

MOTIVATION
IN THE CLASSROOM

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

After teaching for a number of years in various high schools the writer has noted what is felt to be a need for improved motivational methods in the secondary schools. As Ringness¹ has pointed out in a recent study, whenever we try to formalize activities through restrictions and requirements as to grade average, as to achievement in terms of "passing" or "failing", and as to using just the ears in acquiring information we are doing very little to motivate the student or to produce within him any great desire to learn the material at hand. It will, therefore, be attempted to devise a list of motivational principles and devices which can be used in the classroom to implement present methods of teaching and thereby to increase the effectiveness of instruction. Before an attempt is made to develop such a list, an investigation of the current literature on the subject will be made to determine the status of motivational work in the field today. Such an investigation should determine whether a need for improved use of known motivational techniques actually exists, and, if so, what can be done to improve them.

The Problem

The problem then resolves itself into two definite parts in answer to the two questions "What is the status of classroom motivation?" and

¹T. A. Ringness, "Maybe We Should Let Football into the Classroom," Nation's Schools, 50:82-84, September, 1952.

"What specific techniques and devices are available for motivation?".

The procedures used to answer these questions will be to:

1. Make a study to determine what authorities think concerning the place of motivation in effective learning.
2. Investigate the status of motivation in the secondary schools of today.
3. Make a study of the reports of authorities to determine what they consider to be the best techniques and devices for producing motivation.
4. Compile a list of such devices and techniques and present in such a form that it may be of use to classroom teachers.

The Purpose

It is the purpose of this inquiry to investigate the literature in the field of motivation and to present a compilation of practical but flexible list of suggestions which can be used as a guide by classroom teachers to assure proper motivation before actual instruction is undertaken. It is believed that a translation of present knowledge of basic principles of the learning process, child development, and educational psychology into a practical set of suggestions for classroom motivational techniques can be achieved.

The writer feels, from past teaching experience and from observation, that a need for better motivational procedures has existed in the past and continues to exist today. If such is the case, perhaps present practice does not apply present knowledge to teaching procedures, and any suggestions for practical motivational techniques should be a contribution to better teaching methods and to more efficient learning.

Previous Studies

Many of the past studies such as those made by Seward¹ and Simpson² on motivation have been either too technical and clothed in advanced psychological terms, or have been too involved in trying to substantiate one of the various theories of learning. Other studies such as those conducted by Veroff³ and Scates⁴ are too limited in scope to be of much value to the classroom teacher. Both of these studies deal with using tests as motivators, and, although tests can be so used, they form only one very small segment of the total devices that can be used for such purpose.

Because of the technical nature of previous studies, such as those cited above, it is felt that the practicality of these studies in presenting usable material has been definitely limited. Perhaps the very nature of a study of motivating procedures and practices will tend to lead one into very technical avenues, but it is felt that the

¹James P. Seward, "Experimental Evidence for the Motivating Function of Reward," Psychological Bulletin, 48:130-49, March, 1951.

²R. H. Simpson, "Evaluation of Motivation, Assignment Making, Problem Procedures, and Service Learning in a School System," Journal of Educational Research, 44:1-13, September, 1950.

³J. Veroff and others, "Achievement Motive in High School and College Age Women," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 48:108-19, January, 1953.

⁴D. E. Scates and others, "Developing a Depth Questionnaire to Explore Motivation and Likelihood of Action," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 12 No 4:620-31, 1952.

implications of past studies can be stated in a manner that will be of a more practical use to the classroom teacher.

The Importance of the Problem

That motivation is intrinsically linked with learning, and is therefore a very important aspect of any learning situation, can hardly be denied. When the strength of the abundant evidence produced by psychologists and educators is considered, it becomes even more evident that motivation is indeed a very important problem in the eyes of school people. Gates has this to say of the important part of motivation in learning:

Some discussions of the dynamics of learning seem to imply that motivation is something "added" to an otherwise apothetic attempt at learning in order to speed up and sustain the process. Such an interpretation is untrue, for basically there is no such thing as unmotivated learning. Efforts to improve, it is true, are more or less energized, or well or poorly directed, but the difference is in degree and not in kind. Motivation is the sine quo non of learning.⁵

In continuing with the same line of thought, a little later in his book Gates makes the following statements relevant to the importance of motivation:

Learning cannot be successful or efficient without persistent selective, and purposeful effort. There is no more important problem in teaching, therefore, than that of motivation. This means, as Dewey pointed out, that "attentive care must be given to the condition which gives each experience a worthwhile meaning."

⁵Arthur I. Gates and others, Educational Psychology (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1949), p. 300.

Half the battle of teaching and learning would be won by creating an interest in improvement and making correct usage and effective expression a desirable goal in itself, or essential for the attainment of other valued ends.⁶

Salisbury⁷ doesn't mention motivation as a factor which influences learning but he does state many times that all activity is goal directed and the more clearly we recognize the goal the more strenuous will be the activity. He also indicates that the goals are directed or influenced by the learners needs. This is really another way of saying that students must have goals to reach and must clearly recognize these goals as desirable if they are to be driven or motivated toward certain behavior patterns.

Otto is more explicit in naming motivation as a factor and when he mentions motivation his remarks closely parallel those of Salisbury. Following are some of Otto's statements which show the importance of motivation in the guiding of learning:

All learning involves motives. The motive in a given learning situation determines the quality and direction of the activity that will be carried out. The strength is usually related to the needs of the child. To motivate learning is to make use of already existing motives or to stimulate the discovery of new ones. [Since needs, interests, desires, and goals result in part from earlier experiences, the teacher, by selecting activities within the framework of the learners needs, may greatly influence future desires and interests.]⁸

⁶Ibid., p. 306.

