. 2

Another means which Heilman finds necessary is extrinsic motivation. Some children are favorably influenced by keeping a record of the books they read. This is educationally justifiable, but teachers must remember its limitations. 3

It can work for only a limited time. While it is being used and while it is serving as an ego satisfaction for the child, the real aim is to have the child develop a love for reading which in time becomes the reward itself. When this occurs, the child will no longer need the show of accomplishment in the form of a record of books read. Some children will need overt approval from the teacher as a reward for their effort in recreational or outside reading. These children should be permitted to tell the teacher or a group in the class about the story they have read. Acceptance and teacher approval then become associated with reading. If a child is adequately prepared, he may be permitted to read to a group during a free reading period or as part of a unit. This practice is certainly one of the chief uses of oral reading in the classroom. 4

Duffy also places strong emphasis on recreational reading periods. These should be scheduled frequently and not confined to the last period on Friday when children's thoughts are on the activities of the weekend. "Similarly, the teacher should not look at the free reading period as an opportunity to complete his attendance register or other pressing paperwork. Instead, he, too, should read a book, thus pro-

1 Ibid., p. 176.
2 Ibid.
3 Ibid., pp. 175-176.
4 Ibid.
viding a model for the class."¹

The provision of this time is the first step in developing the reading habit. Once the time has been provided, both the reading environment and recreational activities must be structured to make reading enjoyable. As such, "periods devoted to developing the reading habit should be presented as respites from the rigors of the regular day, as relaxation, and as an activity which has inherent value for the individuals."² Duffy also says children should never think of recreational reading as "work," nor should they ever be put in the position of reading a book simply to complete report assignments.³

Duffy states that the most basic activities for developing the reading habit are oral reading by the teacher, recreational reading by pupils, and frequent sharing. There should be daily oral reading of children's literature by the teacher.

Such reading, especially when it emphasizes highly recommended books, is probably more effective than any other single technique in building a love of literature and in starting children toward the reading habit. In addition, casual, non-intimidating discussions of the author, plot, theme, setting, and style following such daily reading goes far to stimulate interests and tastes.⁴

Root places much stress on reading aloud to children. It is vitally important and teachers should prepare themselves as carefully for the daily reading session as they do for the daily mathematics period. Children must become so interested in literature that they will,

²Ibid.
³Ibid.
⁴Ibid.
as adults, habitually turn to books for recreation and "re-creation." Reading aloud, from the right selections, offers children a chance to hear and understand the nuances of literary style that are often basic to getting the full esthetic impact of the work. Children may need to receive the author's word-sounds in their ears before they can savor the full significance of his story. They must listen for the primordial pulsations that underscore and reinforce the mood and setting of the story. Poetry will never be fully appreciated, nor will the children be able to read it with enjoyment themselves until they have heard much of it read aloud.¹

The reading ability of middle graders frequently lags behind their appreciation level and vocabulary.

Teachers can fill this gap as they read stories that stretch minds, extend interests, and make pupils aware of the good things that literature offers. Enthusiasm is contagious; therefore, the teacher must be a good oral reader! Only when a teacher demonstrates day in and day out his own belief in reading as an enjoyable and useful pursuit can he expect to help each individual build lifetime reading habits.²

A Storyteller's Club that reads orally or tells a story to the smaller children is an activity boys enjoy as much as girls. The obvious pleasure of the younger children is very rewarding to the older readers. They also like to read stories over the intercom system as "radio programs" for other grades or for other reading groups in their classroom.³

¹Ibid.
²H. Alan Robinson, Reading: Seventy-Five Years of Progress, p. 111.
³Ibid., p. 113.
Many contemporary authors are convinced that all skills tend to lead to motivation, some to a greater degree than others. While a child's interest in a book is a powerful motivational factor, interest alone does not make it possible for a child to read difficult books. Consequently, special care must be taken to guide each child to books he can read independently, as well as to books suited to his interests and maturity.

Duffy affirms "a close relationship between the developmental reading program and efforts to develop the reading habit, with the ultimate success of the latter resting, to a large degree, on the extent to which each child achieves independence in reading".\(^1\) The developmental reading program must, therefore, be highly effective to lead to establishment of the reading habit. Teachers should utilize the diagnostic information they have collected concerning each child's reading ability, his social, emotional, and intellectual maturity.

There is little, if anything, that the classroom teacher can do about innate mental ability, but there is much he can do toward helping the child be a better reader. Barbe stresses the need for a variety of methods in teaching, rather than adopting any one method. He encourages the interchange of ideas among teachers, and personalized reading instruction built on the concepts developed by Olson of "seeking, pacing, and self-selection".\(^2\)

Karlin has taken the position that knowledge of the learner and the learning process adequately translated into teaching strategies is

---

\(^1\)Duffy, "Developing the Reading Habit," p. 255.

more likely to promote motivation in reading than any plan which may be adopted.\(^1\)

In Slobodian's message to teachers she said they must addict students to books. Books must be "pushed" as the television commercial "pushes" its product. To make students unable to resist reaching out to take a book, several things are needed:

1. Many books must be on hand. (Availability)

2. Someone must sell the books to the would-be buyer. (Buyability)

3. The buyer must be able to use the books. (Consumability)\(^2\)

Teachers need to provide the materials that can compete with all the excitement in the modern world. A book becomes alive when it is in the hands of an interested reader. The teacher is the person who must assure the consumability of the material he makes available and for which he creates a desire.\(^3\)

**Social factors in motivation.**—Much of the child's motivation comes from the other children with whom he works. The teacher must decide when to use group work and when to use individual study, and how to set up the right kind of group for the most effective work. There are a number of different kinds of studies of social factors in motivation. The studies come not only from the psychologists; anthropologists and sociologists are vitally interested in the same problem.

