

RELATIONSHIPS AMONG MOTIVATIONAL
ATTITUDES OF ELEMENTARY
TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

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Bachelor of Science

Oklahoma State University

Stillwater, Oklahoma

1972

Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
MASTER OF SCIENCE
May, 1978

Thesis
1978
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PREFACE

Educators have become increasingly concerned about the lack of academic motivation displayed by today's school students. However, information related to the process and production of student motivation is needed. This study was aimed at contributing such information.

This study explored attitudes of teachers and students in an attempt to discover relationships that might furnish information useful to motivating students to learn.

I am indebted to many persons who made this study possible. I am especially indebted to my family whose abundant support and encouragement helped me to continue working steadily.

For his unfaltering loyalty and moral support, I wish to thank my friend Mr. Thomas M. Moran, Jr. His confidence, reassurance and role as a sounding board contributed tremendously to the completion of this study.

Because he aided me in making the initial decision regarding my study topic and has offered unconditional assistance, I wish to thank Mr. James T. Tresner, II, my friend and former professor.

I would like to thank Mr. Jeff Feuquay of the Oklahoma State University Bureau of Tests and Measurements. His tolerant assistance was greatly appreciated.

Dr. Gladys Dronberger, of the Oklahoma State Board of Education; Dr. Larry Gill, of Burlington, Oklahoma, Public Schools; Dr. Michael W. Hurst, of the Boston University School of Medicine; Mr. Mitchell Walters and Mr. Robert Desdin, of Stillwater, Oklahoma; and Mrs. Helen Roark, Mrs. Frances Sells and Mrs. Terri Swan of Pawhuska, Oklahoma, Public School assisted greatly in data collection and analysis.

To all of these persons, I promise to refrain from use of the word thesis in our future conversations. I'm certain they would be delighted at this point if it were removed from the English vocabulary.

I wish to express my appreciation to my OSU advisory committee for their help and recommendations regarding this writing. The time and work contributed by Dr. Walter J. Ward was greatly appreciated. His expertise and eye for detail contributed tremendously to the quality of this study.

I would also like to thank the fifth and sixth grade teachers of the Pawhuska, Oklahoma, Elementary School for voluntarily participating in this study.

Thanks also go to Mrs. Roxene Lo, the author's typist, for her professional assistance with the preparation of this thesis.

Finally, I thank God for all things. It has been his will that I had the ability and endurance to complete this study. He has been a collaborator of the highest order.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the attitudes of Pawhuska, Oklahoma, elementary teachers and students to determine relationships which may better define the process of motivating students to learn.

Research indicates attitudes are the most valid indicators of human psychological motivation. This study examines teacher and student attitudes in an effort to learn more about student motivation or a student's desire to learn.

This study explores the attitudes of a sample of Pawhuska, Oklahoma, elementary teachers and students. The teachers and students were chosen from the fifth and sixth grades of the Pawhuska, Oklahoma, Elementary School. Selection of a study sample was based on several factors, but particularly the amount of time the teachers and students were together.

This study was not limited to an investigation of relationships between the attitudes of teachers and their students. An investigation of equal calibre was made between the students alone on two attitudinal variables.

Motivation Research

The currently increasing concern of educators regarding student apathy, low achievement scores, and inadequate abilities displayed by high school graduates has prompted a greater interest in motivating students to learn. Reporting in an editorial concerning declining SAT (Scholastic Aptitude Test) scores in the November/December, 1977 edition of Today's Education, John Ryor, president of the National Education Association, states:

The recent report of the College Entrance Examination Board [CEEB] on declining Scholastic Aptitude Test [SAT] scores among high school students has done an excellent job in highlighting some of the crushing problems facing students, parents, and teachers--all of whom have a high stake in the future of the nation's public schools. The National Education Association shares concern with CEEB over the seriousness of these problems. No one is more aware of them than teachers themselves.¹

Educators are presently seeking and applying new knowledge concerning positive student motivation, its characteristics, and its control. A recent 1977 copyrighted pamphlet produced by the National Education Association entitled Motivation in Teaching states:

Motivation, as we will treat it in this pamphlet, is a process. That is, it is a process that can (a) lead students into experiences in which learning can occur; (b) energize and activate students and keep them reasonably alert; (c) keep their attention focused in one direction at a time.²

Considerable research of student motivation has been produced, but applicable information remains vague. It remains debatable what increases most students' desire to learn

most of the time. The independent variable that most strongly affects students' desire or motivation to learn is not clearly defined. The National Education Association pamphlet on motivation explains:

Although this pamphlet is designed to acquaint you with the nature and nurture of motivation and learning, we must admit at the outset that there is no one formula, or strategy, or set of devices which will motivate all pupils in the same way or to the same degree.³

Federal government funding is currently being made available to qualified local school systems that are experiencing a lack of positive student motivation. Such an innovative project is currently included in the Pawhuska, Oklahoma, Public Schools.

The Pawhuska schools stated in their 1975 application for federal funds, "For several years teachers and administrators of the Pawhuska Schools have been subjectively aware that an increasing number of our students lack a strong sense of motivation."⁴ A federal innovative project now included in the Pawhuska school system, entitled the Motivation Project, was incorporated for this reason. Soon after its incorporation, the project became referred to as The Student Development Program by persons connected with the local school system.

The goal of the Motivation Project or Student Development Program is to develop a strong sense of positive motivation in the students of the Pawhuska, Oklahoma, Public School System. The objectives of the program are directed to the following four areas:

1. To increase the positive feelings of self-worth and self-concept in students.
2. To increase the desire for and appreciation of learning in students.
3. To increase the development of a strong sense of responsibility and self-discipline.
4. To involve parents and the entire community in the development of positive motivation in students.

The target areas of these objectives include students, faculty, and parents for grades 1-12.

At the request of the school administration, recognition of the students and faculty has been the primary technique used. Recognition has been obtained through the use of newspaper, radio, film, video tape, public speaking, and displays depicting the school and its academic news.

Other activities and services are provided by the Motivation Project. Classroom and small group presentations by the Motivation Project Director are commonly scheduled. Such presentations include the use of affective and values clarification educational materials as produced in filmstrips and games. These materials are relatively new and encourage a student to form well-adjusted value systems. Requested materials are purchased through the project budget for individual teachers to keep in their classrooms.

The project offers and directs teacher motivational workshops, parent seminars, student academic contests and

award programs, coordination of community/school activities and personal consultation.

This variety of activities is used in an effort to meet the primary goal of the Motivation Project to increase the sense of positive motivation in the students. It is also the intent of the Motivation Project Director and Pawhuska School administration to discern from these activities what motivates best and creates the most long-range positive motivation. This search for knowledge of long-range student motivation has prompted this study.

Federal innovative educational projects must be satisfactorily defined and evaluated regularly. As instructed by the Oklahoma State Department of Education, two norms of student attitudes or dependent variables have been used for measuring and evaluation of the project. Student attitude toward school and self-concept are the two variables used for evaluation of the project's effect. A detailed rationale concerning the construction of this student attitudinal survey and these two variables is included in Chapter III.

Two previous Motivation Project surveys and personal observation of numerous classroom situations indicate that the attitudes of the classroom teacher strongly influence the academic motivation of the student. There also appears to be an influencing relationship between the student's attitude toward school and his or her self-concept.

This study explored both the relationship between the attitudes of the elementary teachers and their students'

attitude toward school and the relationship between the attitudes of the elementary teachers and their students' self-concept. The study also explored the relationship between the student's attitude toward school and his or her self-concept.

The intended value of this study was to gather information that will furnish additional knowledge toward the process of motivating students to learn.

It is hoped that the information gathered will aid educators, particularly of the Pawhuska School System, to determine better if a significant relationship exists between the attitudes of elementary teachers and their pupils' attitudes toward the school environment and toward themselves.

It also is hoped that discovery of such a relationship between teachers and students will help discern what motivational techniques and materials would work best to produce long-range motivation.

Approaching the Problem

This study hypothetically states: Relationships exist between the attitudes of elementary teachers and their students' attitude toward school and between the attitudes of elementary teachers and their students' self-concept. A relationship also exists between the students' attitude toward school and student self-concept.

This study asked two primary questions. First, does a significant relationship exist between the attitudes of elementary teachers and their students' attitude toward

school and between the teachers' attitudes and their students' self-concepts? Secondly, does a relationship exist between the students' attitude toward school and the students' self-concept?

In other words, do the combined attitudes of an elementary teacher affect his or her students' attitude toward school and his or her students' attitude toward themselves? And, does the attitude students have toward school strongly resemble their attitude toward themselves?

To answer the first of these questions, teachers and students were administered separate attitudinal surveys. The survey administered to the teachers measured the individual teacher's combined attitudes. The student survey consisted of six subscales that measured the two variables: attitude toward school and self-concept.

To answer the first primary question of the study, teachers' attitudes that combine to create an atmosphere conducive to positive student motivation were treated as independent variables. Student attitude toward school and student self-concept were treated as dependent variables.

To answer the second primary question, both student attitude toward school and student self-concept were treated interchangeably as independent and dependent variables.

A series of comparisons and correlation tests were calculated with the mean scores obtained for both the teachers and students. These calculations offered information necessary to test the stated hypotheses of this study.

FOOTNOTES

¹John Ryor, "Declining SAT Scores," Today's Education, Volume 66, Number 4 (November/December 1977), p. 6.

²National Education Association, Motivating in Teaching and Learning (Washington, D.C., 1973), p. 3.

³Ibid., p. 4.

⁴State of Oklahoma, Department of Education, "Application for Funds, Title III, Pawhuska Public Schools" (Oklahoma City, 1974-75), p. 7.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

An abundance of literature concerning motivation is available. To secure a better understanding of findings uncovered by this study, the author has reviewed and noted some of the existing research and theories concerning student motivation. A review of this literature will hopefully aid the author when interpreting the findings of this study.

Student Motivation--A Problem of the Schools

There are a number of authors, publishers and authorities reacting to the national issue of declining student achievement, accompanied by decreasing student motivation to learn.

Student motivation has become a current issue among educators. There is found a variety of complaints, opinions, theories and suggestions involving the present condition, process, and development of student motivation.

A recent editorial by John Ryor, President of the National Education Association, published in the N.E.A. magazine, Today's Education, cited numerous reasons found by the College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB) for declining

Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores. Included in the list were various activities related to today's school systems.

John Ryor conveys:

'There has been a significant dispersal of learning activities and emphasis in the schools, reflected particularly in the adding of many elective courses and reduction in the number of courses that all students . . . are required to take.' The panel says, however, that a 'broadside condemnation' of electives is not the solution; it recommends instead 'restoring the tradition of critical reading and careful writing.'

The report cites 'clearly observable evidence of diminished seriousness of purpose and attention to mastery of skills and knowledge . . . in the schools, the home, and society generally.' It points to the condoning of excessive absenteeism, grade inflation, automatic promotion from grade to grade, less homework, and easier textbooks.

'There has been an apparent marked diminution,' the panel finds, 'in young people's learning motivation, at least as it appears to be related, directly and indirectly, to their performance on college entrance examinations.'

The report does not fault teachers. In fact, the panel shows some understanding of their difficult situation. At the CEEB press conference to announce the findings, Harold Howe II, panel member and former United States Commissioner of Education, said there is evidence that the job of teaching is tougher today than ever before.¹

In reference to the role of education and teachers, William Glasser, M.D., author of Schools Without Failure, feels that today's education is very failure-oriented. Dr. Glasser describes numerous shortcomings of current education and proposes techniques or programs to reduce student failure. His proposals are based on increased teacher/student involvement, content relevance, and individual thinking, as opposed to more traditional disciplined teaching techniques.

He feels that in seeking identity, too many children find it most readily attainable through withdrawal or delinquency.

In his earlier book, Reality Therapy, Dr. Glasser explained the importance of love and self-worth. Again, in Schools Without Failure, he explains:

To see that failure is far more singular than plural and to put it into a context that can be dealt with adequately by the schools, we must examine [here slightly differently from the way it was done in my previous book] the basic needs of people. In Reality Therapy, the basic needs are described as the need for love and the need for self-worth. A person must learn to give and receive love; he must find someone in the world to love and someone in the world who loves him, many people, if possible, but at the minimum one person he loves and one person who loves him. If a person succeeds in giving and receiving love, and can do so with some consistency throughout his life, he is to some degree a success. Ordinarily, one thinks that the need for love will be fulfilled in the home rather than in the school or other outside institutions. Closer examination, however, shows this belief to be false. Teachers are overwhelmed with children who need affection, but at present they do not know how to react to the obvious need for love of many of their students.²

Dr. Glasser offers a variety of activities or changes for education which will offer students more success, less failure, and in turn, greater motivation. His suggestions and/or complaints for change include: different discipline techniques, individual responsibility and decision making, no excuses, class meetings, new approaches to homework, testing, and the grading system.

Dr. Glasser states:

Too much of our present educational system emphasizes failure and too many children who attend

school are failing. Unless we can provide schools where children, through a reasonable use of their capacities, can succeed, we will do little to solve the major problems of our country.³

There is not a lack of published material criticizing the teaching methods employed by today's education. It appears that a majority of this material criticizes school's failure to deal with students' psychological development.

Teaching As a Subversive Activity, by Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner, is an example of such criticism. Postman and Weingartner propose methods to update education and make it more relevant to today's world by not only teaching students information, but also by cultivating an anthropological perspective.

Postman and Weingartner state:

We are talking about the schools' cultivating in the young that most 'Subversive' intellectual instrument--the anthropological perspective. This perspective allows one to be part of his own culture and, at the same time, to be out of it. One views the activities of his own group as would an anthropologist, observing its tribal rituals, its fears, its conceits, its ethnocentrism. In this way, one is able to recognize when reality begins to drift too far away from the grasp of the tribe.⁴

Not unlike much of the literature concerned with the problems of our educational system, Teaching As a Subversive Activity promotes liberation from many traditional educational techniques. Their education proposal refers to various sources such as McLuhan, Wiener, Rogers and other notable authors.