⁷Frank S. Salisbury, Human Development and Learning, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939), pp. 311-353.

⁸Henry J. Otto, Elementary-School Organization and Administration, Third Edition, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954), p. 58.

Still further evidence of the important place motivation plays in the learning process is brought out in the following statement by Morgan in which he stresses the importance of motives in the conduct of children:

The child may have in some way acquired a tremendous urge to do a certain thing. Merely to place a check upon that act simply dams up that urge so that it is very likely to express itself in another quite unexpected form. What should be done is to make sure of the nature of the urge back of an undesirable act and then to furnish the child with a more desirable outlet at the same time that the undesirable one is blocked. [To keep saying, "don't, don't" to an active boy is the sheerest kind of folly. Give him something to do, keep him busy and he will be pleased with the teacher, himself, school, and life in general.]

In dealing with children the main thing is not merely to study what they say and do, but also to study the motives behind their conduct.⁹

Although the exceptional child is often considered to be better motivated naturally, even he can be hindered or helped by proper motivational treatment. Bristow substantiates this in his statement on the inner drives or motives of gifted children:

A variety of influences may either facilitate or block the full growth and expression of the gifted child's abilities. Of these influences the foremost is the drive to accomplish, the urge of motivation to use exceptional abilities, which most but not all gifted persons possess. When the drive is lacking the chance of reaching eminence is remote.¹⁰

Summary

The importance of motivation in the learning process seems to have been established by the strength and unanimity of opinion of experts. If

⁹John J. B. Morgan, The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937), p. 320.

¹⁰Paul Witty, editor, The Gifted Child, (The American Association of Gifted Children), (Boston: D. C. Heath Co., 1951), p. 27.

motivation is of recognized importance, determining the status or how well it is practiced seems to be the next logical step. In chapter two an attempt will be made to determine the status of motivation.

CHAPTER II

THE PRESENT STATUS OF MOTIVATION

That motivation of the student is not always accomplished before the learning actually is to begin is the contention of many experts cited later in this chapter. A few of the more vociferous are sometimes a little unjust in their criticism because they fail to give credit to people in the field who are doing the very thing that they advocate. Many teachers today are undoubtedly starting their instructions within the maturation level of the students concerned and are letting them help form the plan of their activities. Some are performing all or most of the recommended motivating techniques that it is within their power to accomplish. However, there are still many school systems and individual teachers who are giving very little attention to motivation. One of the more severe critics of today's instructional methods is Tuttle who states:

Motivation is as important to every child of Adam as wind is to the sailboat or gasoline to the automobile. [Moreover, new motives must be constantly cultivated to meet the growing demands on the developing child in our complex human society.] Yet [motivation is the most neglected aspect in the whole field of education.] Although the welfare of human society is dependent on the direction and compulsion of human motives, those persons most capable of contribution to the well-being still give all to little attention to this important task.¹¹

In discussing the current school man's ideas on motivation Tuttle¹² suspects them of believing that motives spring from understanding, and understanding

¹¹H. S. Tuttle, "Motives can be Created," School Review, 58:533-5, December, 1950.

¹²Ibid., p. 38.

depends on knowledge. Therefore, one should teach more facts about history and civics. The assumption--knowledge about machinery of government and past events will somehow create a desire for human betterment! But all facts belie this assumption. Another assumption Tuttle¹³ makes of the current school man's thinking is that the formation of motives is intrinsic in reflective thinking and reasoning is an important source of motivation. He also believes that some educators think that motivation is already present through some happy magic, and all that is needed is broad information and sound logic to direct them.

Gauney also has a rather low opinion of the work being done by teachers in the process of motivating students to accomplish. He feels that any indication of being motivated on the part of today's student is indeed a novelty rather than an expected condition. The following statement clearly indicates his position in this respect:

In effect, many "modern" teachers are doing nothing different from their Ichabod Crane predecessor. Where the old-timer could give boys and girls a few lumps, today's teacher must enchant them with a fan dance. In as much as the curriculum is usually still decided by adults, it is not basically different from that of the old-time one-room school house.¹⁴

Further comments by Gauney are no more pleasant than those already quoted. [He feels that many of the devices teachers of today use are teaching aids rather than learning aids.] The reader should note the following remarks made by Gauney concerning the status of motivation in today's school:

¹³Ibid., p. 38.

¹⁴R. E. Gauney, "Teaching Aids Vs. Learning Aids" Clearing House, 26:483-5, April, 1952.

[As a matter of fact, teachers are elated when "an interest" is shown in a particular item, and the interest is duly reported in one of the journals.]

Teachers can plead, beg, and tempt, but [real learning springs from the student.] When you recognize learning interest, play it for what it is worth. Become a member of the class--shelve your teaching aids, and instead, dust off the learning aids.¹⁵

It is quite evident from these statements that Gauney has a poor opinion of the work being done to motivate the students of our present day schools.

A very concise statement has been made recently by Digma concerning the status of motivation in the schools today:

That many of the children in our schools are "unmotivated" and "untouched" is hardly a debatable question.

If children studied for pleasure of knowledge teachers would merely select and present the best experiences. They don't. [Pupil interest is in the immediate environment, and they have a short span of interest. Therefore teachers must resort to incentives that are worthwhile in themselves and suitable to the individual child.¹⁶]

More evidence that motivation is of much importance, and that it has been neglected, even recently, is presented by Lesser who in 1951 wrote of the improved results obtained by improving the motivation of a biology class composed of slow learners:

Whenever strong interests of pupils were utilized and whenever the activities presented were new experiences, there was a noticable improvement in pupils' willingness to participate and learn. Where in the past, the "slow" class period was

¹⁵Ibid, p. 483.