---


\(^3\)Ibid.
Modern educational philosophy presents points of view closely interwoven with these areas.¹ Research findings have led to the following conclusions for teachers:

1. Use the classroom audience to increase the strength of motivation. Avoid over-motivation through use of the audience. Avoid using negative forms of motivation before an audience. Make sure the child understands and is prepared for the audience. Use the audience in life-like ways. Use the audience chiefly when speed is desired.

2. Use competition chiefly as self-competition against the child's own record. Avoid competition between individuals. Avoid over-motivation through competition. Make the competition easy enough that the child can succeed. Use competition chiefly where speed or over-learning is important.

3. Use cooperative group work often. Use group work chiefly with older children. Use cooperation for problem-solving and where quality of work is important. Form groups that are small and homogeneous, follow social attractions, and give children some chance to choose.

4. Plan carefully for the more capable learner in group situations. Use audience and competitive situations very little. Let him work with children of similar ability often. Respect his desire for individual work and self-direction.²

Since the time of Socrates, questions have been recognized as the indispensable tools of education. In the setting of the classroom, questions posed by teachers and children are foremost among the stimuli which trigger thinking and thus set the tone for motivation. Questions are utilized to arouse interest, to provide thought, to guide thinking, to stimulate creativity, to direct research, to assess background information, to review, to clarify, to relate detail, to draw conclusions and generalizations, to support findings, to probe beliefs and values, to diagnose pupil difficulties, to determine grades, and to measure

²Ibid., p. 118.
teacher effectiveness. ¹

Questioning strategies.—There still remains the issue of whether the potential of the art of questioning has been fully develop-
ed. Research in questioning techniques indicates that the predominant type of teachers' questions is factual recall. ² In view of findings which show an imbalance in favor of the reproduction-type question, Crump has recommendations for teachers to improve their questioning strategies.

1. Teachers should be acquainted with a means of classifying questions, by either levels or functions, to ensure that higher cognitive powers are tapped through oral and written questioning procedures.

2. Varied means of developing and encouraging effective ques-
tioning practices among teachers should be communicated in the con-
text of question-answer responses on audio tapes, video tapes, and films and through demonstrations, micro-teaching, and actual class-
room experience. A study of suggested questions in teachers' man-
uals also provides a basis for instruction.

3. Since questions are a key tool utilized by teachers in most aspects of the curriculum, instruction in questioning should cut across all subject matter areas.

4. Variety is the spice of good questioning techniques. Teach-
ers should be instructed to search for a balance of factual and "give-it-back" questions with thought-provoking reasoning questions, as well as snappy rapid-fire questions interspersed with those that elicit sustained responses.

5. Teachers should learn to be comfortable with "reflection" silence, that is, throw out the question, pause, and call for re-
sponses after several volunteer.

6. Teachers should develop a proficiency in utilizing "cross-
fire" discussion techniques by referring questions and answers to others: "What do you think?" "Why do you think so?" "How would you have answered that?" "How can you prove that?" "What is your


²Ibid.
necessary and sufficient to a formal learning environment. These men promulgate contingency contracting as a successful approach to the problem. The teacher is motivation manager, and his role can be summarized in Homme's ten basic rules of contingency contracting. The first five refer to use of the reward in contracting, while the last five describe characteristics of proper contracting that the teacher should employ.

Rule 1: Reward immediately.
Rule 2: Reward small approximations.
Rule 3: Reward frequently with small reinforcers.
Rule 4: Reward accomplishment rather than obedience.
Rule 5: Reward the performance after it occurs, not before.
Rule 6: Be fair.
Rule 7: Be clear.
Rule 8: Be honest.
Rule 9: Be positive.
Rule 10: Use contracting systematically.¹

Generally, children in a contingency-managed environment do not display the timid or aggressive behaviors of children performing under duress and coercion, nor do they exhibit the demanding and spoiled characteristics of those who are used to receiving unearned benefits. There is a joy and delight in the activities of children who have a feeling of willing and conscious accomplishment and well-deserved rewards.²

There are many kinds of reinforcers.

Generally, reinforcers are things the individual does or likes to do. Other reinforcers involve things that happen to the individual. The phrase, reinforcing event, is broad enough to include all the possibilities. It must be clearly understood, however, that only the student can say what event is reinforcing to him at a given time; and his choice tomorrow may not be the same as today's.³


²Ibid., pp. 31-33.

³Ibid., p. 33.
Once contracting has been established as a motivation-management procedure, it should be maintained, and care should be taken not to reward undesirable acts.

Unwanted behavior can be eliminated by never reinforcing it or by reinforcing behavior which is incompatible with the undesirable behavior (e.g., a student who constantly leaves his seat to sharpen pencils can be highly reinforced for using ball-point pens). Again, punishment can and does work, but it frequently causes bizarre and unwanted side effects; undesirable traits often reappear soon after punishment is removed. When punishment operates as a successful motivator, it operates by the same rules as positive rewards, consistently applied. Since each is difficult to use well, and reinforcement has other socially-desirable consequences, reinforcement is highly preferable to punishment.1

Summary

This section has dealt with teachers as motivators. It has considered the areas of teacher effectiveness, the influence of motivation, the utilization of pupil interests, the social factors involved in pupil motivation, questioning strategies, and contracting, an approach that motivates. Teachers can only arrange the conditions which, in the light of their knowledge and experience, are likely to produce reactions of a given nature in the learner. They set the stage and supply the property; the child is the actor in the learning process.

Materials as Motivators

The startling thought that teachers, supervisors, or professors could possibly be replaced by packages is not without some foundation in fact. Instances have been reported of school systems that have contracted with commercial firms to teach reading and other subjects by means of instructional technology under a money-back guarantee to pro-

1Ibid., p. 35.
duce results. Unruh states it is probably safe to predict that learning packages or instructional packages will become more educationally sophisticated and widely used as expertness develops. He advises educators to examine the package concept critically and objectively and continue to learn more about it. 1

Negative connotations accompany the earlier and obsolete forms of packaged education. A conventional package once included a basic text and teachers' manual which seemed to assume that all children of a given age throughout the school, the district, the state, or across the nation were homogeneous in terms of social or economic status, with little diversity in ethnic and experiential background. If a child did not succeed when offered a uniform presentation, he failed and was expected to repeat the same package.