Postman and Weingartner suggest that what they are proposing is a new education, not more of anything, because it enters into an entirely new 'business.' This new business, they explain, is fundamentally the crap-detecting and relevance business. The authors explain:

Norbert Wiener insisted that the schools now must function as anti-entropic feedback systems, 'entropy' being the word used to denote a general and unmistakable tendency of all systems--natural and man-made--in the universe to 'run down,' to reduce to chaos and uselessness. This is a process that cannot be reversed but that can be slowed down and partly controlled. One way to control it is through 'maintenance.' This is Eric Hoffer's term, and he believes that the quality of maintenance is one of the best indices of the quality of life in culture. But Wiener uses a different metaphor to get at the same idea. He says that in order for there to be an anti-entropic force, we must have adequate feedback. In other words, we must have instruments to tell us when we are running down, when maintenance is required. For Wiener, such instruments would be people who have been educated to recognize change, to be sensitive to problems caused by change, and who have the motivation and courage to sound alarms when entropy accelerates to a dangerous degree. This is what we mean by 'Crap detecting.'⁵

Concerning the topic of relevance, the authors state:

There is no way to help a learner to be disciplined, active, and thoroughly engaged unless he perceives a problem to be a problem or whatever is to-be-learned as worth learning, and unless he plays an active role in determining the process of solution. This the plain, unvarnished truth, and if it sounds like warmed-over 'progressive education,' it is not any less true for it.⁶

Another point brought out by Postman and Weingartner that strongly relates to this particular study is the influence of the attitudes of the teacher. They point out that the attitudes of the teachers set the environment for education and student motivation.

In regard to the influence of teachers' attitudes, they state:

Let us consider here the teachers, and especially their attitudes. We take it as axiomatic that the attitudes of teachers are the most important characteristic of the inquiry environment. This point is frequently passed over even by those who advocate the use of inquiry methods, but especially by those innovators who are in constant quest of 'teacher-proof' programs and methodologies. There can be no significant innovation in education that does not have at its center the attitudes of teachers, and it is an illusion to think otherwise. The beliefs, feelings, and assumptions of teachers are the air of a learning environment; they determine the quality of life within it.

Although there is no direct assault made on today's educational system in Learning For Tomorrow, edited by Alvin Toffler, its authors strongly promote the incorporation of a future aspect in all areas of education. Their book deals with the way the perception of the future is dealt with in today's education.

In regard to the development of a future or time element in the minds of students, the numerous authors of this writing contend that an element or perception of the future is very necessary to student motivation.

On the topic of motivation and time, the book explains:

The development of a future-time perspective early in life provides both a motive and a mean for achievement in the future. A future-oriented time perspective--a future-focused role-image--operates, then like Robert Merton's 'self-fulfilling prophecy.' By its presence, it helps to assure the conditions necessary for its attainment. Social psychologist Lawrence K. Frank has pointed out that a long future focus is needed to bring meaning to our present lives, that it has a 'retroactive' effect upon our present . . .

Research into the relationship between time perspective and achievement supports Frank's suggestion. When seventh- and eighth-grade boys were asked to record recent thoughts and discussions and to take projective tests, the researcher discovered that some boys displayed a future orientation, while others thought in terms of the present or past. The boys who were most future-oriented, it turned out, also had higher academic achievements, which led the research psychologist, John E. Teahan, to suggest that high effort on boring and tedious assignments may be meaningful to the individual who sees them in terms of a future-time perspective in which success is the payoff.⁸

Several years prior to the current involvement of a large number of educators with the issue of student motivation and achievement, educator and philosopher J. Krishnamurti made similar observations. In his book, Education and the Significance of Life, Krishnamurti criticizes educational institutions that remove individual teacher pupil relationships necessary to develop integrated individuals with positive self-concepts. Krishnamurti remarks:

In building enormous institutions and employing teachers who depend on a system instead of being alert and observant in their relationship with the individual student, we merely encourage the accumulation of facts, the development of capacity, and the habit of thinking mechanically, according to a pattern; but certainly none of this helps the student grow into an integrated human being.⁹

Education, as Krishnamurti described it in 1951, is an understanding of one's self. This concept now appears to be of major concern to the educator of 1977. The incorporation of educational techniques to aid in developing student self-understanding has recently become familiar.

In speaking of the right kind or the true definition of education, Krishnamurti remarks:

The ignorant man is not the unlearned, but he who does not know himself, and the learned man is stupid when he relies on books, on knowledge and on authority to give him understanding.¹⁰

Alternative Education Techniques

In an attempt to remedy some of the shortcomings of our educational system, there have been a variety of new educational techniques to arise. These new techniques or "new educations," as some are called, are mostly proposals for application of techniques to train students in a psychological sense as well as an academic one.

Several new educations are on the educational supplies market, as well as the book, games, kit, filmstrips, and/or films to explain them and their new terms. Such a new or alternative education is Values Clarification. There is now an abundance of materials available for the instruction of this technique. Books published by a variety of authors or companies are often accompanied by filmstrips, kits, games, strategy handbooks, or films to use for its instruction. Guidance Associates and University Associates are two major companies that provide these materials.

Beginning Values Clarification, written by Sidney B. Simon and Jay Clark, is a good example of the new emphasis placed on the training of values in schools. The authors explain the intention of their book:

This book is intended to help you and your students recognize the need for clarifying values--and to use the tools provided here to recognize, develop and strengthen them. Values clarification is a way of examining our lives and determining values that are important to us. It is not a set of morals or ethics. It is not a list of values which we merely memorize and repeat. Values clarification is a process which can help us become more aware of our values--those fixed, and those changing or emerging.¹¹

The purpose or usefulness of applying a process to clarify the values to students is explained:

Seeking and clarifying our values is a life-long challenge, but it rewards one with a healthy mental life and a satisfying personal growth. Someone who works to clarify his own values becomes a more purposeful, more productive human being--with a greater zest for life, and hopefully with more consideration for his fellow human beings. He will often be a person with beautiful human relations--some who can be counted on, because you know where he stands. As he progresses in his search he will develop in a more aware and discerning person; one less vulnerable to Madison Avenue. He will convey the feeling that life is really precious, worth living to the fullest and worth sharing with others--sharing in the best sense of the word.¹²

Note that the actual differences between some of the new educational processes appear greater semantically than in purpose. The ultimate goal of the majority of them is basically the production of mentally well-adjusted students positively motivated to learn.

In a pamphlet issued by the National Education Association entitled, Values Teaching, Sheralyn S. Goldbecker explains the origin of Values Clarification and its relation to another recently used education process called Affective Education.

This technique had its origin in the work of Louis Rath in the late 1950's. He offers seven stages of valuing. They are for the teacher to use in helping the students learn how to make choices freely while keeping an open mind to alternative but consistent possibilities. The most distinguishing characteristic of values clarification is its emphasis on affective learning. Above all, its practitioners believe that a valuing process can be taught.¹³

Currently on the educational market are literature and material pertaining to Affective Education. One of the most commonly used instruments for its instruction and application is a kit referred to as T.A.D. T.A.D. means Toward Affective Development. The T.A.D. kit produced by American Guidance Services, Inc., contains 119 lesson plans and the game-like materials to teach them in the classroom. It is designed to stimulate psychological and affective development for students in grades three through six.

The T.A.D. instruction manual explains:

The child's real-life experiences--feelings, interests, aspirations, and conflicts are the content focus of TAD. A child's affective development is often determined by what he or she experiences--by chance--in the social encounters of everyday living. When such experiences are simulated in a friendly classroom atmosphere, the potential for positive affective development is increased. Classroom activities which simulate real-life experiences are the core of the TAD program. These activities have been selected for their ability to promote psychological and affective maturity.

. . . The program is called Toward Affective Development in order to emphasize its distinctive features. The child's developing patterns of motivation and feelings are given special attention.¹⁴

Another related new education process is Confluent Education. George Isaac Brown, in his book Human Teaching

For Human Learning: An Introduction to Confluent Education,

defines Confluent Education. Brown explains:

Confluent education is the term for the integration or flowing together of the affective and cognitive elements in individual and group learning--sometimes called humanistic or psychological education.

Affective refers to the feeling or emotional aspect of experience and learning. How a child or adult feels about wanting to learn, how he feels as he learns, and what he feels after he has learned are included in the affective domain.

Cognitive refers to the activity of the mind in knowing an object, to intellectual functioning. What an individual learns and the intellectual process of learning would fall within the cognitive domain--unless what is learned is an attitude or value, which would be affective learning.¹⁵

The author gathers from review of this educational process that it proposes and strives to serve a similar purpose as the educations afore-mentioned. It promotes the teaching of values and attitudes, or affective teaching in conjunction with traditional information teaching methods, to produce a well balanced "feeling-thinking" person.¹⁶ A feeling-thinking person, as Brown phrases it, appears again to be a psychologically healthy student positively motivated to learn.

The Educational Progress Corporation has published literature by authors Norma Randolph and William Howe entitled Self Enhancing Education: A Program To Motivate Learners. This education is based on the development of student high self-esteem. Randolph and Howe explain:

In essence, the basis of Self Enhancing Education shown by our nine years of action research is that despite the wide range of symptomatic behaviors our children exhibit, the major underlying

factor that results in under-achievement, lack of motivation, and unproductive conduct is low self-esteem. This low self-esteem results primarily from our traditional ways of structuring the learning opportunities.

The goal of Self Enhancing Education is to develop for every child stronger motivation, higher achievement, and socially productive behavior.¹⁷

This education appears to fulfill the same objectives as those described before it. It seeks to produce a positively motivated student who achieves at learning and whose psychological status is socially well-adjusted. This education includes the incorporation of student decision making, values clarification, affective and confluent education activities. However, these activities are all suggestions relating to the behavior and attitude of the teacher to meet the primary objective of raising his or her students' self-concepts.

It should be noted that the techniques or strategies recommended in this education are intended primarily for elementary students. The educations described previously are suggested for students in elementary school through adolescence or through senior high school.

This later education focuses primarily on the teacher's ability to generate a classroom environment conducive to positive student motivation. Reflecting observations made earlier by Glasser, the authors of Self-Enhancing Education state:

A general classroom climate of support and encouragement helps children dare to move out to make responses and decisions with the full knowledge that some will not be satisfactory. Under these conditions a child will usually have the courage to go on trying.¹⁸

Moral education is yet another new education which is suggested by some for incorporation in a teacher's activities. Based on the Kohlberg Approach and written by Beverly A. Mattox, Getting It Together explains the need for moral education and provides strategies for its use by the teacher.

Explaining the basis of the Kohlberg Approach, Mattox writes: "The focus of Kohlberg's approach is the student's search rather than the teacher's answers. The teacher's function is to stimulate the searching and growth process."¹⁹

Placing responsibility on the teacher to create a climate whereby a student learns to make moral judgments, the Kohlberg Approach requires the teacher become part of the group rather than an authority much of the time. The teacher is described as less authoritative and more as a group facilitator guiding the students toward development of moral judgments.

Here again, the ultimate goal of this education is students who have developed mature and well-adjusted self-concepts which will aid them psychologically and, in turn, will positively motivate them to learn. Beverly Mattox explains:

In the past some teachers felt that helping students understand their lives and solve their problems interfered with the subject disciplines, normally the first priority of school. But teachers are beginning to feel that the opposite may be true. Subject discipline and cognitive learning is usually increased when such learning touches the student's life directly.²⁰

Suggestions for Motivation

Walter F. Drew, Anita R. Olds, and Henry F. Olds, Jr., with the editors of Learning Magazine, write in Motivating Today's Students that the classroom climate is very important when trying to motivate elementary students.

These authors suggest that a teacher's acceptance and care for the students and the affective relationships among the students are most important to the motivation of all the students.

Describing a positively motivated classroom of elementary students, the authors say:

There is an atmosphere which invites the children to be themselves, to act on what motivates them and what's important to them. There is a feeling that whatever they choose to do or whatever part of themselves they choose to divulge is an aspect of motivation that is part of a natural process--learning how to learn.²¹

A great deal of literature concerned with student motivation is written in general entertaining styles that report few specific facts about the process of motivating students. Numerous people appear to be saying the same thing in different ways.

It is the author's contention that the National Education Association has more specific findings and applicable information to report than the majority of available sources.

There is a broad range of literature that contributes to our knowledge of motivation. The National Education Association (N.E.A.) has referred to the vast number of motivational

related writings in the areas of psychology, sociology and education and have concluded their findings. The N.E.A. pamphlet publication, Motivation in Teaching and Learning, provides the most condensed and specific information the author has discovered.

Regarding suggestions for motivation, the N.E.A. explains what teachers can do to motivate their students. Their suggestions include many of those found, often individually, in various other publications written to aid educators in motivating students.

The N.E.A. states:

Just as a child learns to walk and learns to talk, he learns about himself. Each of us learns who he is and what he is from the ways in which he was treated while growing up, not to mention how he is treated on a daily basis by those around him. This is what psychiatrist Harry Stack Sullivan called 'learning about the self from the mirror of other people.' Like each of us, our students learn to view themselves as liked, acceptable, and capable from having been liked and accepted, and from having been successful. The crucial key to increasing the proportion of students with adequate self-concepts, with adequate feelings of self-esteem, is to help students toward success experiences that teach them they are worthwhile people . . .

. . . If we, as teachers, are to facilitate motivation and learning through self-concept enhancement, we must--

1. Understand that we teach what we are, not just what we say . . .
2. Understand that anything we do or say could significantly change a student's attitude about himself for better or for worse . . .
3. Understand that students, like us, behave in terms of what seems to be true, which means that many times

learning goes on, not according to what the facts are, but according to how they are perceived.