¹⁶B. Digma, "Motivation is Guiding the Child," Education, 74:138-42, November, 1953.

something for the teacher to "get through" the period became one of really relaxed and pleasant teaching, with benefit for pupils as well as the teacher.¹⁷

Summary

The statements by Tuttle, Gauney, and Digna cited in chapter two seem to clearly indicate that motivation in the secondary classroom of today is being neglected. If such is the case, either teachers are ignorant of the best methods for motivating students or they fail to realize the importance of motivation in effective learning. It has been shown in this chapter that motivation is being neglected. If motivation is important, this neglect should be corrected. The next step seems to be that of selecting motivational devices and techniques that can be used by the teacher to correct the inadequacies that exist in our schools today. In the following chapter criteria will be established for the selection of motivating devices and techniques that will be useful to the classroom teacher.

¹⁷M. S. Lesser, "Getting Acquainted with Pupil Interests," High Points, 33:12-15, December, 1951.

CHAPTER III

BASIC CRITERIA FOR SELECTING MOTIVATORS

Before attempting to discuss motivation a definition of some of the more often used words pertinent to the topic should be given. In order that understanding will result several terms will now be defined. One of the first terms to be defined will be "motivation." There are as many definitions for motivation as there are people using it, but after a few examples of what prominent educators have used as a definition for motivation a rather concise meaning of the term should become evident.

Definitions of Terms

Motivation. Digna gives the following definition. "A motive is anything represented to the mind as a value which can be realized through an act of volition."¹⁸ In the same article we find that Digna refers to another definition in the statement, "Hilgard and Russell interpret motivation in children as referring to any of the circumstances which result in energizing, selecting, or directing of conduct."¹⁹ According to Gates,²⁰ "Motives are conditions - "physiological" and "psychological" - within the organism that dispose it to act in certain ways."

¹⁸Digna, op. cit., p. 138.

¹⁹Digna, op. cit., p. 139.

²⁰Gates and others, op. cit., p. 301.

Several definitions were found in Ryans'²¹ discussion on motivation. One of them simply states that ["Motivation is one of the conditions upon which learning is dependent."] Another more meaningful definition by Ryans is as follows:

Motivation is the why of behavior. It relates to the more remote causal factors. Conditions within the organism which produce activity and which give direction to behavior are motivating conditions. The motivated animal is active. The satiated animal is quiet.²²

The sampling of definitions considered thus far should reveal the meaning of motivation as it will be used in further discussion in this paper.

Interests, Attitudes, and Purposes. Ryans²³ defines interests, attitudes, purposes, and incentives as learned determinants of behavior and uses them interchangeably with the term "motivation". This will be the general procedure for further discussion in this paper.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic. Several other terms which are of importance in a discussion on motivation are "intrinsic" and "extrinsic". The following statements by Ryans concerning these words, although not definitions in the strict sense of the word, will serve to give sufficient meaning:

²¹Danial G. Ryans, "Motivation in Learning", p. 289. Forty First Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1942).

²²Ibid., p. 291.

²³Ibid., p. 295.

In intrinsic motivation, what the individual does, or learns, is presumably for the sake of engaging in the activity itself.]

[In extrinsic motivation the incentives or goal is artificially introduced into the situation; the motivation is not an original function of the material to be learned or of the learner's attitude toward it.]

An example of intrinsic motivation is learning to swim or swimming for the pleasure of the activity while an example of extrinsic motivation is learning to swim to attain a boy scout rank or to enter competition.

In intrinsic motivation the drive is the desire for the activity in question while in extrinsic motivation the drive is to attain an immediate or remote goal which is extraneous to the activity itself.²⁴

With the knowledge of these terms we can now proceed with the study of various devices used for motivating people. The following section will deal with the old issue concerning the relative values of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators.

Intrinsic Vs. Extrinsic Motivators

If it can be substantiated that extrinsic motivators are as effective as intrinsic motivators it will effectively alleviate the task of the classroom teacher. The reason for the previous statement is that extrinsic motivators are more numerous, and it is easier to devise activities that are related to a child's interest remotely than to devise incentives and activities which are directly related to the child's or student's immediate needs and interests. It is not meant to imply that activities, goals, and incentives which teachers place before the students should not be directly related to their needs and interests.

²⁴Ibid., p. 297.

However certain actions and materials to be learned are often considered important by society and are not directly related to the child's needs and interests. In such cases it is desirable to use extrinsic motivators if it can be shown that they are effective. The point is that it is often impossible to use intrinsic motivators, and if extrinsic motivators are useless teachers will be left in a sorry state.

Evidence of the effectiveness of extrinsic motivation is related by Guthrie who says:

In all cultures children must get the attention of adults in order to quiet hunger, thirst, cold, heat, and pain. Attention getting becomes in all cultures to some extent an autonomous interest pursued for its own sake and for no other ulterior motive. It is not an original or inborn drive. It is a motive established by learning. All children have learned methods of getting attention. The presence of other persons who do not notice us does not bother new babies, but it is one of the most distressing experiences an adult can have.

Some writers have suggested calling these learned motives "secondary" drives or "derived" drives. These terms would wrongly imply that they are of secondary importance in behavior. As a matter of fact, learned motives (drives) are often stronger than the primary drives. There are learned food taboos which individuals maintain even to the point of starvation. During the depression of the early 1930's, jumps or falls from tall buildings were not uncommon occurrences. A large number of the fallers or jumpers were men who still had sufficient income to give them many times the creature comforts of the average man. But loss of face (threat to role) or threats to habits of dominance and habits of playing to "big shot" created distress stronger than the natural avoidances that keep us from jumping from high places.