Varying degrees of advancement in the preparation of textbook-based packages produced by publishing corporations are presently in evidence. Some include basic curriculum outlines, texts, diverse materials, and applications of media for use with varying types of machines and electronic equipment and accompanied by in-service information and activities. Other packages seem to be textbooks cut up into worksheets and accompanied by film material assembled in brightly-colored boxes. Others are more aptly designated as "kits" with a fascinating variety of items which may remind us of a bundle of remnants purchased from a mail-order house, containing a bargain-priced collection but seldom including materials we really need.

Another example of a superficial interpretation of an instructional package is the type of assignment that utilizes a "guide-sheet" or "unit" which is distributed to all students in a class and contains several pages of things to do and questions to answer, designed to keep students busy scurrying around the library and digging through textbooks to find the answers. This type of assignment could just as well be done as a correspondence course administered at a geographical distance to any student who can read or listen to instructions on tape.2

The instructional systems package should make it possible for educators to devote much more energy toward the development of whole human beings by supporting individual students' efforts and by devising


2 Ibid., p. 764.
the most positive learning conditions for each one. The well-designed teaching-learning packages are built as instructional systems and are characterized by several distinguishing features. Unruh characterizes them as follows:

1. The emphasis is on individualization in the emerging concept of teaching-learning packages. Pretests or means of assessment may be used to determine what the student already knows and placement can be arranged for him into personally tailored instructional processes and content. Options are offered to accommodate for differences in learning rates, past achievement, interests, motivation, and other diversities. All students are not expected to complete all of the procedures as in older programs.

2. Instructional systems packages are based on broad concepts organized into manageable coordinated modules. The total package is comprehensive and frequently encompasses basic substance and a wide range of materials of a defined area of study as opposed to the type of package intended as supplementary materials to accompany a textbook or previously entrenched course of study.

3. Clearly stated instructional objectives convey to the student the quality of performance expected of him.

4. Multimedia learning materials of varying types are included to provide a choice of vehicles for learning for various steps in the process. The package recognizes that people learn in different ways and that a variety of media may provide more effective learning.

5. The package not only provides diversified materials, but also provides for diversified learning activities, particularly student-student interaction and teacher-student interaction. The range of activities may include large group and small group instruction, field trips, model building, role playing, simulation, laboratory experimentation, independent study, and others. The package has built-in self-evaluation processes designed to provide continuing feedback to assist the student in determining his progress toward achievement of the instructional objectives.

6. The role of the teacher-instructor is significantly changed. His function as a dispenser of information is considerably reduced as the student moves into a more active role in the learning process. Teachers become diagnosticians of learning and find themselves developing professional competence in helping each individual learner find success. Teachers have more time for effective instructional planning to solve learning problems and to provide
enrichment for individual students.\textsuperscript{1}

As we examine the package, we might keep in mind further questions such as these:

Will it motivate individual learning? Is the student an active participant in the process, doing much more than just listening and reading? Does the package provide for self-direction, self-teaching on the part of the student? Does it stimulate investigation, search, and quest; does it lead him into new frontiers? Does it lead him out of the package into real life? Does it help to release the human spirit; help find what man must be as well as what he must do?\textsuperscript{2}

It becomes extremely important for educators to be aware of the distinguishing characteristics of well-designed packages and to become more discriminating as curriculum decisions are made. "If we as educators can draw skillfully upon packages to reach toward the ideals expressed here, if we can see our changing roles in a new light, then we cannot be replaced by a package and an aide and we will deserve the professional status accorded to teachers, curriculum workers, and professors."\textsuperscript{3}

Educational provisions must ultimately be for the individual child. It is not sufficient to know what is best for the group. DeChant emphasizes that the inadequacy of instructional materials is almost as serious as inadequacy in instruction. The classroom must be equipped with a variety of books and materials.\textsuperscript{4} In addition to the publishers of children's materials, the teacher should also know of the leading encyclopedias, dictionaries, maps and atlases. These should

\textsuperscript{1}Ibid., p. 765.
\textsuperscript{2}Ibid.
\textsuperscript{3}Ibid., p. 766.
\textsuperscript{4}DeChant, Improving the Teaching of Reading, p. 101.
be readily available within the classroom.¹

Bush affirms that few classrooms have the range of materials for reading that will continuously challenge and provide enjoyment for every child annually passing through its portals.

The teacher starts the year with a range of reading materials and adds to them as he goes along, studying the children and their needs, studying his various sources of information about the materials available, using the library and audio-visual sources, and building his own resources. The cumulative supply should include appropriate books, magazines, short stories, informative articles, pictures, puzzles, games, poems, songs, and audio-visual equipment and supplies. The variety of material would thus pique each child's curiosity and challenge his abilities and interests. If there are children from the lower socioeconomic classes, he will get ideas from reading the literature in professional journals.²

Bush also states that teachers should be as militant concerning teaching materials as they are about salaries. "Value judgements should be made only after careful consideration of the material, preferably by a committee of administrators and teachers, rather than a single individual."³

Teachers are interested in the theoretical questions undergirding reading instruction. Their most pressing concerns often revolve around such problems as how to help the slow-learning child, how to provide challenges for the gifted, and what kinds of instructional materials to select. The development of interests is a lure and a ladder activity. The pupil must be lured to new interests through the ladder of suitable materials. The teacher must introduce the pupil to

¹Barbe, Educator's Guide to Personalized Reading Instruction, p. 119.
²Bush, Strategies for Reading in the Elementary School, p. 197.
³Ibid., p. 357.
the appropriate reading materials in a way that motivates the student to action. Strang says:

Materials for developing basic reading skills must be of genuine interest to the pupils. The story or the information itself should pull even the reluctant reader along with it; he should be eager to find out what happens next or the answers to specific questions or problems. Being of immediate interest to pupils, the content can be interpreted by them in the light of their previous experiences. Much of the reading material should have the characteristics of children's classics—genuine emotion, true-to-life characters and plots, a fine style which is actually easier to read than a stilted, poorly simplified style.1

The Bureau of Curriculum Development of New York has published general considerations to be kept in mind in using various types of materials.