4. Be willing not just to teach subject matter, but to deal with what the subject matter means to different students.
5. Understand that we are not likely to get results simply by telling someone he is worthy. Rather, we imply it through trust and the establishment of an atmosphere of mutual respect . . .
6. Understand that teacher behavior which is distant, cold, and rejecting is far less likely to enhance self-concept, motivation, and learning than behavior which is warm, accepting, and discriminating.²²

Motivation and Attitudes

In regard to motivation, Abraham H. Maslow states:

Many of the problems that have plagued writers in this area, as they attempted to define and delimit motivation, are a consequence of the exclusive demand for behavioral, externally observable criteria. The original criterion of motivation and the one that is still used by all human beings except behavioral psychologists is the subjective one. I am motivated when I feel desire or want or yearning or wish or lack. No objectively observable state has yet been found that correlates decently with these subjective reports, i.e., no good behavioral definition of motivation has yet been found.

Now of course we ought to keep on seeking for objective correlates or indicators of subjective states. On the day when we discover such a public and external indicator of pleasure or of anxiety or of desire, psychology will have jumped forward by a century.²³

Maslow, in his book Toward A Psychology of Being, explains his theory of motivation and its relation to need gratification. Maslow states:

All the foregoing may now be related to the general motivation theory, set forth in my Motivation and Personality, particularly the theory of need gratification, which seems to me to be the most important single principle underlying all healthy human development. The single holistic principle that binds together the multiplicity of human motives is the tendency for a new and higher need to emerge as the lower fulfills itself by being sufficiently gratified.²⁴

It appears that Maslow's theory on motivation and need gratification strongly resembles that research which has explained that student success usually leads to a successful self-concept or attitude toward self and creates the desire for more success. This desire, then, is motivation. The degree of motivation is, thus, best determined by the student's attitude about himself or self-concept.

An attitude, as the author of this study refers to it, coincides with its definition by Dr. Jerome Kagan, Professor of Human Development, Department of Psychology, Harvard University. In an interview prepared for Forum, Jerome Kagan explains "The Psychology of Attitudes." Dr. Kagan remarks:

Most social psychologists define an attitude as any belief that has an emotional component. For example, everyone agrees with the non-passionate statement that the Atlantic Ocean is a large body of water. But people have strong disagreements about the statement 'women should be put down.' The latter, a controversial belief, is an attitude.²⁵

Marc Robert, Ed.D., author of Loneliness in the Schools, writes about the relationship between students' needs and

their attitude toward themselves. Robert points out the teacher's responsibility to establish personal involvement with his or her students. He writes:

The law makes the child go to school. Yet unless the school offers something that the student wants or needs, there is little motivation on his part for either learning or self-discipline. Whatever causes a student to feel accepted or happy with himself provides the necessary motivation, and it is usually based on positive involvement with other persons in the school. Many excellent teachers with whom I worked showed me numerous ways of building personal involvement with students and of constructing success-oriented learning environments within classrooms and schools.²⁶

In conclusion, the National Education Association reports, too, that the way a student has learned to feel about himself (his attitude toward himself) is related to his degree or motivation and learning. The N.E.A. reports:

Increasing evidence indicates that student failures in basic school subjects--as well as the misguided motivation and lack of academic involvement characteristic of the underachiever, the dropout, the culturally disadvantaged, and the failure--may be due in part to unhealthy perceptions of the self and the world. Many students, for example, have difficulty in school, not because of low intelligence or poor eyesight, but because they have learned to consider themselves unable to do academic work.²⁷

FOOTNOTES

¹John Ryor, "Declining SAT Scores," Today's Education (Washington D.C., November-December 1977), Vol. 66, No. 4, p. 6.

²William Glasser M.D., Schools Without Failure (New York, 1969), pp. 12-13.

³Ibid., p. 6.

⁴Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner, Teaching as a Subversive Activity (New York, 1969), p. 4.

⁵Ibid., p. 3.

⁶Ibid., p. 52.

⁷Ibid., p. 33.

⁸Pauline B. Bart et al., Learning for Tomorrow, edited by Alvin Toffler (New York, 1974), pp. 25-26.

⁹J. Krishnamurti, Education and the Significance of Life (New York, 1953), p. 85.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 17.

¹¹Sidney B. Simon and Jay Clark, Beginning Values Clarification (San Diego, 1975), p. 17.

¹²Ibid., pp. 17-18.

¹³Sheralyn S. Goldbecker; National Education Association, Values Teaching (Washington D.C., 1976), p. 11.

¹⁴Henry Dupont, Ph.D., Ovitta Sue Gardner, M.Ed., and David S. Brody, Ph.D., Toward Affective Development: A Program to Stimulate Psychological and Affective Development (Circle Pines, 1974), pp. vii, xi.

¹⁵George Isaac Brown, Human Teaching for Human Learning (New York, 1971), pp. 3-4.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 5.

¹⁷Norma Randolph and William Howe, Self Enhancing Education; A Program to Motivate Learners (Palo Alto, 1966), p. 3.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 68.

¹⁹Beverly Mattox, Getting it Together: Dilemmas for the Classroom (San Diego, 1975), p. 60.

²⁰Ibid., 28.

²¹Walter F. Drew, Anita R. Olds, and Henry F. Olds, Jr., Motivating Today's Students (Palo Alto, 1974), p. 12.

²²National Education Association, Motivating in Teaching (Washington D.C., 1968), pp. 7-9.

²³Abraham H. Maslow, Toward a Psychology of Being (New York, 1968), p. 22.

²⁴Ibid., p. 55.

²⁵Jerome Kagan, "The Psychology of Attitudes," Forum (New York, Spring/Summer 1973), p. 4.

²⁶Marc Robert, Ed.D. Loneliness in the Schools (Niles, 1973), pp. 95-96.

²⁷National Education Association, p. 5.

CHAPTER III

METHOD AND PROCEDURE

This study investigated relationships among elementary teacher and student motivational attitudes within the Pawhuska, Oklahoma, Public School System.

In 1975 the Pawhuska, Oklahoma school system incorporated a federal Title IV-C Motivation Project. The Motivation Project followed administrative requests including a detailed application for funds which supported a need for more positive student motivation. "For several years teachers and administrators of the Pawhuska schools have been aware subjectively that an increasing number of our students lack a strong sense of motivation,"¹ the application stated.

The Motivation Project, referred to within the schools as "The Student Development Program," officially was included in the system of the Pawhuska schools in August, 1975. Because of its federal funding source there were required goals and objectives established for its operation prior to its inclusion.

The primary goal of the Motivation Project is to develop a strong sense of positive motivation in the students of the Pawhuska Public School System. The objectives of the program are directed to the following four areas:

1. To increase the positive feeling of self-worth and self-concept in students.
2. To increase the desire for, and an appreciation of, learning in students.
3. To increase the development of a strong sense of responsibility and self-discipline.
4. To involve parents and the entire community in the development of positive motivation in students.

Student Variables and Definitions

Not unlike other innovative, educational, federally funded programs, the Motivation Project was required to be satisfactorily defined in order to evaluate it on a regular basis. Significant variables of student motivation were required to be determined in order to measure the effect of the program. Thus, considering the problem of student motivation and the objectives of the Motivation Project, a testing instrument was selected by the Oklahoma State Department of Education.

The Pawhuska, Oklahoma, federal Motivation Project is not the only project of its kind. Projects of its nature can be found in other school systems of Oklahoma and other states. For this reason, there has been current federal research in the development of instruments for measuring student attitude changes.

From this research developed in conjunction with new educational programs, such as the Motivation Project, the Oklahoma State Department of Education devised the Oklahoma Scales. The introduction to the Oklahoma Scales manual explains:

Concern for the attitudes of students is not new; teachers have always known that interested happy students learn more. What is new is the planning of programs specifically designed to develop attitudes. At the same time new programs were being developed, pressures were increased for accountability in public education. So teachers have a dual problem, teaching in a new area and showing that learning has occurred.²

In 1974 a group of nine Oklahoma schools in the Cooperative Planning and Evaluation Project (CPEP, funded under Title V federal funds) assumed the task of developing instruments to measure attitudes. The objective was to make available three sets of scales to measure attitudes in three areas. The result of the project was a series of nine subscales which were combined in three sets to form three attitude scales. This work was done in cooperation with the Oklahoma State Department of Education.³

Two of the sets of scales were chosen by the State Department of Education to be used in measuring the Pawhuska Motivation Project. Attitude toward school and self-concept were the two dependent variables chosen for periodical measurement by the two sets of scales.

Items used in the Oklahoma Scales were developed in an interstate Utah project. The CPEP group contracted A. R. Wight to select and group the items. Wight placed the items

in subscales and relied on preliminary work done in his project and documented in the project report.⁴

Reliabilities of the six sub-scales of the Oklahoma Scales administered to the Pawhuska students range from .79 to .89. These coefficient alpha reliabilities were computed through the contract with Wight. It can be expected that reliabilities of the longer scales composed of three sub-scales will exceed the reported reliabilities. Reliabilities, the number of items and the items scored are shown in Table I, page 33.⁵

The success and/or continued funding of the Motivation Project is not based on the Pawhuska students' scores on the Oklahoma Scales alone. A series of regularly scheduled interviews, evaluation team visits, program evaluation hearings and test score observations are included. Regarding Pawhuska students' scores on the Oklahoma Scales, evaluation is based on an annual increase in positive attitude expressed by at least 50% of the students on all scales combined (1-6).

Students of the school system in grades 5-12 were administered the Oklahoma Scales as a pretest the first time in the fall of 1975. Since that time the test has been administered once per school year during the spring. The post-test given in the spring of 1975 served as the pretest for 1976. The post-test in 1976 served as a pretest for 1977.

Whether the Pawhuska students ranked above or below average was not the question of this study. For program

TABLE I
RELIABILITIES AND ITEM NUMBERS FOR OKLAHOMA SCALES
USED IN PAWHUSKA, OKLAHOMA

Scale		Items	No. of Items	Reliability*
1.	Attitude Toward School	1-11	11	.87
2.	Perceived Value of School and Motivation to Succeed	12-19, 21	9	.81
3.	Self-Concept as a Student	22-40	19	.89
4.	Self-Understanding and Self-Assurance	41, 43-54	13	.79
5.	Self-Confidence and Self-Sufficiency	55-66	12	.83
6.	Self-Acceptance and Self-Esteem	67-70, 72-80	13	.82
COMBINED SCALES				
Scales				
1,2,3	Attitude Toward School	1-19, 21-40	39	**
4,5,6	Self-Concept	41, 43-70, 72-80	38	**

*Coefficient Alpha

**Reliability not available

evaluation purposes, however, this comparison can be very useful.

The Oklahoma Scales include sets of norms produced by recent research for the State of Oklahoma.

The scales were administered to all 5th, 7th, 9th, and 11th grade students in 46 school districts. The districts comprised a stratified random sample selected to represent different school sizes and geographic regions. The number of students were calculated that would represent each region and school size of a level of 2 percent of the state-wide public school population. Districts were randomly selected until the quota for each region was completed. The two largest districts in the state were also selected but all students were not assessed. For these two districts approximately 2 percent of the students were selected randomly. Criteria for school size was based on average daily attendance ADA.⁶

The Oklahoma Scales Manual explains the data collection process used.

Schools were invited to participate and all cooperated voluntarily. The assessments were administered by staff members from the CPEP schools, the State Department of Education SDE and the local school districts. CPEP and SDE staff members were responsible for school contacts and delivery and retrieval of assessment materials.

Scoring was done by Wight under the CPEP contract. As a part of the contract the participating schools were provided with individual and group data for their students. A seminar was held in the spring of 1976 to provide the information to the schools.

The CPEP and SDE staff used the group data resulting from the scoring process to produce sets of norms for school size, gender, or ethnic background of students. The norms are based on standard scores produced from means and standard deviations. Standard scores were then converted to percentile ranks using the normal curve table. Thus the conversion tables present percentiles based on standard scores rather than cumulative frequencies.⁷

Evaluation of the Motivation Project by the Pawhuska schools, for annual extended funding application purposes, is relatively simple. Using the pre and post-test method, the individual total score for each student, on all six scales, is examined for any change. If a student has shown a higher or equal post-test score on scales 1-6 compared to the total score he made on the pretest given the previous spring (exception explained when students are given pre and post-tests during the program's first year of operation), he is considered positively motivated.

In general, attitudes are more positive in the fall than in the spring. This trend should be considered when affective measurement is used for program evaluation. Other general trends are that younger students have higher scores, and girls score higher than boys. For the norm group, lowest scores were made by ninth graders. /See Table 4/. Of course, the use of conversion tables places the average of each group at the fiftieth percentile rank.⁸

Six hundred twenty-two students of the Pawhuska schools in grades 5-12 were administered the Oklahoma Scales in April, 1977. Because of the large number of students, the scales were machine scored. The scales are both hand and machine scorable. An answer sheet and scoring key are included in the Oklahoma Scales Manual.⁹

The students whose scores were used for this study were both hand and machine scored. The additional hand scoring of the scores guaranteed no mistakes were made in the machine scoring. The additional time required for this task created a greater personal interest in the individual students and

teachers. It also furnished information valuable to interpretation of findings made by this study.

Student Sample

Of the 622 Pawhuska students who were administered the Oklahoma Scales in the spring of 1977, only the fifth and sixth graders were chosen for this study. The reason for this is simple. These students have the greatest opportunity to be affected by the attitudes of their teachers.

Students in grades 5-12 were administered the scales, but only the fifth and sixth graders spend most of each school day with one teacher. When students reach the seventh grade, they have at least five teachers per day. They are no longer with one person in one classroom for the majority of each school day learning a common curriculum.

Elementary students have a greater chance of being influenced by the attitudes of their teacher than a student in junior or senior high school. Fifth and sixth graders are still in elementary school. They seldom change classes or teachers. They are under the influence and direction of one adult for an average of 4 hours and 18 minutes per day; 21 hours and 30 minutes per week; 774 hours per year.

Elementary fifth and sixth grade students are over-all the most impressionistic students tested by the program. Their value systems are generally the least mature. Junior high students are expected to begin forming more independent values and attitudes.