Many men in that depression turned out to be unemployable in spite of the fact that they were industrious, well informed, well trained. They were so accustomed to command that they could not operate in a subordinate position. Many former officers now in civilian clothes had great difficulty in changing to civilian roles.²⁵

²⁵Edwin R. Guthrie and others, Psychology - A First Course in Human Behavior, (New York: Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1949), pp. 132-3.

The ideas presented by Guthrie indicate rather clearly that extrinsic motives, such as the motive to be in command, can be stronger than those intrinsic motives such as the desire to have sufficient food, clothing, and the other basic needs of man. This fact is spelled out even more clearly in the writings of Thorndike:

In certain respects, intrinsic interests do possess greater merits. In so far as the task of education . . . is to develop or strengthen certain interests as more or less permanent features of a person's make up, the more intrinsic the interest can be, the less dependent upon outside aids and circumstances, the better. . . But their advantages (intrinsic interests) have been exaggerated in the educational theories of the last half-century. If an educated adult for any reason is induced by any force, no matter how external, to want to learn a certain thing, no matter how remote learning is from his other, deeper, and more 'real' needs, he can learn it, provided of course that it is within his powers.²⁶

Thorndike clearly states the importance of extrinsic motivation in the following excerpt:

It is sometimes believed that intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation is to be desired in directing learning. Obviously certain drives and incentives are more appropriate than others for use in the school when various personal and social factors are considered, but so far as efficiency of learning is concerned there is little conclusive evidence regarding the superiority of intrinsic motivation. In fact it would seem to be very desirable to utilize such goals as those pertaining to an individual's career in facilitating the learning process.²⁷

Criteria for Selecting Motivators

Since motivation is important in the learning process, and is not in all cases being properly done in the schools of today, it is imperative

²⁶E. L. Thorndike, A Psychology of Wants - Interests and Attitudes, (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1935), p. 297.

²⁷Loc. cit.

that we give more attention to the selection and use of good motivating devices. When the selection of motivating devices and techniques is begun it is necessary to have some standards developed by which these techniques may be evaluated. It is proposed that the following criteria are valid for the selection of motivating devices and techniques to be used in the classroom.

1. Does the device serve to improve instructions? If the motivating device does not, in the final analysis, improve the quality of instruction by improving the child's willingness to learn it is a poor motivator.

2. Is the motivating device or procedure available to all or most classroom teachers? If a motivating technique involves the use of some piece of equipment not available to the majority of teachers it is of little value.

3. Is the motivating device or technique useable by the ordinary classroom teacher? If a technique is so dependent upon advanced psychological knowledge that it will not be understood by the average teacher it will be considered impractical. An effective motivating device should be useable.

4. Is the motivating device economical? If the procedure used to motivate students requires the use of expensive material which can be considered prohibitive. Because of excessive cost it will be of little practical value to the average classroom teacher.

5. Does the motivating technique require more time than can reasonably be allotted for motivating purposes in the classroom? If motivation takes too much of a teacher's day it may be found that the

students are very anxious and willing to work but have too little time remaining in the schedule to complete the required learning task. Therefore, a motivating technique can not be too time consuming.

6. May motivating device be either intrinsic or extrinsic?

Evidence presented by Guthrie and Thorndike clearly indicates that extrinsic motivators can be as effective as intrinsic motivators. If a motivating device uses extrinsic goals as motivators it will not necessarily be considered worthless.

Summary

It seems evident from reports in literature that teachers are justified in using both intrinsic and extrinsic interests and goals as motivating devices. In selecting the motivating devices and techniques to be compiled at the end of this paper the criteria presented in this chapter will be used. Having developed a method of selecting effective motivators, the next logical step seemed to be a study of known methods of motivation. In chapter four a study of present motivational devices and techniques will be presented.

CHAPTER IV

SPECIFIC ELEMENTS OF MOTIVATION

Since motivation is important to learning, and since a need appears to exist for more motivational work in the schools of today, it is imperative that the best methods known to educators be brought to the attention of today's teachers and be freely used by them. This chapter will present a discussion of the more important known methods of motivation and why they are considered effective.

Reward and Punishment

Reward. The value of reward as a motivator is well illustrated by Goros²⁸ and his problems in motivating high school students to collect clothing for needy war orphans. All attempts to meet the school quota of used clothing for the orphans failed miserably after the first request by teachers for the collection. The teachers then explained that the war orphans were in dire need, freezing in sub-zero weather, and would greatly appreciate any clothing collected. The students were even given a pep talk on the humanitarian ideals involved, but no cloths appeared. After this attempt failed rewards were offered in the form of a set of hand tools and a pair of play tickets. The response was immediate and the quota was easily and quickly filled. Although competition entered the picture by virtue of the fact that only those two students delivering the

²⁸S. Goros, "Lessons in Motivation", High Points, 33:61-3, December, 1951.

most clothes would get the reward it is believed that reward was responsible for a good share of the increased motivation.

The exact method by which rewards derive their motivating power is explained by Guthrie as follows:

How reward gets its effect will take a bit of explaining. First it should be noted that reward does not produce the first performance of the desired act. Dog biscuit does not make the dog jump through the hoop, or come when called, or follow at heel. The act that we desire to be learned has to be procured by other means. That's why it takes experience to be a good teacher either of children or of animals.

The reward has two distinct uses. It may be used as motivation. The sight of a biscuit may serve to make the dog restless and active and so encourage the possibility of the desired action. Promise of a reward may have the same effect on children. It may serve as the motive or act in much the fashion of a drive. It often shortens the period of waiting until the desired act takes place. But it is not the direct stimulus for the desired act.