1. Material selected should be new to the pupils. Nothing discourages pupil interest more than the use of texts which have been thoroughly worked over. The teacher checks on material previously used by the pupil to avoid this repetition by consulting record cards, previous teacher, supervisor, or a buddy teacher.

2. No one set of materials constitutes the total reading experiences of pupils. In addition to the basic instructional material, the teacher develops or reinforces reading skills through:
   - Duplicated materials prepared by the teacher or school
   - Newspaper and magazines—adult, school-type, school prepared
   - Texts in the content areas; reports; summaries
   - Maps, globes, charts, diagrams; programs, schedules
   - Films, filmstrips; records, tape recordings
   - Paperbacks—fiction and nonfiction; bookclub publications

3. Instructional material should be matched to the pupil's functional reading level, not the grade level of the class.

4. Materials should be varied and represent a balance in types. Pupil interest as well as literary merit are considerations in selecting and using materials. Present interests should be met and extended; new interests stimulated, for example, in biography, mythology, language.

5. Materials should be selected and used to promote enjoyment.

appreciation, and the habit of reading as well as growth in reading power.

6. Materials, such as newspapers, maps, directories, printed directions, should be used functionally to establish reading as a "real world" asset.

7. Pupils vary in their reaction to materials. If particular pupils show lack of interest in or dislike for the reading period, the material as well as the techniques should be reevaluated. The greater the variety of materials, the wider is the interest range that can be covered.¹

Smith and DeChant express their concern about reading materials by stating that if teachers are to expect children to maintain an interest in reading, they must be concerned with the literature children are required to read.² Norvell has supplied research findings in this area. After a twelve-year study of children's interests, he suggested that three-fourths of the reading selections used in the schools should be replaced with equal-quality selections that are endorsed by children.³

Heilman quotes Manning's study, giving the following data. Basal reader materials are less motivating and satisfying to boys than to girls.

The rationale behind this hypothesis is that the rather sterile, repetitious "look, oh, look; see baby play" vocabulary and the rigid conformist mood, tone, and atmosphere contained in and conveyed by the pre-primers, primers, and early readers are considerably less challenging to boys than to girls. It is often alleged that the "content" is a far cry from what the culture has taught to and expects from boys. Therefore, beginning reading, which should be an exciting, challenging new adventure, is actually a dull, regressive sort of experience unless the teacher can project a great deal

¹Bureau of Curriculum Development, pp. 16-17.

²Smith and DeChant, Psychology in Teaching Reading, p. 275.

³George W. Norvell, "Some Results of a Twelve-Year Study of Children's Reading Interests," English Journal, XXXV (December, 1946), pp. 530-531.
into the material.\textsuperscript{1}
The child retains this attitude as he advances in grades. Manning's study of a basal program supplemented by other approaches resulted in significantly higher achievement on the part of both boys and girls.\textsuperscript{2}

The instructional process, according to Ruark, is the heart of education and the glow of instructional materials mediating that process is its "lifeblood." "If teachers are to be effective, they must have at their command not only more materials but better materials. If these materials are readily accessible, the teacher can spend more time in diagnosing difficulties, prescribing solutions, and guiding the learner."\textsuperscript{3}

A knowledge of book lists is an aid for acquiring beneficial materials. The most widely accepted book list is that of the American Library Association. This Association has prepared four lists of approved books; three are pertinent here:

1. American Library Association Book List
2. American Library Association Basic Book Collection for Elementary Grades
3. American Library Association Basic Book Collection for Junior High Schools

The Horn Book Magazine is published bi-monthly. This magazine contains reviews of outstanding children's books and articles of an almost lit-

\begin{itemize}
\item[\textsuperscript{1}] Heilman, \textit{Principles and Practice of Teaching Reading}, p. 411.
\item[\textsuperscript{2}] Ibid.
\end{itemize}
erary quality dealing with books and reading for children.¹

Nason believes that one medium cannot be isolated from other media. "Educational television, films, filmstrips, overhead projectors, videotapes, recorders, tape recordings, tachistoscopes, and the traditional classroom procedures all must be brought to bear in one coordinated effort if the child is to develop into a good reader without unnecessary conflict and frustration."²

Reading disability, according to DeChant, is also related to numerous other factors that one might group under the general heading of institutional variables. These correlate with the effective use of materials.

The school environment is an important determinant of learning. Is the school achievement-oriented? Is the school environment unnatural? Children by nature have a need to behave aggressively, but in school may be confined almost completely to their chairs.

The books say, 'Run, run, run,' but the child must sit, sit, sit. Children by nature have a need to be active, but the emphasis in school may be to require them to be passive listeners. The type of control exercised in the classroom, the nature of the instructional materials, the library facilities, the expectations that the administration and staff have of the pupil, teacher shortages, grading practices, grouping practices, type of classroom organization, the types of measurement and evaluation, and the size of the instructional unit have a direct bearing on the rate of reading disability in a given school. It is obvious that the child must normally have reached a more advanced developmental stage to succeed in reading in a class of 36 pupils than in a class of 12 or 13 pupils. Frymier found that first graders in small classes achieved at a significantly higher level than pupils in larger classes. A class of 36 or more was considered a "large" class; one of fewer than 30 was a "small" class.³

¹Barbe, Educator's Guide to Personalized Reading Instruction, p. 120.