The junior high school student is commonly experiencing puberty. Not only is he in a different school with five to six different teachers daily, he is also experiencing physical changes which are affecting his behavior. He is becoming more concerned about his personality and appearance and less impressionistic concerning his attitude toward school and himself.

The fifth and sixth graders used for this study have more school conditions in common than any other group of students tested by the Oklahoma Scales. They were all 10-12 years of age. They were each the member of a classroom of 21-24 students (22 students average) with similar characteristics of sex, race, and socio-economics. The basic classroom curriculum for each student included reading, arithmetic, English, spelling, social studies, science, health, writing and art. Each of the 133 students had one teacher who taught this curriculum and with whom he spent most of his school day.

The Student Survey

The Oklahoma Scales used for evaluation of the Motivation Project and this study include 80 items. These 80 items comprise the first six subscales of the Oklahoma Scales.

Items 1-40 comprise the combined scale Attitude Toward School. Items 41-80 comprise the combined scale Self-Concept. Attitude Toward School is measured by scales 1-3. Self-Concept is measured by scales 4-6.

The identification or labeling of the ranks of possible responses on the five-point Oklahoma Scales varies with the particular set of sub-scales. The two categories of responses (positive to negative) used include: strongly agree - strongly disagree (scales 1-3) and very much like me - not at all like me (scales 4-6).

Each student expressed his degree of personal identification with each of the 80 scale items. Each student responded to each item on a bi-polar scale ranging in value from 5 (strongly agree or very much like me) to 1 (strongly disagree or not at all like me). Oklahoma Scale Key 1 for hand scoring answer sheets illustrates which direction each scale item is to be ranked.¹⁰

Each student was given a questionnaire and an answer sheet. The questionnaire included the 80 items. The answer sheet included a five-point scale for each item using letters A-E to identify responses. The answer sheet is numbered from 1-80 with letters A-E representing the student's degree of approval or identification with each item on the questionnaire.

Each student expressed his degree of approval on each of 80 scale items (see Appendix B, page 106, for illustration).

The administering of the Oklahoma Scales was scheduled for the same date and time throughout the Pawhuska Schools, grades 5-12, each time they were used. The teacher for each elementary classroom was asked to administer the test to his or her own students each time. All teachers were familiar

with the scales by the time data for this study was being collected.

When asked to administer the Oklahoma Scales in the spring of 1977, the teachers were reminded of its purpose and instructions. Fifth and sixth grade teachers were informed that the scores would be used in a master's thesis. They were each personally reminded that several factors or conditions can affect the responses of their students. They were asked to administer the scales in their classrooms on the same date at approximately 10 a.m. They were reminded that the students should be confident their scores will not affect their grades in school; that the questions they are going to answer should be answered very truthfully.

The Oklahoma Scales manual states:

Responses to affective measurement are easily influenced by the testing situation. The attitude and manner of the examiner are important factors in the way students mark responses. One of the arguments against affective measurement is that people tend to mark the socially desirable response. Some instruments have "fake" scales or scoring systems. The Oklahoma scales do not have a special scoring system to assess whether students are faking. The scales were designed to safeguard against faking by including duplicate or similar items and both positive and negative items. Probably the best safeguard is the attitude of the person who administers the scale and the degree to which the students trust that the scale is truly an assessment, not a test. The students must understand that the purpose of measurement is for self-understanding or for program planning or evaluation.¹¹

Teacher Variables and Definitions

The portion of this study which correlates teacher attitudes with student attitudes required an instrument which would measure those attitudes of a teacher that are considered motivational to students. The question was whether the attitudes of a teacher affect the attitudes of their students toward school and toward themselves. The teachers' attitudes were, in the first portion of this study, the independent variables.

This study investigated relationships among teacher and student motivational attitudes. A portion of this study examines the correlation between teacher and student attitudes. In this first portion, the teachers' attitudes are considered independent variables because of the effects they are assumed to have on their students' attitudes. The students' attitudes (toward school and self-concept) are considered the dependent variables because they are the measured results.

Following an extensive search for the most suitable and compatible attitudinal testing instrument designed for measuring teacher attitudes, the Minnesota Teacher Attitudinal Inventory was chosen. The Minnesota Teacher Attitudinal Inventory (MTAI) is published by The Psychological Corporation.¹²

Introduction to the MTAI explains:

Investigations carried on by the authors over the past ten years indicate that the attitudes of teachers toward children and school work can be measured with high reliability, and that they are significantly correlated with the teacher-pupil

relations found in the teachers' classrooms. The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory has emerged from these researches. It is designed to measure those attitudes of a teacher which predict how well he will get along with pupils in interpersonal relationships, and indirectly how well satisfied he will be with teaching as a vocation. The most direct use to which the MTAI can be put is in the selection of students for teacher preparation and the selection of teachers for teaching positions.¹³

Section II of the MTAI explains the rationale of the inventory and the teacher characteristics it defines.

It is assumed that a teacher ranking at the high end of the scale should be able to maintain a state of harmonious relations with his pupils characterized by mutual affection and sympathetic understanding. The pupils should like the teacher and enjoy school work. The teachers should like the children and enjoy teaching. Situations requiring disciplinary action should rarely occur. The teacher and pupils should work together in a social atmosphere of cooperative endeavor, of intense interest in the work of the day, and with a feeling of security growing from a permissive atmosphere of freedom to think, act and speak one's mind with mutual respect for the feelings, rights and abilities of others. Inadequacies and shortcomings in both teacher and pupils should be admitted frankly as something to be overcome, not ridiculed. Abilities and strengths should be recognized and used to the utmost for the benefit of the group. A sense of proportion involving humor, justice and honesty is essential. Group solidarity resulting from common goals, common understandings, common efforts, common difficulties, and common achievements should characterize the class.¹⁴

The MTAI does not identify individual attitudes of a teacher that are motivational to his or her students. It recognizes that numerous factors concerning individual teachers interact to result in teacher attitudes which determine the social atmosphere the teacher will maintain in the classroom.

The teacher's ability to create a motivational social atmosphere is determined by a combination of attitudes. The independent variables correlated with the dependent variables of student attitudes are teacher attitudes that combine to create an atmosphere conducive to positive student motivation.

It would be an oversimplification of the problem to assume that the differences between teachers at the two ends of the scale can be completely explained in terms of attitudes toward children, toward teaching, toward the school, toward subject matter, etc. Certainly the differences are the result of numerous factors, including academic and social intelligence, general knowledge and abilities, social skills, personality traits, energy, values, and teaching techniques. However, it can be assumed that the attitudes of a teacher are the result of the interaction of this multitude of factors and, therefore, that attitudes afford a key to the prediction of the type of social atmosphere a teacher will maintain in the classroom.¹⁵

The Teacher Sample

The teachers used in this study were Pawhuska fifth and sixth grade teachers. There are three fifth grade classes and three sixth grade classes within the Pawhuska Elementary School. Each fifth and sixth grade class has one teacher. There was a total of six elementary teachers used in this study.

Each of the fifth and sixth grade teachers was an experienced elementary teacher. Number of years taught by the individual teachers ranged from 5 to 18.

Length of time they had individually taught for Pawhuska Schools ranged from 5 to 10 years. The same principal and school superintendent had supervised them during this time.

They were all familiar with the operation, rules, and regulations of the elementary school.

The same curriculum was taught and graded by each of the teachers. Grading periods and grade card format were determined by the administration.

Four of the six teachers had master degrees in education. Two of the teachers had bachelor degrees in elementary education. They all had been educated in the area of elementary teaching techniques. State regulations have required they keep abreast of any new teaching methods via necessary educational college courses.

Five of the teachers were males. One of the teachers was female. They were all white Caucasian. Ages ranged from 25 to 45 years.

The physical characteristics of the classrooms of the teachers were near the same. They all were contained in the single Pawhuska Elementary School building. The building was built in 1971. The classrooms met modern standards of lighting, size, air conditioning, etc.

Any activities or services offered by the Motivation Project or Student Development Program were made available on an equal basis to the teachers and their classes.

The Teacher Survey

The six elementary teachers used in this study were asked if they voluntarily would participate in the study by completing the MTAI. All six teachers agreed to participate.

The teachers took the survey at the same time. They met as a group after school.

Instructions to the teachers were given. They were assured their names would not be divulged. They were assured their scores would have no bearing on their jobs. The importance of truthful responses was stressed. They were told to take their time.

Scoring of the MTAI five-point scale inventory was adapted for this correlation study.

The scoring technique recommended by the manual for the MTAI directs the administrator of the inventory to total the number of right responses, total the number of wrong responses, then, subtract the wrong responses from the right responses for the teacher's score. A key for hand scoring was supplied for both the right and wrong responses.

To correctly correlate the teachers' scores on their five-point MTAI scale with the students' scores on their five-point Oklahoma Scales, the scoring of the MTAI was adapted. Rather than subtracting the total of wrong responses from the total of right responses, each item of the 150 item MTAI was keyed for intensity of response and direction. This was simplified by placing the hand scoring key for right responses over an MTAI answer sheet and rating the right items from 5 - 1. The wrong responses were ranked the same way by placing the key showing wrong responses over the items and rating those items from 1 - 5.

By doing this, the scales for both the students and the teachers were bi-polar scales ranging from 5 (positive) to 1 (negative).

Each teacher expressed his degree of approval on each of 150 MTAI scale items, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree (see Appendix A, page 99 , for illustration).

Student-Teacher Attitude Correlations

The first correlation computed in this study was between the Pawhuska fifth and sixth grade elementary students on combined Oklahoma Scales 1-3 (attitude toward school) and the responses of the Pawhuska fifth and sixth grade teachers on the Minnesota Teacher Attitudinal Inventory. Each of the six classes of the fifth and sixth graders were correlated with their six respective teachers.

A mean score for each of the six classes of students (categorized by teacher) on each Oklahoma Scale and combinations of the six scales were calculated.

For example, the first 11 items of the Oklahoma Scales (representing Oklahoma Scale #1) were scored and totaled for each of the 133 students. Mean scores for each of the six classes on scale #1 were obtained by totaling the responses to the first 11 items for each student in each of the six classes, dividing those six totals by the number of students in each of the classes, and then dividing each of those averages by 11.

Because the number of items in each scale varies, this method was used for each of the six scales, combined scales 1-3 (attitude toward school), combined scales 4-6 (self-concept) and all scales combined. This method produced a more accurate mean score for each class of students on each of the individual scales.

There was a total of 54 mean scores calculated from a sample of 133 students in six different classes. The mean score paradigm is shown in Table II, page 47.

Mean scores for each of the teachers were calculated. The score each teacher made on the MTAI was divided by the number of items included in the MTAI. Each of the scores was divided by 150. This supplied mean scores for the teachers that could be correlated with the mean scores of each of their classes of students.

Three factorial analyses of variance were calculated. Two of the analyses were calculated for students' mean scores on attitude toward school and self-concept. A third analysis was calculated for the teachers' mean scores on the MTAI.

These factorial analyses tested the probability that the observed differences among the means could have occurred by chance or error fluctuation. The analyses in each case supplied an F-ratio. The F-ratio, when referred to an F-table, determined whether there existed a significant difference between the mean scores being analyzed. A factorial analysis of variance supplies a complete ANOVA (analysis of variance)

TABLE II
STUDENT MEAN SCORES ON OKLAHOMA SCALES

	Class					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Oklahoma Scale 1	X	X	X	X	X	X
2	X	X	X	X	X	X
3	X	X	X	X	X	X
4	X	X	X	X	X	X
5	X	X	X	X	X	X
6	X	X	X	X	X	X
1-3	X	X	X	X	X	X
4-6	X	X	X	X	X	X
All Scales 1-6	X	X	X	X	X	X

table with measurements needed for further computations and interpretation. Table III illustrates an ANOVA table.¹⁶

TABLE III
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) TABLE

<u>Source of Variance</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>Sum of Squares</u>	<u>Mean Square</u>	<u>F-Ratio</u>
Between Groups	X	X	X	X
Within Groups	X	X	X	
Total	X	X		

A one dimensional factorial analysis of variance was calculated between the means of the six groups of students on Oklahoma Scales 1-3 (attitude toward school). The F-ratio obtained in this analysis was referred to an F-table to determine if the difference between the groups would occur by chance less than 1 or 5 times in 100.

A one dimensional factorial analysis of variance was calculated between the scores of the students on Oklahoma Scales 4-6 (self-concept).

If the differences or variance between the means of the students on these scales was significant, there would exist a greater probability that the attitudes of the respective teachers of these classes are related to their students' self-concept. If the F-ratio of the factorial analysis were

significant, the greater the probability that a significant correlation exists between the teacher's attitude and the student's attitude toward himself.

A one dimensional factorial analysis of variance was calculated between the means of the teachers on the MTAI to determine if there existed a significant difference between the teachers. The F-ratio, when plotted on an F-table, would determine whether there was a significant difference or variance between the attitudes of the teachers.

Analysis of variance gap tests were calculated for these same three groups.¹⁷ Gap tests were run between the means of the six classes of students' mean scores on scales 1-3 (attitude toward school), scales 4-6 (self-concept), and the teachers' mean scores on the MTAI.

These analyses of variance gap tests discovered where the critical difference or a significant amount of variance was located between any two classes' attitude toward school. This test located the significant difference between any two classes' mean scores by comparing all combinations of the mean scores of the six classes.

All combinations of mean scores of the six classes of students on scales 4-6 (self-concept) were compared. Any two classes of the six classes of students which were significantly different in their self-concepts were located. The locations of these critical differences could be used to determine better whether a significant relationship exists between these classes and their respective teachers.

The gap test was used to determine which individual teachers were critically different in their attitudes. The gap test located any critical differences between all combinations of two mean scores of the six teachers on the MTAI.

Three eta correlation ratios were calculated with measurements gathered by the factorial analyses.¹⁸ Eta was obtained for the students on scales 1-3 (attitude toward school), scales 4-6 (self-concept), and the teachers on the MTAI.