What it is that does directly stimulate the desired act is often not clear. We often just wait for it to happen. We put a rat in a box and wait until it pushes on a lever which brings the reward. Or we can reward some odd and accidental movement and cause it to be repeated and become a habit. When the desired act somehow does take place, what the reward accomplishes is to take the person or animal out of the motivating situation, to remove the motive. The effect of this is profound. It leaves the last association with the motivating situation the desired act. No unlearning is possible, because unlearning of this association would require the presence of the motivating situation and its association with some different response.²⁹

In his summary on the value of rewards Ryans³⁰ says that reward should be used often when deserved, but that care should be taken not to make it meaningless by over use, especially when not deserved.

²⁹Guthrie, op. cit., pp. 149-50.

³⁰Ryans, op. cit., p. 326.

Punishment. Much has been written about the motivating power of punishment. The majority of the authorities seem to believe that although it has motivating power it is less effective than reward and has some rather harmful concomitant effects. Stone's ideas on punishment are summarized in these three statements.

(Verbal punishment never should be used unless alternate response is possible that will avoid similar punishment. Better yet, this alternate response should be rewarded.)

Application of punishment should be preceded by some verbal cue to which avoidance responses may be attached.

Punishment need not be severe to be effective (in case behavior is dangerous to self or others corporal punishment can be used but must be administered with care)³¹

This quotation also indicates that punishment has certain undesirable facets.

Motivation is uni-directional. The basic phenomenon is tension reduction. Punishment can relieve tension so is sought by learner. Therefore, it can be considered a reward. It does sometimes become effective as a motivator. Results of most studies show punishment (physical or mental) very poor because of concomitant learning accompanying it and the fact that it fails to replace wrong responses or behavior with correct behavior. If it is made clear to the learner what punishment is for it can be an effective motivator. If punishment is used at all it should be appropriate or "belong to" the behavior for which it is administered.³²

Praise and Blame. Praise and blame are two motivators mentioned as rather important by Ryans.³³ However, he states that they are very

³¹G. R. Stone, "Effect of Negative Incentives on Serial Learning: Incentive Intensity and Response Variability," Journal of General Psychology, 42:179-242, April, 1950.

³²O. H. Mowrer, "Preparatory Set - (Expectancy) - a Determinant in Motivation and Learning," Psychological Review, 45:62-91, January, 1938.

³³Ryans, op. cit., p. 316.

closely related to reward and punishment. They are actually verbal forms of punishment and reward. Studies conducted by Briggs³⁴ and Laird³⁵ are not too reliable because they may measure unsuspected incentives other than praise and blame. They do seem to indicate that praise and blame are effective motivators. Ryans relates that studies using introspective methods give some idea of what students think of praise and blame as motivators. When students were given questionnaires and asked to give their opinion of praise and blame they indicated that public reprimand, sarcasm, and ridicule do not often lead to improvement in the will to learn. Private reprimand was believed to be effective in some cases, and public praise was found to be the most effective of the incentives mentioned on the questionnaires.

Teacher's Tasks in Motivation

Personality Development. The teacher herself can have a very adverse effect on the students will to learn. If she scoffs at sentimentality, idealism, and other spiritual values she indirectly destroys the students desire to accomplish many of those attitudes deemed desirable by society. The teacher who has a displeasing personality and is poorly groomed can do little to inspire a student to achieve. Many have encountered the teacher who by her very nature causes students to shun

³⁴T. H. Briggs, "Praise and Censure as Incentives," School and Society, 26:596-98, November, 1927.

³⁵D. A. Laird, "How the High-School Student Responds to Different Incentives to Work," Journal of Genetic Psychology, 30:358-65, December, 1923.

her at every opportunity. One authority has this to say about the teacher's place in motivation, "Concentrate on your personalities, teachers! Develop traits the children like and destroy those objectionable traits - the students will identify themselves with you."³⁶ One does not have to search too long to find other authors who agree thoroughly with this quotation. Butler has indicated definitely that the teacher is an important element in the learning process by his statement, "the center of motivation in school is the teacher." It is she who controls the forces which react upon pupils".³⁷ In listing the traits that are necessary for successful teaching he places personality development in the number one position. Developing a desirable personality is apparently one of the many tasks of a fine teacher.

Teacher-pupil Planning. A student has much greater desire to learn if he feels that the tasks placed before him are something that he personally would like to accomplish. Therefore, it is important that the teacher let students help plan at least part of their classroom activity and procedures.) Gates illustrates this principle when he says:

(Teachers and students should cooperatively set up goals which make meaningful experiences possible.) To do so will take time, but it will not be wasted time, for the preparatory and initial stages of learning constitute an essential orientation for the process as a whole.³⁸

³⁶Ryans, op. cit., p. 326.

³⁷Frank A. Butler, The Improvement of Teaching in the Secondary Schools, (Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1948), p. 144.

³⁸Gates and others, op. cit., p. 307.

Still further evidence of the need for cooperative planning is presented in the following paragraph by Otto:

Not only must there be a selection of the most useful and appropriate and adequate materials, physical setting, and methods of procedure, so that the activities which have been selected may be carried forward in ways which will result in the desired outcomes. In the selection of activities and in the way in which the activities are conducted, there should be extensive cooperative teacher-pupil planning, in order that the goals and the activities may represent the closest possible relationship to pupil needs and interests. This is the only way in which a high degree of motivation may prevail.³⁹

Knowledge of Students. (The teacher must have a wealth of knowledge about her students to be an efficient director of the activities that will motivate the student.) (Such things as ability, past experiences, home conditions, desires, goals, and the maturation level of the student must be known by the teacher.) Beyond this the teacher must understand the characteristics of the particular group of students with which she is to work.) That the knowledge of the student is very important for proper motivating is well expressed by Butler as follows:

Motivation is the bringing-together of many inclinations and drives possessed by pupils and the utilizations of these inclinations and drives to attain the desired ends. (By understanding the pupils, one understands motivation.) (He who neglects the one who does the learning neglects the power which supports the learning.⁴⁰)

Ryans⁴¹ also has indicated that the knowledge of students is an important motivator when he implores teachers to know their students and remember their individual differences.