³DeChant, Improving the Teaching of Reading, p. 104.
Karlin cites a study by Elder who conducted an investigation among children in grades two through six to determine to what extent they could tolerate materials. Elder found that they could manage those in which they knew 88 to 99 per cent of the words. Karlin quotes Killgallon, who did an earlier study, and found that children who knew about 95 per cent of the words could use such materials for instructional purposes. "Informal reading tests rather than standardized should be used to locate placement." ¹

A school library is not a panacea for all the problems facing those who develop curricula, but it has the resources to provide many solutions if its use is properly structured into the curriculum. Library skills must be learned well so students will have the independence to work with efficiency and enjoyment. ² Never before have we been confronted with such a need to know so much so quickly, to communicate so clearly and thoroughly, and to be able to interpret so accurately. This indicates that the library must be at the very core and heart of every reading program.

--a well-selected, well-stocked library administered by librarians who understand the purposes and processes of teaching and learning reading, who understand the elements necessary to success in the undertaking, and who are able to work with classroom teachers, guidance counselors (all other teachers, in fact) and with boys and girls to make books and reading truly "realms of gold" for them. Books Are For Reading. If our boys and girls continue to read at all when they leave us, they will read books, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets—not machines and not just textbooks. ³

¹Karlin, "Research Results and Classroom Practice," p. 218.


One of the most common interest-getters is the display of book jackets. This must be supervised carefully because the display should be simple, short-lived, and attention-getting.

To be effective, some use should be made of the display rather than simply having it blend with the background. In the middle and upper grades, an illustrated talk by the child on a travel book is rewarding where he has gathered pictures, maps, (and realia) to share with his classmates. Some teachers have found that having the child make a paper cover for a book, and then listing the names on the cover of those who have read the book, make the reading of that book a challenge to other children. Occasionally such extrinsic motivation is justified, although it is not recommended for general practice.¹

Toothaker considers biography the most universally pleasant and profitable of all reading. He describes a procedure, called 5P/RA, which is designed to enhance the teaching and study of biographical writings. This procedure has been used effectively to improve the understanding, appreciation, and utilization of biographical information in reading improvement classes, in history, and other social science classes, in literature classes, in personal reading programs, and in composition classes. It has proved particularly successful as a guide in the reading and writing of book reviews of biographies. The 5P/RA Procedure consists of seven steps, each containing several suggested questions to guide comprehension. The five P's are: Purpose, Person, Picture, Performance, and Presentation; the R is Reaction; the A is Application.²

PURPOSE: Identifying the author's purpose; reading intensively for exact meaning; relating the author and his work; considering the author's viewpoint; recognizing main ideas.

¹Bush, Strategies for Reading in the Elementary School, p. 195.

PERSON: Considering traits, personalities, inner drives, and viewpoints of subjects; perceiving relationships of characters; identifying and reacting to emotions.

PICTURE: Noting chronological sequence of events; considering significance of cause and effect, time, and place relationships; visualizing the story setting through background details; considering conflict; people and events as antagonists.

PERFORMANCE: Recognizing names, teachings, legacies, accomplishments of the subjects; placing a subject to a proper place of respect.

PRESENTATION: Appreciating and understanding elements of style; considering mood and tone; appreciating vivid descriptive language; noting the author's methods of adaptation, organization, and utilization of source materials and ideas; appreciating sensory imagery; considering fictional elements in true literature.

REACTION: Considering abstract ideas; evaluating conclusions that have been drawn; making judgments on the basis of material read; determining validity of an inference; discriminating between fact and fiction; making inferences and judgments; evaluating evidence.

APPLICATION: Identifying one's self with a subject; deriving inspiration and enjoyment from a selection; looking objectively at one's self; relating literature to one's own personal life; using ideas acquired through reading; developing insight about problems and people, about the world and the times.¹

The selections should help readers gain a keener insight into the strengths and weaknesses of human nature and should aid them in understanding what it is that makes people truly great. Biographies are potential doorways that may lead to a fuller appreciation of different culture, outlook, and way of life.

No one will dispute the excellence of many commercial workbooks, guided or prepared by leading authorities on reading. However, students do become workbook-weary, workbook-wise, or workbook-resistant. The newspaper can be a fresh approach to strengthen skills needed in reading. Extracting the main idea can readily be taught in the lead of a story or the capsulized headlines. When a news writer has satisfied his hurried readers, he proceeds to unfold additional bits of informa-

¹Ibid., p. 15.
tion in an orderly fashion, telling facts in the order of diminishing importance, the last paragraph being the least important. Here the student can sharpen his ability to select supporting details. Sports enthusiasts will need no urging to use that section of the newspaper for skill-building. Following directions are "how to" stories which are abundant in the daily newspaper, especially the Sunday editions. Many of these will appeal to girls concerned with style. This is everyday living for them and supplies motivation to study directions and remember. The "how to" stories for boys are usually in the form of "tips," ranging from fishing for bass in hot water, to improving a kegler's stance, to souping up a hotrod. Specialized areas of writing in a newspaper are excellent training grounds for sharpening students' ability to question. Recognizing the difference between facts and opinions, judging validity and adequacy of information, and selecting reliable sources are highly skilled abilities. Techniques used by editorial writers and by-lined columnists are the same techniques as used by many persons trying to mold the opinion of others, whether it be in behalf of a presidential candidate, pollution, or space exploration.¹ Using the newspaper can be a means of furthering reference skills.

Such assignments as these will make a student's use of the library facilities more meaningful:

1. Find a story in the paper that will fit into each category of the Dewey decimal system and so mark it.

2. How did these words come into usage: Olympics, tankmen, gridiron, anglers, journeymen, keglers?

3. Viet Nam is predicted to be an election issue. Jane, will

¹Dorothy Shea Piercey, "Using the Newspaper to Develop Reading Skills," Reading Improvement, II (Fall, 1964), pp. 3-6.
you report on its location and physical properties? Bill, its educational system? Dorothy, what is its major industry? Sandy, how are the Vietnamese governed? Valerie, what is the language? Perhaps you would work as a committee with Bill serving as the chairman.