As a measurement of the relationship between two variables, eta can be useful in determining the ratio of between and within group variance. The obtained value of eta will range from 0 to +1.

Eta is the proportion of total variation in the teachers' and students' attitudes that is explained by the different groups or classes to which they belong. The higher the eta value or the closer it is to +1, the greater the proportion of total variance that is explained by the different groups to which they belong and the stronger the relationship between attitude and teacher. The closer the eta value to 0, the less the proportion of total variance that can be explained by the different groups and the weaker the relationship.

Considering the small number of elementary fifth and sixth grade teachers in the Pawhuska schools, a Spearman rho --- Rank Difference Correlation was used.¹⁹ This correlation instrument allowed the six elementary teachers to be

correlated with the mean scores of their six respective classes of students.

Using the Spearman rho --- Rank Difference Correlation formula, rho coefficients were calculated for three combinations of teacher and student scores. The combinations are listed below:

1. Teacher scores on the MTAI and student scores on Oklahoma Scales 1-3 (attitude toward school).
2. Teacher scores on the MTAI and student scores on Oklahoma Scales 4-6 (self-concept).
3. Teacher scores on the MTAI and student scores on Oklahoma Scales 1-6 (attitude toward school and self-concept). The combined attitudes of the students, measured by scales 1-6 in this case, is considered the dependent variable.

The rho coefficients were computed to discover whether a relationship existed between any of these three combinations of teacher and student attitudinal scores.

Student Attitude Toward School/ Self-Concept Correlation

The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was calculated between the students' scores on Oklahoma Scales 1-3 (attitude toward school) and Oklahoma Scales 4-6 (self-concept).²⁰

Calculation of the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient compared the scores of 133 students on Oklahoma Scales 1-3 (attitude toward school) with their 133 scores on Oklahoma Scales 4-6 (self-concept). This correlation analysis furnished an r coefficient which was tested for significance by use of a z -test. Due to the large sample of student scores used, a z -test was used in lieu of a t -test to test the significance of the correlation coefficient.

The Pearson Product-Moment correlation and the test for the significance of the obtained r correlation coefficient were computed to discover whether there exists a significant relationship between these 133 students' attitude toward school and their self-concepts.

In this second portion of the study, the students' attitude toward school and self-concept were independent variables. The correlation or relationship assumed to be present is the dependent variable.

FOOTNOTES

¹State of Oklahoma, Department of Education, "Application for Funds, Title III, Pawhuska Public Schools" (Oklahoma City, 1974-75), p. 7.

²State Department of Education, A Manual for the Oklahoma Scales, rev. ed., Cooperative Planning and Evaluation Project and Planning, Research, and Evaluation Section (Oklahoma City, 1976), p. iii.

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid., p. 1.

⁵Ibid., p. 3.

⁶Ibid., p. 1.

⁷Ibid., p. 2.

⁸State Department of Education, A Manual for the Oklahoma Scales, Cooperative Planning and Evaluation Project and Planning, Research, and Evaluation Section (Oklahoma City, 1976), p. 6.

⁹State Department of Education, A Manual for the Oklahoma Scales, rev. ed., Cooperative Planning and Evaluation Project and Planning, Research, and Evaluation Section (Oklahoma City, 1976), pp. 29-30.

¹⁰Ibid.

¹¹Ibid., p. 7.

¹²Robert Callis, Walter W. Cook, and Carroll H. Leeds, Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory Manual (New York, 1951), p. 1.

¹³Ibid., p. 3.

¹⁴Ibid.

¹⁵Ibid., pp. 3-4.

¹⁶Walter J. Ward, Ph.d., "Mass Communication Research Designs and Methodology List of Handouts in Chronological Order;" Journalism and Broadcasting 5113 and 5223, Handouts #9 and 17 (Oklahoma State University: Mass Communications, 1973-74).

¹⁷Ibid., Handout #10x.

¹⁸James L. Bruning and B. L. Kintz, Computational Handbook of Statistics (Glenview, Illinois, 1968), pp. 166-167.

¹⁹Walter J. Ward, Ph.d., Handout #8.

²⁰Ibid.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION
OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN
ELEMENTARY TEACHER AND
STUDENT MOTIVATIONAL
ATTITUDES

Two primary questions were asked in this study. First, does a significant relationship exist between the motivational attitudes of the elementary teachers and students within Pawhuska, Oklahoma, Public Schools? Secondly, does a significant relationship exist between the Pawhuska, Oklahoma, Elementary School students' attitude toward school and their self-concepts?

To answer these questions the author selected two compatible instruments designed to measure motivational attitudes. One instrument was used to measure motivational teacher attitudes, and one instrument was used to measure students' attitudes toward school and student self-concept. The two selected instruments basically used the same measuring system. It was necessary that both instruments supply equal response values uni-dimensional in order that correlations could be computed.

The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory was chosen to measure teacher attitudes. The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory is designed to measure a teacher's ability to create a motivational classroom environment deriving from the teacher's attitudes.

The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI) was administered to each of the six fifth and sixth grade teachers of the Pawhuska, Oklahoma, Elementary School. Each of the six teachers indicated his degree of approval on a five point continuum for each of the 150 items. Positive scale items ranged from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). Negative scale items ranged from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree).

A mean attitude for each of the six teachers was calculated. Each of their 150 responses, ranging from 1-5 points each, were totaled, then divided by 150. This method supplied a mean score compatible with the mean scores of the students.

Table IV, page 57, shows the six teachers' mean scores on the MTAI.

The instrument used to measure student attitude toward school and self previously had been selected by the Oklahoma State Department of Education to evaluate the Pawhuska, Oklahoma, School's Motivation Project (Student Development Program). The Oklahoma Scales are designed to measure a student's attitude toward school and self.

TABLE IV
MEAN ATTITUDES OF TEACHERS ON THE MTAI

Teacher					
1	2	3	4	5	6
3.72	3.28	3.43	3.70	3.69	3.73

Oklahoma Scales 1-6 were administered to the six classes of fifth and sixth grade students in the Pawhuska, Oklahoma, Elementary School. Each of the 133 students indicated his degree of approval of 80 statements along a five-point continuum from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" for items 1-21 and from "very much like me" to "not at all like me" for items 21-80. The positive scale items ranged from 5 (strongly agree or very much like me) to 1 (strongly disagree or not at all like me). Negative scale items ranged from 1 (strongly agree or very much like me) to 5 (strongly disagree or not at all like me). Oklahoma Scales 1-3 (items 1-40) measure student attitude toward school. Oklahoma Scales 4-6 (items 41-80) measure student self-concept.

A mean score for each of the six classes of students on each of the six Oklahoma Scales, combined scales 1-3, combined scales 4-6, and all scales combined 1-6 were calculated. This was accomplished by totaling each class's student responses

for each scale, dividing those totals by the number of students in each class, and then dividing those averages by the number of items in each scale. A total of 54 mean scores were calculated from the student responses on each scale and combinations of the Oklahoma Scales. These mean scores are shown in Table V, page 59.

Those participating in this study were chosen for obvious reasons. The fifth and sixth grade teachers included in this study are the only six elementary teachers whose students are not only with them most of each school day but whose classes of elementary students are included in the evaluation surveys administered by the Pawhuska schools' Motivation Project. They are the teachers of the most suitable sample of students for this study.

The 133 students included in this study are the students of the six fifth- and sixth-grade elementary teachers in the Pawhuska, Oklahoma, Elementary School. These students were the youngest students surveyed by the Pawhuska schools' Motivation Project. Younger students are generally not advanced enough to read and respond to written test items. These 133 students were the only ones in the school system old enough to be administered a written attitudinal survey and under the influence of one individual teacher during most of each school day.

This study sought to discover significant relationships among the attitudes of elementary teachers and their students

TABLE V
STUDENT MEAN SCORES ON OKLAHOMA SCALES

	Class					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Oklahoma Scale 1	3.64	3.27	3.61	4.01	3.25	3.84
2	3.83	3.38	3.68	3.97	3.47	3.92
3	3.67	3.20	3.56	3.52	3.49	3.43
4	3.65	3.17	3.26	3.23	3.43	3.21
5	3.63	3.48	3.34	3.53	3.67	3.51
6	3.63	3.55	3.37	3.38	3.70	3.48
1-3	3.66	3.26	3.60	3.77	3.42	3.66
4-6	3.65	3.40	3.33	3.38	3.60	3.40
All Scales 1-6	3.67	3.33	3.47	3.57	3.51	3.53

that may contribute to a better understanding of student motivation.

This chapter is concerned with analysis of findings. Relationships between the attitudes of the teacher and his or her students toward school and self are discussed, as well as relationships between students' attitudes toward school and self.

Differences Between the Teachers

A simple analysis of variance was run on the scores of the six teachers on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory. In this analysis, teachers were used as treatment groups; scale items were treated as subjects.

The obtained F-ratio of 6.202 exceeded chance at the .01 probability level. The differences among the mean attitudes of the six teachers would occur by chance less than one time in 100.

The analysis of variance did not tell us which teachers were significantly different from each other in their attitudes--only that a significant difference between at least two teachers existed.

The higher the mean score of an individual teacher on the MTAI, the more capable that teacher is assumed to be in creating a classroom atmosphere conducive to positive motivation. The individual teacher's ability to create a motivational atmosphere is reflected by his attitude. The higher a teacher's score on the MTAI, the more positively

motivating that teacher's attitude is considered to be. Teachers were ranked according to their individual mean scores. Table VI shows the MTAI mean score and rank for each of the six teachers.

TABLE VI
TEACHER MTAI SCORES AND RANK

	Teacher					
	6	1	4	5	3	2
Score	3.73	3.72	3.70	3.69	3.43	3.28
Rank	1	2	3	4	5	6

Table VII shows the total number of 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 ratings obtained by each teacher and is located on page 62.

There are, of course, no correct or incorrect responses determined for this attitudinal survey.

The most obvious findings from this informal response analysis would include which teacher totaled the most responses for each point level. Teachers #6 and #4 totaled the most 5-point responses by "strongly agreeing" or "strongly disagreeing" to 42 items in accordance with their scale

directions. Teacher #1 totaled the most 4-point responses by "agreeing" or "disagreeing" with a total of 120 items in accordance with their scale direction. Teacher #2 totaled the most 3-point responses by responding as "undecided" to 42 items. Teacher #3 totaled the most 2-point responses by "agreeing" or "disagreeing" in opposition to the scale direction of the item. Teacher #4 totaled the most 1-point responses by "strongly agreeing" or "strongly disagreeing" in opposition to the direction of 5 items.

TABLE VII
TOTAL OF VALUE RESPONSES BY EACH TEACHER ON MTAI

Teacher	Point Value					Mean Score
	5	4	3	2	1	
#1	0	120	18	12	0	3.72
#2	5	69	42	32	2	3.28
#3	7	91	12	39	1	3.43
#4	41	71	0	33	5	3.70
#5	5	103	33	9	0	3.69
#6	42	56	24	26	2	3.73
	S.A./S.D.	A./D.A.	U.D.	A./D.A.	S.A./S.D.	

This examination of the individual teacher's item responses serves as an additional reference for interpretation purposes. Reference to an individual teacher's total responses for the five scale degrees could be helpful in better understanding the individual teachers as well as the attitudes of their students.

To locate significant differences in attitudes between various pairs of teachers, difference-between-means tests were used. The "gap" tests determined critical differences that must exist between any two teachers' mean attitudes, if that difference was to exceed the probability of chance. Table VIII, page 64, shows mean attitudinal differences between each pair of teachers and their probability of exceeding chance.

A critical or significant difference, if any, was located between the mean scores of 15 combinations of the 6 teachers. The most significant differences in mean attitude were found between teacher #2 and teachers #1, #4, #5, and #6. Teacher #2 had the lowest mean attitude of 3.28. The higher mean attitudes were 3.69 for teacher #5, 3.70 for teacher #4, 3.72 for teacher #1, and 3.73 for teacher #6.

Critical differences exceeding the probability of chance were also found between teacher #3 and teachers #1, #4, #5, and #6. Teacher #3 had the second lowest mean attitude of 3.43. Although the differences between teacher #3 and teachers #1, #4, #5, and #6 were significant, they were not as significant as those between teacher #2 and teachers

TABLE VIII
MEAN ATTITUDE DIFFERENCES OF THE TEACHERS ON THE MTAI

Teacher	(Mean)	Teacher	(Mean)	Difference*	P
1	(3.72)	2	(3.28)	.44	$p < .05$
1	(3.72)	3	(3.43)	.29	$p < .05$
1	(3.72)	4	(3.70)	.02	N.S.
1	(3.72)	5	(3.69)	.03	N.S.
1	(3.72)	6	(3.73)	.01	N.S.
2	(3.28)	3	(3.43)	.15	N.S.
2	(3.28)	4	(3.70)	.42	$p < .05$
2	(3.28)	5	(3.69)	.41	$p < .05$
2	(3.28)	6	(3.73)	.45	$p < .05$
3	(3.43)	4	(3.70)	.27	$p < .05$
3	(3.43)	5	(3.69)	.25	$p < .05$
3	(3.43)	6	(3.73)	.30	$p < .05$
4	(3.70)	5	(3.69)	.01	N.S.
4	(3.70)	6	(3.73)	.03	N.S.
5	(3.69)	6	(3.73)	.04	N.S.

*The calculated gap test critical difference between the means is .21.

#1, #4, #5, and #6. Teachers #2 and #3 were too close in mean attitude to be significantly different.

To define better the mean attitudes of the individual teachers, descriptive categories were devised for each of the five possible mean attitude levels of the teachers. The five-point scale used in the teacher survey had five different levels of agreement for the teacher's responses and a potential for a 1- to 5-point mean attitude score. A 1-point mean attitude score was "poor," 2-point score "fair," 3-point score "average," 4-point score "good," and 5-point score "very good."