³⁹Otto, op. cit., p. 58.

⁴⁰Butler, op. cit., p. 153.

⁴¹Ryans, op. cit., p. 326.

In speaking of methods of motivation, Digna⁴² has a different way of expressing the same idea. She maintains that individual guidance is the best single motivator, but also goes on to say that a complete knowledge of the student is necessary if good guidance procedures are to be instituted.

Testing. It has been rather well substantiated by many studies that some evaluation of the work done by the student is necessary for really effective motivation. Testing is the most common evaluative device and does serve as a motivator. The student must have knowledge of the results of his testing if such tests are to motivate him to the fullest. Studies conducted by Book and Narvell⁴³ found that college students who had knowledge of their progress in simple learning tasks learned much more effectively than those who did not. Deputy,⁴⁴ using objective examinations as a means of informing certain students of their progress, found that informed groups showed improvement in college work that was not shown by members of a control group.

Symonds and Chase,⁴⁵ in an investigation involving over two thousand sixth grade children and their learning of correct English

⁴²Digna, op. cit., p. 141.

⁴³W. F. Book and others, "The Will to Learn," Journal of Genetic Psychology, 29:305-62, December, 1922.

⁴⁴E. C. Deputy, "Knowledge of Success as a Motivating Factor in College Work," Journal of Educational Research, 20:327-34, December, 1929.

⁴⁵P. M. Symonds and others, "Practice vs. Motivation," Journal of Educational Psychology, 20:19-35, January, 1929.

usage, found that students who were informed of the progress they made were superior to those who practiced with no particular motivation.

The current educators' attitude toward testing is well summarized by the following quotation:

Evaluation is a part of the learning process and can not be divorced from it. Teachers should build units of work around tests and consider their motivational value when building evaluation devices.⁴⁶

Testing seems to be a good motivator if it is used for that purpose. The student must be given knowledge of his progress on the tests. It sometimes happens that students are motivated to "pass the test" and perhaps material learned by such a motivating influence will not be lasting. However, if tests are constructed for motivating through the knowledge of progress they will be effective in motivating learning.

Teaching Study Habits. Another motivating mechanism that all teachers will find effective is that of teaching study habits. This is substantiated by Ryans' statement:

Directions for learning in a special field of subject matter and the provision of more general 'hints' for the development of successful study habits in all fields serve to motivate learning. Most such suggestions will be of limited value, however, unless the learner uses them, as they are intended, as guides in the building of habits of study which are conducive to efficient learning.⁴⁷

Pupil Activities

When speaking of curriculum in its broadest meaning, one means all that happens to the student that will shape his behavior. Many things

⁴⁶H. B. Woods, "Testing Used as Part of a Learning Process," Clearing House, 27:454-6, April, 1953.

⁴⁷Ryans, op. cit., p. 325.

modify behavior other than formal academic drill and instructions. Important among these things are the extra-curricular activities offered by the school. Although often many of these activities are approved by the administrator and are therefore out of the hands of the classroom teacher, there are some activities over which the teacher has final control. These are the classroom activities that can be arranged as the teacher wishes them. Ringness⁴⁸ feels that students could be motivated better if we could adapt our formal instructional program to the type of work being done in the activities. He believes that the reasons why students like activities are easily recognized. Recognition, rewards, no predetermined course of study, prestige, and satisfying results for all participants are the main reasons listed for the popularity of school sponsored activities. Another point in his discussion is that teachers must teach the whole student, not just the brain in space. In line with what is known of boys and girls, activity is very important. In the activities the student gets just that. Perhaps that is another reason for the students preference for the activities over formal classroom instructions.

MacCurdy tells of a school program in which motivating is done the cave man way. Primitives had a method of motivating their young boys to want to hunt. They drew pictures in the sand, built miniature windfalls, told the boys where to find the game, and promised a great feast and recognition when they returned successful. This is teaching

⁴⁸T. A. Ringness, "Maybe We Should Let Football into the Classroom," Nation's Schools, 50:82-84, September, 1952.

by activity. In speaking of his school system MacCurdy has this to say about the importance of activity as a motivator:

We get everybody into the act. Some plan the work, some operate classroom apparatus, build models, collect specimens, take photographs, give demonstrations, paint pictures and draw charts, write reports, present plays, run errands and clean up. Such a scene of activity: there is scarcely time or space for it all. We change the classroom about somewhat. We stay after school and form clubs to give the student status and recognition, much as the cave man gave his son at the feast. We remember the cave man, and we realize that we are just like him.⁴⁹

Purposes, Goals, and Needs

(To be truly motivated a student must have some purpose or goal towards which he is working.) (After such a purpose or goal has been established the learner will strive to gain that goal more willingly if it is related to some present need.) This need will not necessarily be an organic drive, but may be some learned purpose or desire. Ryans' statement has clearly illustrated the necessity of recognized and understood goals and purposes:

When one is aware of his purpose he strives consciously to attain goals toward which purposes are directed. (The more completely purposes are understood and goals recognized the more efficient will be the learning leading to the goals.)⁵⁰

Another statement relating to the importance of purposes and goals as motivators has been given by Butler:

⁴⁹R. D. MacCurdy, "Motivating Learning the Cave Man Way," School Executive, 72:54-56, May, 1953.

⁵⁰Ryans, op. cit., p. 313.

(Learning is most efficient when it satisfies needs or makes possible the attainment of certain goals.) Teachers must do more, however, than cater to present needs and goals of pupils. It is the job of teachers to stimulate and develop new, more mature, and more productive interests and purposes.⁵¹

Butler⁵² has indicated methods of creating new needs and goals.