4. Jolene, we were discussing the views of Ralph McGill, the columnist. Will you fill us in on his background tomorrow?

Teachers of reading have better use for yesterday's newspaper than lining the wastebasket or protecting desks from spilled paint. "The old riddle of 'black and white and read all over' takes on new meaning for the reading teacher who will press the daily newspaper into service in her classroom."2

One study of newspaper reading of 564 pupils of grades four, five, and six seems to have found rather typical interests in this medium at the middle grade level. Bush quotes Johnson:

Johnson through a questionnaire, found that 70 per cent of the children read the newspaper irregularly, 24 per cent read it regularly, and 6 per cent did not read it at all. The percentage of readers increased from grade to grade. Preference for parts of the paper showed in order: funnies, first-page news, sports, and television. They knew what the other parts of the paper were, though they did not read them. Seventy-five per cent indicated that newspaper reading was a help in school subjects—reading, current events, and social studies.3

The writer wishes to use Figurel's quote of Ausubel to summarize and stress the significance of materials to stimulate and motivate.

Doing without being interested in what one is doing results in relatively little permanent learning, since it is reasonable to suppose that only those materials can be meaningfully incorporated on a long-term basis into an individual's structure of knowledge that are relevant to areas of concern in his psychological field.

1Ibid., p. 6.

2Ibid.

3Bush, Strategies for Reading in the Elementary School, p. 205.
Learners who have little need to know and understand, quite naturally expend little learning effort; manifest an insufficiently meaningful learning set; fail to develop precise meanings, to reconcile new ideas with existing concepts, and to formulate new propositions in their own words; and do not devote enough time to practice and review. Material is therefore never sufficiently consolidated to form an adequate foundation for sequential learning.²

CHAPTER III

PSYCHOLOGY OF THE UPPER ELEMENTARY CHILD

The school's responsibilities continue to grow each year as there are wide swings in the intensity of emphasis on different areas of learning. However, the improvement of reading ability consistently remains one of the chief goals. Good teachers strive to improve their methods, materials, and organizational procedures so that each child will develop to a point where he can and will read at the level of his individual capacity.

It was the writer's purpose to report on the most recent thinking on motivation for parents and teachers. The writer also has a word of caution. No instructional innovation in reading should be blindly adopted merely because it is classified as "new." It would be unfair to the children we teach to change just for the sake of change. New knowledge should lead to improvements in reading instruction, but, as Durr reports, the words "change" and "improvement" are not synonyms. He states that we should search for and examine innovations, but the only question that can be professionally sound is, "What is the best in reading instruction?" In seeking an answer to this question, we must analyze the tried as well as the new, then modify, reject, or adapt according to our judg-
ment of what is best.¹

Whether children be educationally, culturally, or emotionally deprived, they provide a real challenge in motivation for the teacher. The effort to instill and extend their reading interests is adversely affected by their higher incidences of lack of love, frequent failure, boredom, illness, sleepiness, hunger, pressures on them personally, feelings of being different, lack of energy, rebelliousness, hyperactivity, withdrawing tendencies, aggressiveness, and problems at home. Since reading does require concentration and effort, it may be the last activity they would choose. Each child has his own problems and he may be expending his energy just trying to cope with his problems and environment.²

The teacher must accept each child with his own particular culture, environment, and language. After accomplishing this, he can provide the child with the appropriate type and level of materials. Then he can use approaches and procedures of methodology that appeal to the child and gradually raise his level of aspiration.

Durr infers that the pupil's level of achievement at any given time and the progress he makes in learning to read during his school days are dependent upon a number of different factors. The writer was aware that the topic under study can be briefly summarized in four of these factors. They are:

(1) the motivation and the intellectual equipment the pupil brings to his task of learning to read; (2) the quality of the in-

²Bush, Strategies for Reading in the Elementary School, p. 196.
structional materials used; (3) the teacher's understanding of what instruction in reading is, the extent to which he uses effective materials and methods as they are intended to be used, his awareness of just what he is trying to do by means of any piece of teaching he undertakes, his acquaintance with the pupil's weaknesses, strengths, and potential growth, and his attention to individual differences among pupils; and (4) the standards of achievement set by the teacher.¹

Emphasis should be placed on the fourth factor since it doesn't receive the concern it should as an important point in motivation. Boys and girls have a strong tendency to be fully satisfied with meeting whatever standards of achievement the teacher sets. If standards are vague and low, it is idle to expect pupils to learn as much as they could under more stimulating conditions or to achieve as much as their present ability permits. When the standards are clear-cut and actually challenge the pupils, both the quality and quantity of learning is likely to be much greater than what is considered satisfactory.²

Grades five and six are referred to as times of real formative periods, marked by characteristics of individualism, a growing independence, and self-assertion. It is likewise the time when the fundamentals of team work and cooperation are learned, and has been described as the period of "competitive socialization." This is the period of the culmination of all of the stages of childhood. Characteristics previously attained function during this period as truly influential life factors. Strong language interests and wide reading activities lead to expansion of vocabulary so that a child may be expected to have attained a recognition vocabulary of between forty-five and fifty thousand words. Or-

¹Durr, Reading Instruction, p. viii.
²Ibid.
ordinarily he is curious and eager to learn, with the result that he makes tremendous gains in the acquisition of knowledge.\textsuperscript{1}

Moreover, abilities in the areas of generalization, reasoning, and volitional capacity are developing rapidly. The eleventh year usually marks the turning point in the ability to do logical thinking. This is a time for accumulating a great deal of factual information, and for applying the problem-solving approach to increasingly complex situations. The child displays a deeper insight into social situations with a consequent expansion of interests in history, geography, and science. Intellectually he is ready for more complex curricula.\textsuperscript{2}

The time during which the process of growing up takes place is often considered the "teen years." The early stages of adolescence includes the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth years. The child is growing out of childhood and is in the process of completing his physical, mental, social, emotional, and moral preparation for maturity. During this time of transition, new thoughts, new interests, new experiences, and new strengths become evident.\textsuperscript{3}

The adolescent becomes self-conscious, social conscious, and sex conscious. It is also during this time that the vigor and energy, the enthusiasm and self-assertiveness, the devotion and the daring which are so characteristic of youth manifest themselves in thought, word, and action.