Teacher #6 with a mean attitude of 3.73 was nearest "good"; teacher #1 with a mean attitude of 3.72, teacher #4 with a mean attitude of 3.70, and teacher #5 with a mean attitude of 3.69 were near "good"; teacher #3 with a mean attitude of 3.43 was nearer "average"; and teacher #2 with a mean attitude of 3.28 was nearest "average."

To determine the proportion of total variance explained by the different groups of scores of the individual teachers, eta was calculated. Eta was .18--in the low range. In this case, it appears that although there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the teachers, the relationship between attitude and teacher is low.

Students' Attitude Toward School

Variance analysis indicated a significant difference between at least two of the six classes of students in attitude toward school (Oklahoma Scales 1-3).

The obtained F-ratio of 2.52, $df=5/27$, probably would occur by chance less than 5 times in 100. The mean attitude-toward-school for each of the six classes of students was assigned a rank. Table IX shows the mean attitude and rank for each of the six classes of students. The eta, or proportion of total variation in student attitudes that was explained by the different classes to which they belonged was .30, which was in the low-moderate range.

TABLE IX
MEAN ATTITUDES TOWARD SCHOOL AND RANK POSITIONS
OF SIX CLASSES OF STUDENTS

	Class					
	4	1	6	3	5	2
Mean Attitudes	3.77	3.66	3.66	3.60	3.42	3.26
Rank Positions	1	2.50	2.50	4	5	6

The between-classes F-ratio of 2.52, $p < .05$, indicated only that a significantly different mean attitude existed between class #4 (3.77) and class #2 (3.26).

Difference-between-means tests revealed apparent significant differences between four pairs of classes. Table X, page 68, shows the combinations of class mean scores and whether the differences in mean attitude toward school were significant.

Five combinations of students or class mean scores on Oklahoma Scales 1-3 were found to be critically different. The largest number of differences between means was located between class #2 and classes #1, #3, #4, and #6. A critical difference was located between class #4 and #5 also. So attitude toward school seemingly was related to different teachers' classes in several instances. However, the strength of relationship at best can be characterized only as moderate ($\eta = .30$).

Students' Self-Concepts

Simple variance analysis of self-concepts among the six classes of students indicated the differences could have occurred by chance ($F = 1.01$, $p > .05$, $df = 5/127$).

The mean self-concepts and rank position for each of the six classes of students on Oklahoma Scales 4-6 are shown in Table XI, page 69.

The largest difference in mean self-concepts appeared between class #1 (3.65) and class #3 (3.33)--a distance of

TABLE X
DIFFERENCES IN MEAN ATTITUDE TOWARD SCHOOL
BETWEEN 15 PAIRS OF CLASSES

Class	(Mean)	Class	(Mean)	Difference*	P
1	(3.66)	2	(3.26)	.40	$p < .05$
1	(3.66)	3	(3.60)	.06	N.S.
1	(3.66)	4	(3.77)	.11	N.S.
1	(3.66)	5	(3.42)	.24	N.S.
1	(3.66)	6	(3.66)	.0	N.S.
2	(3.26)	3	(3.60)	.34	$p < .05$
2	(3.26)	4	(3.77)	.51	$p < .05$
2	(3.26)	5	(3.42)	.16	N.S.
2	(3.26)	6	(3.66)	.40	$p < .05$
3	(3.60)	4	(3.77)	.17	N.S.
3	(3.60)	5	(3.42)	.18	N.S.
3	(3.60)	6	(3.66)	.06	N.S.
4	(3.77)	5	(3.42)	.35	$p < .05$
4	(3.77)	6	(3.66)	.11	N.S.
5	(3.42)	6	(3.66)	.24	N.S.

*The calculated critical difference between means for the classes is .31.

.32, which very nearly approached significance. Difference between mean tests indicated also that classes #1 and #4, as well as #3 and #5, showed a strong tendency to vary significantly in self-concept.

TABLE XI
STUDENTS' MEAN ATTITUDES TOWARD SELF AND RANK VALUES

	Class					
	1	5	2	6	4	3
Score	3.65	3.60	3.40	3.40	3.38	3.33
Rank	1	2	3.50	3.50	5	6

But over-all, the relationship between the different teachers' classes and self-concept was weak ($\eta = .20$).

Teacher-Student Motivational Attitude Correlation

To determine the relationships between the motivational attitudes of the teachers with those of their students, three analyses were conducted.

Teacher (Responses to MTAI) Correlation
With Student Responses to Oklahoma
Scales 1-3 (Attitude Toward School)

To correlate the six mean scores of the teachers with the mean scores of their students on Oklahoma Scales 1-3, a Spearman-rho, Rank Difference Correlation was used. Table XII shows teacher mean scores on MTAI, students' mean attitudes toward school, and their rank values.

TABLE XII
 MEAN ATTITUDES OF TEACHERS AND STUDENTS AND RANK VALUES

Class No.	Teacher Scores (MTAI)	Students Scores (Scales 1-3)	Teacher Rank Value	Student Rank Value
1	3.72	3.66	2	2.50
2	3.28	3.26	6	6
3	3.43	3.60	5	4
4	3.70	3.77	3	1
5	3.69	3.42	4	5
6	3.73	3.66	1	2.50

rho

Teacher MTAI and Student Scales 1-3=.79, df=5, $p > .05$

The rho coefficient obtained in this correlation is .76. This correlation coefficient is high but does not exceed the probability of chance. With an N of 6 (pairs), 5 degrees of freedom ($N - 2$), the rho coefficient must exceed .900 at the .05 probability level and 1.000 at the .01 level to be considered significant.

Though not significant, a .79 correlation coefficient is high and indicates a possibility of a relationship between the over-all attitudes of the teachers and those of their students toward school.

Teacher (Responses to MTAI) Correlation
With Student Responses to Oklahoma
Scales 4-6 (Self-Concept)

Spearman rho Rank Difference Correlation of teachers' responses on the MTAI with their students' responses to Oklahoma Scales 4-6 (Self-Concept) was .36. Table XIII, page 72, shows teacher mean scores on the MTAI, student mean scores on Oklahoma Scales 4-6, and their rank values.

The rho coefficient obtained in this correlation was .36, which does not exceed the probability of chance. The relationship between teacher attitude and students' attitude toward self would probably be low-moderate at best in a larger-scale study. Certainly the variation in mean self-concepts of the six classes of students had little in common with variation in the six teachers' attitudes. In fact, nearly 90 per cent of the variation in students' self-concept,

in this study, would appear to be explained by factors other than teacher attitudes.

TABLE XIII
MEAN ATTITUDE OF TEACHERS, MEAN ATTITUDE OF
STUDENTS TOWARD SELF AND RANK VALUES

Class No.	Teacher Scores (MTAI)	Student Scores (Scales 4-6)	Teacher Rank Value	Student Rank Value
1	3.72	3.65	2	1
2	3.28	3.40	6	3.50
3	3.43	3.33	5	6
4	3.70	3.38	3	5
5	3.69	3.60	4	2
6	3.73	3.40	1	3.50

rho

Teachers' MTAI, Student Scales 4-6=.36, df=5, $p > .05$

Teacher (Responses to MTAI) Correlation
With Student Responses to Combined
Oklahoma Scales 1-6 (Attitude
Toward School and Self-Concept)

Spearman rho Rank Difference Correlation between the teachers' responses on the MTAI and their students' responses to combined Oklahoma Scales 1-6 (Attitude toward school and self-concept), was .83. Table XIV shows the teacher mean scores on the MTAI, the student mean scores on combined Scales 1-6, and their rank values.

TABLE XIV
 MEAN ATTITUDES OF COMBINED OKLAHOMA SCALES 1-6
 AND THEIR RANK VALUES

Class No.	Teacher Scores (MTAI)	Student Scores (Scales 1-6)	Teacher Rank Value	Student Rank Value
1	3.72	3.67	2	1
2	3.28	3.33	6	6
3	3.43	3.47	5	5
4	3.70	3.57	3	2
5	3.69	3.51	4	4
6	3.73	3.53	1	3

rho

Teachers' MTAI, Student Scales 1-6=.83, df=5, $p < .05$

Though insignificant in this study, the rho of .83 would be considered high and marked in a larger-scale study. Nearly 70 per cent of the variation in combined student attitudes would have been explained by teacher attitudes.

The three Spearman rho correlations have indicated possible relationships between the teachers' attitudes and their students' attitude toward school and between the teacher and a combination of the students' attitude toward school and self.

The rho coefficient obtained in the correlation of the teachers' attitudes with those of their students on combined scales 1-6 (attitude toward school and self-concept) was the highest at .83. Correlation between the teachers' attitudes and the students' attitude toward school produced the second highest rho coefficient with a .79 correlation coefficient.

The lowest relationship was found between the teachers' attitudes and students' self-concepts with a rho coefficient of .39. This coincided with the previous analyses of the students' scores on scales 4-6 (self-concept), and indicates that students of the individual teachers do not feel significantly different about themselves. The teachers of the six classes of students do not appear to have had as significant effect on their students' self-concepts as they had in their students' attitude toward school. There is less difference between the students' self-concepts, resulting in a less significant correlation between the teachers' attitudes and

the students' self-concepts than between the teachers' attitudes and their students' attitude toward school.

Although the correlation of the teachers' attitudes and their students' self-concepts was low and statistically insignificant, the mean scores and rank order of the classes on scales 4-6 (self-concept) contributed to the higher relationship between the teachers' attitudes and the students' attitudes on all scales combined 1-6. In other words, the insignificant relationship between the students' mean scores on scales 4-6 did not reduce the relationship between the teachers' attitudes and their students' attitudes on all scales combined 1-6, but rather helped raise it.

Relationship Between Students' Attitudes Toward School and Self-Concept

Using a Pearson r Product-Moment coefficient, the mean scores for each of the 133 students on scales 1-3 (Attitude Toward School) were correlated with the same 133 students' mean scores on scales 4-6 (Self-Concept).

The Product Moment coefficient of .50 was significant at the .01 probability level. Still, it must be pointed out that the coefficient of determination was .25--low but marked. This means that 25 per cent of the variation in Self-Concept scores was shared with Attitude Toward School. Therefore, other factors must be inferred to explain the bulk of variation in attitudes, though Self-Concept does seem positively related.

Summary

Over-all, positive relationships were found between teacher and student attitudes--though some were rather weak.

Attitudes did vary significantly among the teachers, but the relationship of attitudes and teachers was low. Only 3 per cent of the variation in attitudes was explained by the different teachers responding to the MTAI scale. In other words, the teachers differed, but not strongly. The differences involved teachers of Class Numbers 1, 4, 5, and 6--all of whom showed significantly more positive attitudes than teachers of Class Numbers 2 and 3, and an equally positive attitude among themselves. Likewise, teachers of Class Numbers 2 and 3 held similar attitudes, though less positive than the other four teachers.

Mean attitude toward school of the six classes of students differed significantly, but the relationship between attitude and the different classes likewise was rather low. The Eta of .30 indicated that only 9 per cent of the variation in mean attitude was explained by the different classes in which the students attended.

Students in Class Numbers 1, 3, 4 and 6 held similar attitudes toward school, and these attitudes were more positive than those of students in Class Numbers 2 and 5. Class Number 4 also showed a more positive attitude than Class Number 5, but Class Number 5 did not differ significantly from Numbers 1, 2, 3, or 6.

On Self-Concept, the six classes of students did not significantly differ, although Class Numbers 1 and 5 tended to hold a higher attitude toward self than did the others. But, in essence, self-concept seemed to be in weak relation to class and thus to the individual teacher.

The above findings point out the difference in mean attitude as well as a rough picture of relationship between the differences and the teachers under which the students studied.

Turning to correlation analysis, which does not pertain to differences, but to concomitant variation between teacher and student attitudes, the author gained a clearer but somewhat similar picture of relationships.

The rho rank-order coefficient of .76 indicated that the more positive the attitudes of teachers, the more positive were the attitudes of students toward school. The small N rendered the rho coefficient insignificant, but the absolute high-marked relationship cannot be ignored.

The correlation between teacher attitude and student self-concepts was low-moderate at best, with a rho of .36. This falls in line with the low, non-significant relationship found between the mean attitudes toward self by the six classes of students.

The correlation between teacher attitude and students' responses to combined scales 1-6 (attitudes of students toward school and student self-concepts) was high and marked, with a rho of .83. The small N rendered the rho coefficient

insignificant, but it is the highest-marked relationship between the attitudes of the teachers and students. Although the relationship between teacher attitude and student self-concept was low, the mean attitudes and rank order produced by a combination of scales 1-6 contributed to the correlation between attitudes of the teachers and the students' attitudes combined.

The Pearson r Product-Moment coefficient of .50 indicated a significant relationship between the attitudes of the students toward school and self.

The correlation is significant at the .01 probability level, but it only accounts for 25 per cent of the variance in self-concept scores that was shared with attitude toward school. There appears to be a positive relationship between the attitudes of the students toward school and self, but this relationship does not explain most of the variation in attitudes.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study explored the relationships among the motivational attitudes of elementary teachers and their students. A portion of the study compared the relationship between attitudes of the teachers and their students. A comparison was also made between attitudes of classes of students.

The teachers were surveyed individually on their combined attitudes related to teaching. The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI) was used to determine the individual teacher's attitudes; presumed to be an indicant of the teacher's classroom climate. The score and rank assigned to each teacher were indicative of the teacher's ability to create a classroom climate conducive to positive student motivation.

A mean attitude was calculated for each teacher from their responses to the 150 items of the MTAI. In the first analysis of variance, teachers were used as treatment groups; scale items were treated as subjects. The teachers' attitudes were the independent variables in the correlations between the teachers' and students' attitudes.

The 133 fifth and sixth grade students were surveyed on two attitudes or variables; attitude toward school and self-concept. The Oklahoma Scales, consisting of six subscales,

was administered to the students. Each student was assigned a mean attitude for his or her responses to the 80 items of the Oklahoma Scales. Each student was also assigned a mean attitude for responses to scales 1-3 (attitude toward school) and scales 4-6 (self-concept).