Needs and purposes can be created through the development of ideals, attitudes, broad information, leisure time use, conversational ability, and appreciation of beauty. New aims should always be approached through past experiences. Algebra can be very boring or it can be a fascinating new way of solving arithmetic problems. Progress must be made to sustain newly developed interests, aims, or goals. Nothing succeeds like success. Therefore, every student should be given an opportunity to succeed everyday even though this poses a problem of individualizing instruction.

Quotations like the following leave little doubt that the needs of the child are important motivating factors in the eyes of the author:

As a botherer, [the teacher tries to excite the child to learning. This is a problem in motivation. Too often the height of motivation, from the learner's point of view, is "to please the teacher" or to keep him happy and quiet.] Unless the teacher relates learning to the past, present, or future needs of the child, what goes on in the classroom will fall in the realm of random or purposeless activity. Learning activities become time-fillers if not time-killers.⁵³

⁵¹Gates and others, op. cit., p. 309.

⁵²Butler, op. cit., p. 155.

⁵³W. C. Kvaraceus, "Discipline in the Classroom - The 1956 Approach," Educational Trend, January, 1956.

Meaningfulness as a Motivator

The degree of meaningfulness a situation has for the student will determine its value as a motivator. The following remarks by Ryans clearly indicate this:

The extent to which an individual has had previous experience with a situation, the degree to which this situation is ordered and logical, and the degree to which its relationships to a goal can be understood - these determine its meaningfulness. The school, through integrated lessons and courses, carefully planned and related to practical and commonly experienced situations, has attempted to make the materials it purports to teach more meaningful.

(Learning may occur with a minimum of meaning, but it becomes much more efficient as the meaningfulness is increased.]
Meaning may be considered an aspect of the problem of motivation. While it can hardly be referred to as a drive in the usual sense of that term, it obviously contributes to the 'set' for learning. Material which is meaningful to the learner will obtain preference over meaningless material; the organism is pre-disposed to behavior which involves meaningful situations.⁵⁴

Competition and Rivalry

Competition and rivalry are two motivating devices about which there seems to be some disagreement. There is little doubt about their effectiveness as motivators, but it is felt that overuse of these devices may produce overly aggressive or completely subdued personalities. Both Digna⁵⁵ and Ryans⁵⁶ have agreed that they are effective, but both have also cautioned that they should not be over-worked.

⁵⁴Ryans, op. cit., pp. 307-08.

⁵⁵Digna, op. cit., p. 140.

⁵⁶Ryans, op. cit., p. 321.

Goros⁵⁷ has definitely established that competition is effective, but has not warned of the possible harmful effects. If used with caution, competition and rivalry should be two very effective and helpful motivating devices.

Summary

Reward, punishment, praise, pupil activities, goals and purposes, and competition are some of the devices being used currently as motivators. However, according to the quotation by Butler cited in this chapter, the teacher is the most important of all motivating factors. The discussion of the presently used motivational devices and techniques presented in this chapter will be used as the basis for the compilation of motivating devices for the classroom teacher. This compilation will be attempted in the following chapter. Before they are included in the compilation in Chapter Five, the motivational devices and techniques will be evaluated by use of the criteria established in Chapter Three.

⁵⁷Goros, op. cit., pp. 61-3.

CHAPTER V

MOTIVATIONAL TECHNIQUES AND DEVICES

In view of the discussion contained in chapter four the following are suggested as valid and useful techniques for classroom motivation. Some of the techniques listed, such as punishment and competition, can be overworked, but all can be used occasionally for variety fosters interest. For the sake of clarity and simplicity of reading, the list of devices and techniques has been divided into two parts. These parts consist of one section which includes techniques for motivating, and another section composed of devices for motivating. Although it is impossible, because of the overlapping nature of these devices and techniques, to classify them entirely into one or the other of the two categories, an attempt has been made to place them in the most suitable category. Risk⁵⁸ defines a technique as a method of performing in any art, technical skill, or artistic execution, and he defines a device as any means, other than subject matter, which may be used by the teacher to direct the activity of the pupils. Risk's definitions were used for the categories into which the list of motivators was divided.

Techniques

Punishment. Punishment may serve as a motivator, but when used, and this should be rarely, one should be certain that the punishment

⁵⁸T. M. Risk, Principles and Practices of Teaching in the Secondary School, (Chicago: The American Book Co., 1947), p. 15.

is appropriate, not too severe, and that the student knows exactly for what he is being punished.

Praise. Praise is a very effective motivator, particularly when used publicly and when the praise is deserved. This device should be used whenever possible. Specific examples are:

1. Articles written in the city newspaper praising success or improvement.
2. Comments made in class by the teacher praising well prepared written or oral lessons.
3. Notes from the teacher to parents of average or slow students praising improvement shown by those students.

Blame. Blame is not a good motivating technique for the same reason that punishment is a poor motivator. It usually motivates the student to avoid getting caught for the next offense and may perpetuate cheating. One should try to avoid the use of blame.

Teacher Personality. The personality of the teacher is a very important determiner of a student's will to work. A happy, well groomed, pleasant, and well-informed teacher has a very desirable effect upon a student's will to work. Specific suggestions for improving one's personality are:

1. The teacher should keep clothes pressed, shoes shined, hair combed, hands and fingernails cleaned, shave each day if a man, use proper oral hygiene, and check personal appearance before a mirror before going to school each day.
2. A teacher should emphasize the desirable traits, and ignore the objectionable traits, of all students in her personal contacts with the students.
3. A teacher should get plenty of sleep in order that exhaustion does not cause an unpleasant or caustic personality with the accompanying anger and loss of temper. Sarcasm or ridicule should never be used in the classroom.