It is during this period that ideals become set, that character is determined, that future success or failure is almost invariably decided. The realization of this has led to a universal recognition of the fact that at no other time in life is there greater need for providing thoughtful counsel, understanding guidance, and prudent


\textsuperscript{2}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 109.

\textsuperscript{3}\textit{Ibid.}
direction in order that a youth may achieve that self-control and self-sufficiency which will enable him to adjust to that world; which will aid him in performing the tasks necessary both to live his life and also to make his living.¹

Intellectual development during adolescence is evidenced in the learning process through better organization, arrangement, analysis, and classification of knowledge. Since learning ability is potentially as great as it will be in adult years, adolescence is probably the optimum period for learning. Accordingly, the adolescent may profitably be subjected to learning experiences which are greater in amount, increasingly difficult in type, and challenging to his capacities. He may be expected to exercise initiative in thinking in an orderly, discriminative, systematic fashion; to be critical and to some extent original in his thinking, as well as to be able to express and to communicate thoughts adequately and well.²

Boys and girls differ in their rate of growth. This is particularly true in late childhood when girls mature more rapidly than boys. This difference in growth greatly influences school achievement and adjustment. As a group, girls are more successful in all of the usual areas of school learning. They have fewer reading problems than boys. Their social adjustment tends to be more rapid, making them easier to control in school situations. By the later elementary grades, girls may be biologically ahead of boys the same age by as much as two to four years. It is natural that their school achievement and social adjustment should be generally advanced over those of boys in the same

¹Ibid., p. 116.
²Ibid., pp. 127-128.
school grade.¹

Care must be taken to avoid using girls as example for performance or behavior in such a way that the boys as a group are deprecated. This can contribute to unwholesome attitudes that may carry through life. It is possible that some girls will adopt a superior attitude toward the male sex and that some boys will come to feel inferior and resentful as the result of such handling. Likewise, when individuals are singled out for praise, care must be taken to praise the person as an individual rather than as a boy or as a girl. Since women make up the bulk of elementary-school faculties, the boy may feel he lives in a feminine world, and he may strike out against it with aggressive or rebellious activity.²

Muscles and bones are developing rapidly during this period. The child's strength almost doubles although his growth in size is slower. Large muscles need to be flexed and stretched. He becomes restless if he is required to sit still for long periods of time. He would like to do as he is expected to do, but his body demands activity. Motor release once a week during the gym period is not sufficient to discharge energy. A school program paced to offset quiet periods with periods of activity is necessary.³

Failure to achieve skills brings indifference or disdain from age-mates. Success here is more important to a boy than to a girl.

²Ibid.
³Ibid., p. 105.
The awkward child can be helped by being grouped with schoolmates of similar physical prowess so he can learn at his own rate. The child finds real satisfaction in his growing bodily control, for control enhances his sense of adequacy.¹

His perceptual powers, motor skills, and sensory organs have developed to the point where he is ready to absorb facts, put them together in his mind, and gain insights.

Much of the child's learning comes from his activities, as he builds and collects, as he asks his numerous questions, as he observes the world about him, he learns to interpret and use his natural and social environment. His learning can be rich and varied if his environment affords contact with many natural and social processes, and if adults in his orbit are sympathetic and helpful.²

Children of the later elementary grades can get the most out of school instruction if it is related to the things he knows, the things he does, and the things he is interested in. Unless these relationships are brought out, instruction may have little meaning for him.

If school experience is too formal or is not related to the child's outside world, it becomes isolated experience, giving no meaning to his out-of-school behavior. A youngster of this age can be as resistant to learning material in which he finds no real interest as can a child of any age, and what he learns may be quickly forgotten if it has no meaning or obvious use to him.³

To break away from adult dominance becomes more and more imperative as the child reaches the upper elementary grades. He seeks to fill this need through the gang as a natural and inevitable part of growing up. There are common basic characteristics of gang activity at this level.

¹Ibid.
²Ibid., p. 107.
³Ibid.
Members are usually of one sex. The gang is exclusive in membership. There is always an "in" group and an "out" group. There is rivalry with other gangs. Each gang hopes to be secret or to have secrets not divulged to other gangs and certainly never to adults. Whenever possible, each gang has its "secret" meeting place. Membership tends to be unstable, however. Members may be expelled and new ones added, although a fairly common core of membership may be maintained.\footnote{Ibid., pp. 110-111.}

The movement into the gang and away from home is filled with anxiety for the child. Allegiance to parents, shared by the teachers, is in some sense replaced by allegiance to the gang leader. Adult authority is rejected both in the home and in the school. The child questions policies and decisions, and judges them in terms of the values of the gang. Adult supervision is difficult because any intrusion on the secret character of the organization is strongly resented. Yet adults cannot afford to abdicate their responsibilities altogether. If they can set reasonable limits and give the child freedom to carry on his natural activities within those limits, both they and the child will feel more secure.\footnote{Ibid., p. 112.} "The child expresses a growing need for independence from adults through his desire to explore the unknown, to take chances, and to prove himself to the gang."\footnote{Ibid.}

In general, children at this level progress steadily ahead to increasing maturity. Those most apt to regress feel insecure or are placed under conditions of strain. They must be understood within their perspective of the situation. Teachers should not constantly confront them with learning tasks or other situations beyond their ability. To
ask more of a child than he can achieve creates frustration. Both parents and teachers should remember that continued and severe frustration of any kind inevitably brings one or both these human behaviors—aggression and regression.¹