The students' mean attitudes toward school and self were dependent variables in the correlations between the attitudes of the teachers and students. The mean attitudes of the students toward school and self were both independent variables in the correlation between these two attitudes of the students alone; their relationship was the dependent variable.

The first portion of the study correlates the assigned mean attitude rank values of the teachers with those of the students on scales 1-3 (attitude toward school), 4-6 (self-concept) and all scales combined 1-6. The second portion of the study correlates the mean attitudes of the students on scales 1-3 (attitude toward school) with scales 4-6 (self-concept). These correlations and a number of other analyses were tabulated with these mean attitudes.

Findings

Literature Review

A review of student motivation literature furnished supportive information pertinent to an investigation of motivational attitudes.

Regarding the role of today's educational system, literature indicates the operation of many school systems is being criticized. This criticism is directed primarily at most school systems' and teachers' failure to produce students with both academic and psychological development. Low achievement and lack of positive student motivation most commonly characterizes the condition of many school systems.

Several new educational techniques have been suggested for incorporation into local school systems. These new techniques or "new educations" all appear to have a similar purpose. They propose that students be trained for psychological development as well as academic learning. Although these new educations are directed at different areas of the student's psychological development, they each seek to produce students with a well developed combination of academic training and psychologically/socially well adjusted behavior. They all appear to promote positive student motivation through the ultimate enrichment of a student's self-concept.

Regarding suggestions for classroom teacher behavior to increase positive student motivation, three conditions appear to characterize most commonly a positively motivating classroom climate. The concern of the teacher for the well-being of his or her students, a classroom environment of acceptance, and interpersonal relationships among the teacher and students are most commonly suggested. These classroom conditions are, again, proposed for the enrichment of students' self-concepts.

Student self-concept is reported to be the most significant variable of both academic information learning and positively motivated behavior. Self-concept, as most authors seem to agree, is an attitude.

Differences Between the Teachers and Between the Students

An investigation of the motivational attitudes among the elementary teachers and students produced a number of findings.

The teachers varied significantly in attitudes, but the relationship between attitudes and teachers was low. Only 3 per cent of the variation in attitudes was explained by different teachers responding to the MTAI. The teachers differed, but not strongly.

Significant differences were found between six pairs of teachers. The greatest difference in attitudes was found between teachers #2 and #3 and the other teachers. Teachers #1, #4, #5, and #6 all showed equally positive attitudes and were significantly more positive than teachers #2 and #3. The attitudes of teachers #2 and #3 were significantly less positive and similar.

Personal observation by the author may contribute to a clearer picture of the individual teachers. For example, teacher #2 impressed the author as being the least positive in his attitudes, which coincides with his responses to the MTAI. Teacher #2 was the youngest and least experienced

teacher. He appeared to have a low self-concept. He was not introverted, but he did not appear to be very proud of himself. When asked what position he holds, he replied, "Oh, I'm just a fifth grade teacher." Teacher #2 responded as "undecided" on MTAI scale items most frequently of the teachers.

Teacher #3, whose attitudes were similar to teacher #2, appeared to be a very "neutral" person. He was quite conservative and appeared to be more introverted than some of the other teachers. His self-concept was not obviously low, and his intelligence was not obviously high. He totaled the highest number of "agree" and "disagree" responses in opposition to the direction of MTAI scale items.

Teacher #1, who shared equally positive attitudes with teachers #4, #5, and #6, definitely appeared to be the most introverted of the six teachers. He was extremely quiet and interacted the least with other teachers. He appeared to interact more with his students than with adults. His students appeared very fond of him. His self-concept did not impress the author as low, but he was uncommonly timid. He had the second-highest positive attitude, and therefore was not as "undecided" as he appeared. He totaled the highest number of "agree" and "disagree" responses in accordance with the direction of MTAI scale items.

Teacher #4 shared equally positive attitudes with teachers #1, #5, and #6. Teachers #4 and #1 are brothers. Teacher #4 was more aggressive than his brother but less aggressive

than teachers #5 and #6. His interaction with other teachers was minimal, although he was not timid. His personality was pleasant, and he appeared to have a high self-concept. His students appeared fond of him.

Teachers #5 and #6, who shared equally positive attitudes with teachers #1 and #4, impressed the author as the most self-confident of the six teachers. Teacher #5 was not an "old timer," but he did have the most years of teaching experience. Teacher #5, like teachers #1, #3, and #4, was a middle-aged male. He was observed interacting with other teachers more often than the other male teachers and appeared at ease with students. The author considered him and teacher #6 the strictest or strongest disciplinarians of the teachers. He, too, was quiet but not timid.

Teacher #6, on the other hand, was not quiet. She was a very pleasant person and appeared the most aggressive of the six teachers. The author suspected that she was the strongest opinion leader of the teachers. She was the only female of the six teachers. Her attitudes were the most positive; her mean attitude was the highest. She totaled the highest number of "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree" responses in accordance with the direction of MTAI scale items.

Mean attitude toward school of the six classes of students differed significantly, but the relationship between attitude and the different classes was rather low. Only 9 per cent of the variation in mean attitude was explained by the different classes to which the students belonged.

Attitudes toward school were similar and more positive by students in classes #1, #3, #4, and #6 than students in classes #2 and #5. Class #4 was significantly more positive in attitude than class #5, but class #5 was not significantly different from classes #1, #2, #3, or #6.

The mean attitudes of the classes were, over-all, lower on self-concept than on attitude toward school. The six classes of students did not differ significantly in their self-concepts. Classes #1 and #5 tended to hold a higher attitude toward self than did the others, but the relationship between self-concept and the different classes was low. Nearly 90 per cent of the variation in students' self-concept would appear to be explained by factors other than teacher attitude. Thus, student self-concept seemed to be in weak relation to the individual teacher.

Teacher-Student Relationships

The correlation between the attitudes of teachers and students presented a somewhat similar picture.

The first rho rank-order coefficient of .76 indicated that the more positive the attitudes of the teachers, the more positive were the attitudes of their students toward school. The small number of teachers in the study sample rendered the rho coefficient insignificant, but the relationship was definitely high and marked. The attitudes of the teachers appeared to have a definite positive effect on the attitudes of their students toward school.

The second correlation indicated a low relationship between the attitudes of the teachers and their students' self-concepts. The rho coefficient of .36 was low and non-significant. The non-significance of this relationship coincides with the non-significant differences between the attitudes of the students toward self. The attitudes of the teachers appear to have little effect on the self-concepts of their students.

The third correlation between the attitudes of the teachers and the combined attitudes of the students indicated a high-marked relationship. Due to the small N, the rho coefficient of .83 was rendered insignificant, but the relationship was definitely high. The combining of the students' attitudes toward school and self appears to have rendered mean attitudes that contributed to the correlation between the teachers and students on combined scales 1-6.

Student Attitude Toward School--
Self-Concept Correlation

The relationship between the students alone on their attitudes toward school and self was significant at the .01 probability level with an r coefficient of .50. Such a relationship would probably occur less than 1 time in 100. However, the coefficient of determination of the correlation was only .25. In other words, only 25 per cent of the variance in the self-concept scores is shared with attitude toward school. There appears to be a positive relationship

between the attitudes of the students toward school and self, but the relationship does not explain much of the variance in the students' scores. Other factors must be considered when explaining the differences between the students' class scores.

Conclusions

Over-all, positive relationships were found between teacher and student attitudes--though some were rather weak. Findings from this study indicated a strong relationship between the attitudes of the teachers and their students' attitudes toward school. The correlation was not statistically significant but was high enough to indicate strongly that attitudes of the teachers do positively affect their students' attitudes toward school.

The small N, or number of teachers in the study, caused the required levels of probability to be a near perfect .900 at the .05 level. In a larger study, the relationship would definitely be significant.

The correlation between the teachers' attitudes and their students' self-concepts was, on the other hand, not significant or high. There was little indication of a relationship between the teachers and their students on these variables.

Personal observation by the author, when hand-grading the 133 student answer sheets, may contribute to a better understanding of the difference between the two correlations. Numerous students appeared to have become less concerned about

their responses as they neared the end of the Oklahoma Scales Survey. The second half of the survey was designed to measure self-concept; thus, the over-all lower scores calculated for student self-concept. If this observation is justified, it may account partially for the weaker relationship between the teachers and their students' self-concepts.

The small N of the third correlation between the attitudes of the teachers and the students rendered a non-significant but high relationship. The relationship between the teachers' attitudes and their students' attitudes toward school and self (combined scales 1-6) was, surprisingly, the strongest teacher-student relationship observed. With a correlation coefficient of .83, it was very near the .05 significance level. The author concludes that, although the correlation between the teachers' attitudes and their students' self-concepts was low, the mean attitudes produced by a combination of the scores contributed to the high correlation discovered between the teachers and the students' combined attitudes (scales 1-6).

The concomitant variation between the attitudes of students toward school and self correlated to produce a significant relationship.

It must be remembered that the correlation between the students on their attitudes toward school and self did not require rank order and included a much larger sample of scores for comparison. This large N rendered a lower r necessary to

exceed the probability of chance and thus, the significant relationship.

There is definitely a relationship between the attitudes of the students toward school and self, but it must be pointed out that only a fourth of the variation in the scores is explained by the relationship.

The author concludes that the attitudes of teachers are related to student motivation. Attitudes of teachers do, in fact, affect the attitudes of their students; positive relationships do exist between the attitudes of teachers and students toward school and self.

The correlation of teachers' attitudes with students' self-concepts failed to produce a high relationship, but this was due, in part, to the small N of the study and the location of the self-concept items as the second half of the scales. The significant relationship found between the attitudes of the students toward school and self indicates that a significant relationship would be found between the attitudes of teachers and students' self-concepts in a larger study with different testing conditions.

The author does not feel that personality differences are as indicative of a teacher's ability to motivate students as are a teacher's personal attitudes toward himself. Certainly a combination of attitudes determine a teacher's motivation ability, but the teacher's self-concept will largely determine those attitudes which affect the motivation of his students.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the author offers the following recommendations:

1. The relationship between the attitudes of a teacher (particularly his self-concept) and the motivation of students should be recognized and considered by administrators when employing faculty.
2. The classroom behavior and attitudes of teachers (particularly elementary teachers) should be closely observed during employment.
3. The importance of a classroom climate conducive to positive student motivation should be frequently emphasized to classroom teachers by school administration. This should be stressed on all grade levels, but particularly in the elementary school.
4. The relationship between the students' self-concepts and achievement should be strongly emphasized to all teachers on all grade levels.
5. Teacher workshops should be offered to familiarize teachers with motivational teaching behavior and materials. This activity is recommended for all grade levels.
6. When administering the Oklahoma Scales, elementary teachers should furnish a break for the

students at the survey's half-way point.

Teachers of all grade levels should stress the importance of the students' attention and concern throughout the survey.

7. Regarding activities and services furnished by a school program directed at motivating students, special attention is recommended for elementary teachers and students.
8. When purchasing motivational or "new education" materials, those materials which help students make personal decisions while enhancing their self-concepts is recommended.

It is hoped that this study and its recommendations will provide the Pawhuska, Oklahoma, Schools and other school systems a greater awareness of the importance of teachers' attitudes to the process of student motivation. The development of student attitudes is most easily accomplished on the elementary school level. A positive self-concept, developed in the elementary school, will provide more long-range student motivation.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

MINNESOTA TEACHER ATTITUDE INVENTORY

MINNESOTA TEACHER ATTITUDE INVENTORY

Form A

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DIRECTIONS

This inventory consists of 150 statements designed to sample opinions about teacher-pupil relations. There is considerable disagreement as to what these relations should be; therefore, there are no right or wrong answers. What is wanted is your own individual feeling about the statements. Read each statement and decide how YOU feel about it. Then mark your answer on the space provided on the answer sheet. Do not make any marks on this booklet.

If you strongly agree, blacken space under "SA"

If you agree, blacken space under "A"

If you are undecided or uncertain, blacken space under "U"

If you disagree, blacken space under "D"

If you strongly disagree, blacken space under "SD"

SA--Strongly agree U--Undecided D--Disagree
 A--Agree or uncertain SD--Strongly disagree

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- | | |
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| 1. Most children are obedient. | 13. The first lesson a child needs to learn is to obey the teacher without hesitation. |
| 2. Pupils who "act smart" probably have too high an opinion of themselves. | 14. Young people are difficult to understand these days. |
| 3. Minor disciplinary situations should sometimes be turned into jokes. | 15. There is too great an emphasis upon "keeping order" in the classroom. |
| 4. Shyness is preferable to boldness. | 16. A pupil's failure is seldom the fault of the teacher. |
| 5. Teaching never gets monotonous. | 17. There are times when a teacher cannot be blamed for losing patience with a pupil. |
| 6. Most pupils don't appreciate what a teacher does for them. | 18. A teacher should never discuss sex problems with the pupils. |
| 7. If the teacher laughs with the pupils in amusing classroom situations, the class tends to get out of control. | 19. Pupils have it too easy in the modern school. |
| 8. A child's companionships can be too carefully supervised. | 20. A teacher should not be expected to burden himself with a pupil's problems. |
| 9. A child should be encouraged to keep his likes and dislikes to himself. | 21. Pupils expect too much help from the teacher in getting their lessons. |
| 10. It sometimes does a child good to be criticized in the presence of other pupils. | 22. A teacher should not be expected to sacrifice an evening of recreation in order to visit a child's home. |
| 11. Unquestioning obedience in a child is not desirable. | 23. Most pupils do not make an adequate effort to prepare their lessons. |
| 12. Pupils should be required to do more studying at home. | |

24. Too many children nowadays are allowed to have their own way.
25. Children's wants are just as important as those of an adult.
26. The teacher is usually to blame when pupils fail to follow directions.
27. A child should be taught to obey an adult without question.
28. The boastful child is usually over-confident of his ability.
29. Children have a natural tendency to be unruly.
30. A teacher cannot place much faith in the statements of pupils.
31. Some children ask too many questions.
32. A pupil should not be required to stand when reciting.
33. The teacher should not be expected to manage a child if the latter's parents are unable to do so.
34. A teacher should never acknowledge his ignorance of a topic in the presence of his pupils.
35. Discipline in the modern school is not as strict as it should be.
36. Most pupils lack productive imagination.
37. Standards of work should vary with the pupil.
38. The majority of children take their responsibilities seriously.
39. To maintain good discipline in the classroom a teacher needs to be "hard-boiled."
40. Success is more motivating than failure.
41. Imaginative tales demand the same punishment as lying.
42. Every pupil in the sixth grade should have sixth grade reading ability.
43. A good motivating device is the critical comparison of a pupil's work with that of other pupils.
44. It is better for a child to be bashful than to be "boy or girl crazy."
45. Course grades should never be lowered as punishment.
46. More "old-fashioned whippings" are needed today.
47. The child must learn that "teacher knows best."
48. Increased freedom in the classroom creates confusion.
49. A teacher should not be expected to be sympathetic toward truants.
50. Teachers should exercise more authority over their pupils than they do.