The child who meets the requirements of this period reasonably well and who feels happy with his achievements will be rewarded with a feeling of self-adequacy. He knows he can stand on his own two feet with a degree of independence. He has a fair conscience structure, a set of values. And to have this feeling of self-adequacy is essential at this time for he must now start winding his way through adolescence.²

Fluctuations of mood and energy are characteristic of this period and are probably physical in origin, so it does little good to lecture about them. The teacher who plays down the lethargy of this age level and capitalizes on their bursts of energy will accomplish the most. Students like a teacher with a sense of humor, but this humor must never be turned upon them. They are extremely serious about themselves and want to be taken seriously. Fear of ridicule can shut them off completely.³

Summary

Extending reading interests is such an important objective in the upper elementary grades that proper motivation is essential. Children have refined and clarified their perceptual processes. They are eager, alert, intensely interested and keenly observant of details. Their insight may extend to considerable depths, but it is necessary

¹Ibid.
²Ibid., p. 113.
³Ibid.
for parents and teachers to stimulate, guide and nurture. Instructional innovation should take place only after careful examination and sound judgment. Children's personal problems as related to reading have been the subject of much investigation. Data are equally impressive in substantiating the claim that reading failure is a cause of emotional disturbance and the claim that emotional disturbance is a cause of reading disability. Proper standards should be set by teachers; low and vague standards do not stimulate and neither the quality nor quantity of work will be satisfactory.

Every reading experience should be a pleasant and satisfying one. Leave some purpose open for the child's pursuit as he reads the story. Teachers should offer praise for successes and express approval whenever possible. Recognition will increase self-esteem. Materials should be sufficiently easy to ensure some measure of success. Competitive pressures with other students may produce emotional maladjustment. If criticism is necessary it should be balanced with sympathy and understanding.

Differences in maturation may be one cause of differences in reading achievement between sexes. There are physiological, cultural, and interest differences in the two sexes which cause girls to be more inclined to the sedentary acceptance of reading. There is also a need for more reading material that appeals to the interests of boys. The only reliable plan is to recognize and deal with individual differences in all children regardless of sex.

Reading in an interest group is valuable as a learning situation due to the motivation involved. There are also occasions in which children may be grouped on the basis of social choice, these children being
permitted to work together who want to be together or who want to work with a certain leader. Teachers must loosen up their classroom organization. As skills develop, teachers will find increasing opportunities to create, reorganize, and disband groups according to individual capacities, needs, interests, and social choices. Materials and guidance when skillfully integrated by an enthusiastic teacher can tap dormant springs of interests and keep them flowing in ever widening streams of reading enjoyment and usefulness.
PROCEDURE

The purpose of this study was to review the recent literature dealing with the motivation of children in the upper elementary grades. The procedure used was a descriptive survey of recent literature dealing with the psychology of motivation and parents, teachers, and materials as means of motivating children.

FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY

Materials were found dealing specifically with motivation at the upper elementary level. However, articles dealing with motivation in general were used whenever applicable to this level. An effort was made to include works of outstanding authors in this field.

The writer feels that all the material gathered would make a contribution to the study of motivation.

Parents are to provide experiences that stimulate interest and provide meaningful background for reading. They must praise the child for his successes and give encouragement.

Teachers are to set the stage and supply the property; the child is the actor in the learning process. An interest in and a technical understanding of children as living and growing human beings is necessary. Teachers are to be well-informed, not only knowing the facts
they teach, but also the relation of those facts to the whole of human knowledge.

Materials for developing basic reading skills must be of genuine interest to the pupils. The story or the information itself should pull even the reluctant reader along; he should be eager to find out what happens next. Much of the reading material should have the characteristics of children's classics—genuine emotion, true-to-life characters and plots, a fine style which is actually easier to read than a stilted, poorly-simplified style.

Conclusions and Implications

The psychology of motivation and factors that motivate are an area still in need of research today. Of what value are all efforts to establish proficiency in the basic skills of reading if children do not make the fullest use of these skills to enrich their lives, both as children at present and as adults later on? In this age of mechanized living, literature is an exigency. The child must have an opportunity to obtain the wholesome recreation and aesthetic satisfaction that comes from exploring the fascinating world of stories and poems. He must have an opportunity to enjoy and interpret human experiences as portrayed by master writers.

It is hoped that the study of motivation will open other areas of investigation and that the research will enrich contemporary methods of teaching.
Books


**Articles and Periodicals**


Campion, Nardi Reeder. "Ask, Don't Tell." Reader's Digest, LXXXIX (August, 1966), 49.

Carter, Homer L. J. "What Are Teachers For?" Reading Horizons, VI-VII (1965-67), 5.


Duffy, Gerald G. "Developing the Reading Habit." The Reading Teacher, XXI (December, 1967), 253-256.

Estes, Thomas H. "Teaching Effective Study Reading." Reading Improvement, VIII (Spring, 1971), 11-12.


Nason, H. M. "Multimedia in Reading Instruction." The Reading Teacher, VIII (May, 1965), 654-659.
Norvell, George W. "Some Results of a Twelve-Year Study of Children's Reading Interests." English Journal, XXXV (December, 1946), 331-536.


Patterson, Oliver. "Emotional Responses in Reading Comprehension." Reading Improvement, IV (Winter, 1967), 31-32.

Piercey, Dorothy Shea. "Using the Newspaper to Develop Reading Skills." Reading Improvement, II (Fall, 1964), 3-6.


Slobodian, June. "Encouraging the Reluctant Reader." Reading Improvement, IV (Fall, 1966), 10-12.


Unruh, Glenys G. "Can I Be Replaced by a Package?" Educational Leadership, XXVI (May, 1970), 763-766.

Unpublished Materials