51. Discipline problems are the teacher's greatest worry.
52. The low achiever probably is not working hard enough and applying himself.
53. There is too much emphasis on grading.
54. Most children lack common courtesy toward adults.
55. Aggressive children are the greatest problems.
56. At times it is necessary that the whole class suffer when the teacher is unable to identify the culprit.
57. Many teachers are not severe enough in their dealings with pupils.
58. Children "should be seen and not heard."
59. A teacher should always have at least a few failures.
60. It is easier to correct discipline problems than it is to prevent them.
61. Children are usually too sociable in the classroom.
62. Most pupils are resourceful when left on their own.
63. Too much nonsense goes on in many classrooms these days.
64. The school is often to blame in cases of truancy.
65. Children are too care-free.
66. Pupils who fail to prepare their lessons daily should be kept after school to make this preparation.
67. Pupils who are foreigners usually make the teacher's task more unpleasant.
68. Most children would like to use good English.
69. Assigning additional school work is often an effective means of punishment.
70. Dishonesty as found in cheating is probably one of the most serious of moral offenses.
71. Children should be allowed more freedom in their execution of learning activities.
72. Pupils must learn to respect teachers if for no other reason than that they are teachers.
73. Children need not always understand the reasons for social conduct.
74. Pupils usually are not qualified to select their own topics for themes and reports.
75. No child should rebel against authority.

76. There is too much leniency today in the handling of children.
77. Difficult disciplinary problems are seldom the fault of the teacher.
78. The whims and impulsive desires of children are usually worthy of attention.
79. Children usually have a hard time following instructions.
80. Children nowadays are allowed too much freedom in school.
81. All children should start to read by the age of seven.
82. Universal promotion of pupils lowers achievement standards.
83. Children are unable to reason adequately.
84. A teacher should not tolerate use of slang expressions by his pupils.
85. The child who misbehaves should be made to feel guilty and ashamed of himself.
86. If a child wants to speak or to leave his seat during the class period, he should always get permission from the teacher.
87. Pupils should not respect teachers any more than any other adults.
88. Throwing of chalk and erasers should always demand severe punishment.
89. Teachers who are liked best probably have a better understanding of their pupils.
90. Most pupils try to make things easier for the teacher.
91. Most teachers do not give sufficient explanation in their teaching.
92. There are too many activities lacking in academic respectability that are being introduced into the curriculum of the modern school.
93. Children should be given more freedom in the classroom than they usually get.
94. Most pupils are unnecessarily thoughtless relative to the teacher's wishes.
95. Children should not expect talking privileges when adults wish to speak.
96. Pupils are usually slow to "catch on" to new material.
97. Teachers are responsible for knowing the home conditions of every one of their pupils.
98. Pupils can be very boring at times.

99. Children have no business asking questions about sex.
100. Children must be told exactly what to do and how to do it.
101. Most pupils are considerate of their teachers.
102. Whispering should not be tolerated.
103. Shy pupils especially should be required to stand when reciting.
104. Teachers should consider problems of conduct more seriously than they do.
105. A teacher should never leave the class to its own management.
106. A teacher should not be expected to do more work than he is paid for.
107. There is nothing that can be more irritating than some pupils.
108. "Lack of application" is probably one of the most frequent causes for failure.
109. Young people nowadays are too frivolous.
110. As a rule teachers are too lenient with their pupils.
111. Slow pupils certainly try one's patience.
112. Grading is of value because of the competition element.
113. Pupils like to annoy the teacher.
114. Children usually will not think for themselves.
115. Classroom rules and regulations must be considered inviolable.
116. Most pupils have too easy a time of it and do not learn to do real work.
117. Children are so likeable that their shortcomings can usually be overlooked.
118. A pupil found writing obscene notes should be severely punished.
119. A teacher seldom finds children really enjoyable.
120. There is usually one best way to do school work which all pupils should follow.
121. It isn't practicable to base school work upon children's interests.
122. It is difficult to understand why some children want to come to school so early in the morning before opening time.
123. Children that cannot meet the school standards should be dropped.

124. Children are usually too inquisitive.
125. It is sometimes necessary to break promises made to children.
126. Children today are given too much freedom.
127. One should be able to get along with almost any child.
128. Children are not mature enough to make their own decisions.
129. A child who bites his nails needs to be shamed.
130. Children will think for themselves if permitted.
131. There is no excuse for the extreme sensitivity of some children.
132. Children just cannot be trusted.
133. Children should be given reasons for the restrictions placed upon them.
134. Most pupils are not interested in learning.
135. It is usually the uninteresting and difficult subjects that will do the pupil the most good.
136. A pupil should always be fully aware of what is expected of him.
137. There is too much intermingling of the sexes in extra-curricular activities.
138. The child who stutters should be given the opportunity to recite oftener.
139. The teacher should disregard the complaints of the child who constantly talks about imaginary illnesses.
140. Teachers probably over-emphasize the seriousness of such pupil behavior as the writing of obscene notes.
141. Teachers should not expect pupils to like them.
142. Children act more civilized than do many adults.
143. Aggressive children require the most attention.
144. Teachers can be in the wrong as well as pupils.
145. Young people today are just as good as those of the past generation.
146. Keeping discipline is not the problem that many teachers claim it to be.
147. A pupil has the right to disagree openly with his teachers.
148. Most pupil misbehavior is done to annoy the teacher.
149. One should not expect pupils to enjoy school.
150. In pupil appraisal effort should not be distinguished from scholarship.

APPENDIX B

OKLAHOMA SCALES 1-6

YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT SCHOOL

PLEASE MARK THE LETTER ON YOUR ANSWER SHEET
THAT BEST SHOWS HOW MUCH YOU AGREE OR
DISAGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS:
PLEASE DO NOT MARK YOUR ANSWERS ON THIS
TEST BOOKLET.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Agree as much as disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. I like school	A	B	C	D	E
2. I wish I didn't have to go to school	A	B	C	D	E
3. Time spent in school is time wasted	A	B	C	D	E
4. Nothing is more important to me than doing well in school	A	B	C	D	E
5. I hate homework and other extra work	A	B	C	D	E
6. I don't care how well I do in school	A	B	C	D	E
7. I enjoy working on most of my school projects	A	B	C	D	E
8. Most of the things I learn in school are important	A	B	C	D	E
9. It's fun to be at school	A	B	C	D	E
10. Nothing you learn in school is very important	A	B	C	D	E
11. I would rather do anything than study	A	B	C	D	E
12. School won't help me with what I want to do in life	A	B	C	D	E
13. School is dull and boring	A	B	C	D	E
14. Most of my school work is a waste of time	A	B	C	D	E
15. I would rather have a job than go to school	A	B	C	D	E
16. Doing well in school is important to me	A	B	C	D	E
17. I do only as much work as I need to to get by in school	A	B	C	D	E

YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT SCHOOL

PLEASE MARK THE LETTER ON YOUR ANSWER SHEET THAT BEST SHOWS HOW MUCH YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS: PLEASE DO NOT MARK YOUR ANSWERS ON THIS TEST BOOKLET.

- | | Strongly agree | Agree | Agree as much as disagree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|----------------|-------|---------------------------|----------|-------------------|
| 18. You can't expect to get anywhere in life if you don't do well in school | A | B | C | D | E |
| 19. The things we learn in school are interesting | A | B | C | D | E |
| 20. There is nothing I would rather do than go to school | A | B | C | D | E |
| 21. The only interesting thing in school is my friends | A | B | C | D | E |

YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT YOURSELF AS A STUDENT

PLEASE MARK THE LETTER ON YOUR ANSWER SHEET THAT BEST SHOWS HOW MUCH YOU FEEL EACH OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS IS LIKE YOU: PLEASE DO NOT MARK YOUR ANSWER ON THIS TEST BOOKLET.

- | | Very much like me | Quite a bit like me | Somewhat like me | Not much like me | Not at all like me |
|---|-------------------|---------------------|------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| 22. I am a good student | A | B | C | D | E |
| 23. I do most things well | A | B | C | D | E |
| 24. My study periods are usually well spent | A | B | C | D | E |
| 25. I get bored easily with most things I start | A | B | C | D | E |
| 26. I am a hard worker | A | B | C | D | E |

YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT YOURSELF AS A STUDENT

PLEASE MARK THE LETTER ON YOUR ANSWER SHEET
THAT BEST SHOWS HOW MUCH YOU FEEL EACH OF
THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS IS LIKE YOU:
PLEASE DO NOT MARK YOUR ANSWER ON THIS
TEST BOOKLET.

- | | Very much like me | Quite a bit like me | Somewhat like me | Not much like me | Not at all like me |
|--|-------------------|---------------------|------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| 27. I need help with most of my school work . | A | B | C | D | E |
| 28. I like to do a good job on anything I
start | A | B | C | D | E |
| 29. I have trouble making myself study when I
know I should | A | B | C | D | E |
| 30. I don't know how to study | A | B | C | D | E |
| 31. I give up quickly if I don't understand
something | A | B | C | D | E |
| 32. I do as well in school as my teacher
expects me to | A | B | C | D | E |
| 33. I am not interested in many things we do
in school | A | B | C | D | E |
| 34. I usually plan my work well in school . . | A | B | C | D | E |
| 35. I try to be careful about my work | A | B | C | D | E |
| 36. I can't work on one thing for very long . | A | B | C | D | E |
| 37. My school work is too hard for me | A | B | C | D | E |
| 38. When I start something I stay with it
until I finish it | A | B | C | D | E |
| 39. I am proud of the way I do my work . . . | A | B | C | D | E |
| 40. I feel that I am doing well in school . . | A | B | C | D | E |

YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT YOURSELF

PLEASE MARK THE LETTER ON YOUR ANSWER SHEET
THAT BEST SHOWS HOW MUCH YOU FEEL EACH OF
THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS IS LIKE YOU:
PLEASE DO NOT MARK YOUR ANSWERS ON THIS
TEST BOOKLET.

Very much like me
Quite a bit like me
Somewhat like me
Not much like me
Not at all like me

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 41. Sometimes I am too careless | A | B | C | D | E |
| 42. I can do most things well | A | B | C | D | E |
| 43. I feel I am just as important as anyone else | A | B | C | D | E |
| 44. I have trouble deciding what is right | A | B | C | D | E |
| 45. I am pretty sure of myself | A | B | C | D | E |
| 46. There are a lot of things about myself I would
change if I could | A | B | C | D | E |
| 47. I become discouraged rather easily | A | B | C | D | E |
| 48. I am good at figuring things out for myself . | A | B | C | D | E |
| 49. I like myself the way I am | A | B | C | D | E |
| 50. I don't understand why I do some of the things
I do | A | B | C | D | E |
| 51. I have a lot of self-confidence | A | B | C | D | E |
| 52. I feel good about myself | A | B | C | D | E |
| 53. I can usually take care of myself | A | B | C | D | E |
| 54. Sometimes I wish I were someone else | A | B | C | D | E |
| 55. I don't have any good ideas | A | B | C | D | E |
| 56. I am generally sure of my ability | A | B | C | D | E |
| 57. If people really knew me, I don't see how they
could like me | A | B | C | D | E |
| 58. I often wonder if I am doing the right thing | A | B | C | D | E |

		Very much like me	Quite a bit like me	Somewhat like me	Not much like me	Not at all like me
59.	I don't have a lot of self-confidence . . .	A	B	C	D	E
60.	I like being me	A	B	C	D	E
61.	I don't know for sure what I believe in . .	A	B	C	D	E
62.	I need help with most things I do	A	B	C	D	E
63.	I am not a very nice person	A	B	C	D	E
64.	I feel I have a pretty good understanding of what life is all about	A	B	C	D	E
65.	I can't seem to do anything right	A	B	C	D	E
66.	I am proud of myself most of the time . . .	A	B	C	D	E
67.	I don't trust my own feelings, because they are too often wrong	A	B	C	D	E
68.	There is nothing about me anyone could like	A	B	C	D	E
69.	Sometimes I feel I really don't understand myself	A	B	C	D	E
70.	Things I do never turn out right	A	B	C	D	E
71.	I don't like myself	A	B	C	D	E
72.	I think I know myself fairly well	A	B	C	D	E
73.	I give up too easily	A	B	C	D	E
74.	There are a lot of things about me I really like	A	B	C	D	E
75.	I usually know what is right for me	A	B	C	D	E
76.	I doubt that I will ever amount to anything	A	B	C	D	E

- | | | Very much like me | Quite a bit like me | Somewhat like me | Not much like me | Not at all like me |
|-----|--|-------------------|---------------------|------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| 77. | I often do things without thinking | A | B | C | D | E |
| 78. | I feel I have a very deep understanding
of things | A | B | C | D | E |
| 79. | I know where I am going in life | A | B | C | D | E |
| 80. | I usually think before I act | A | B | C | D | E |

VITA 8

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