Cooperative planning. Student-teacher cooperatively planned activities are effective in producing a willing student. The student should be allowed to participate in the planning of as many classroom activities as is feasible. Specific examples are:

1. The students can be asked what they are interested in discovering while studying general science. The teacher may suggest some topics if the students have none in mind, and, if the topic in which the students show decided interest is not included in the text in use, the teacher should not hesitate to use the library and other reference sources to develop units of work on the desired topics.

2. Often the order in which specific tasks are to be undertaken makes little difference in the ease with which they can be presented. The students can be consulted as to their preference of order.

3. Let the students who are particularly interested in some phase of a problem prepare a demonstration or talk on that part of the work and present it to the class.

4. Never squelch student suggestions on class conduct or class methods until they have been given full consideration and evaluation. Often such items as seating arrangements or field trip organization can and should be planned by the students and teacher working together.

Knowledge of Student. Knowledge of the student is essential if one is to guide pupils effectively. Therefore, one should be truly interested in each student as a person, and collect as many facts as possible about each student's life, both in school and in his home. Know many details about the community from which the student comes. Specific examples are:

1. The teacher should visit or become acquainted with the parents of as many students as is possible.

2. The teachers should study the results of standardized intelligence, achievement, and aptitude tests in order to know more about the students.

3. Informal talks, instituted by appointment after class or after school, will do much to acquaint the teacher with the more reserved students.

Guidance. Individual guidance is necessary if students are to be interested in school and learning. Every opportunity should be taken to give advice or to present facts in a new light to the confused student. Specific examples are:

1. If a student has hopes of becoming a professional person, but has a lower than average I.Q., the teacher should bring to his attention that this aspiration may be incompatible with his capabilities.
2. If a student is capable of professional work and has an interest in that type of work, one should not fail to inform him of the importance of a good foundation in the skill subjects and of other requirements for the profession in which he is interested.
3. The student should be informed that college entrance is becoming more selective due to population pressure and that in the future only those with superior preparation will be allowed to enter college.

Study Habits. Students who can never experience success in school will not wish to study for further failure and frustration. Effective study habits will eliminate at least part, if not all, of their trouble. Specific method:

1. Acquire a good outline on study habits that includes a discussion on concentration, time budgeting, length of study period to be desired, and the importance of sleep and good physical condition for effective learning. Suggest that the students try following the methods of the outline to see if it improves the effectiveness of their study.

Goals and Purposes. Developing goals and purposes in your students is important. These can be created through attention to ideals, attitudes, broad information, and instruction in the use of leisure time. Specific examples are:

1. By showing the student the best of the products and people in the community. Of course this will entail trips into the community for the purpose of comparing the attainment of persons of high ideals with the attainments of persons of low ideals.

2. Through encouraging students to read success stories of men who had high ideals.

3. By having resource people from the community who will show students the value of setting goals and working until they are achieved.

Meaningful Experiences. Teachers should make experiences meaningful to the student. The presentation should be ordered and logical. Emphasis should be given important principles which should be related to commonly occurring situations. Specific examples are:

1. The using of visual aids to help make learning experiences meaningful. Often films showing how mathematics is used in building a bridge or a factory will stimulate a student to take greater interest in mathematics.

2. Using the blackboard effectively. Included in this process are clear and legible handwriting, organizing material, giving attention to lighting, and talking to the class and not the blackboard.

3. Relating the experience to the life of the students. If the students live in an agricultural community problems about farm machinery or the volume of fuel tanks are interesting to the students because they can see some use for such knowledge.

4. Stating the objectives of the course before starting instructions in that course and also relating these objectives to the needs of the students.

Devices

Reward. Reward is a good motivator and should be used freely when deserved. The reward can be verbal or material. Specific examples are the:

1. Awarding of medals for improvement and attainment in such subjects as typing, mathematics, science, and debate.

2. Holding of special assemblies at which students who have shown marked improvement, or have achieved excellence, are given recognition.

Tests. Tests can be used effectively to motivate students but it should be made certain that they are not motivated only to pass the test. The knowledge of the results obtained on the test is important to the student if tests are to serve as motivators. Therefore, tests should always be corrected and returned quickly. Specific examples are:

1. Tests should be constructed to cover only the material taught in class.
2. Questions should be used that emphasize broad principles and avoid including insignificant details.
3. The questions should be constructed to include thought or problem-solving instead of just memorization.

Student Activities. Extra-curricular activities sponsored by the school serve as motivators. Try to convince the administrator of their need if they are lacking in your school system, and take part in the activities when invited to sponsor certain of these. Initiate activities in your classes such as photo clubs, science fairs, debate clubs, cooking clubs, and hobby-craft clubs. Specific examples are:

1. Allowing the students to draw scale models of various objects and to construct three dimensional models of geometric figures for the purpose of computing volumes, areas and distances is good.
2. Encouraging students to take part in science fairs in which the completion of some project such as the construction of a model refinery is required helps motivation.
3. Using bulletin boards displays containing humor or suspense are valuable motivators. Perhaps a large "WHY?" in black letters can be used to stir interest in a group of pupils who are to meet for the purpose of reviewing student conduct or school morale.

Competition and Rivalry. Competition and rivalry are good motivators, but can be over used. The danger in these two devices is the production of overly-aggressive or completely subdued personalities. These two should be used occasionally but one should be careful not to injure the weaker students. Specific examples are:

1. Making competitive word games involving vocabulary of the subject being studied. Have one student give a technical word and another make a statement about that word that is true. Competition in such games can be developed by having one group state the words and the other group state the responses. Continue this process until one of the groups fails to respond.

2. Developing crossword puzzles from the technical vocabulary of some particular course. Divide the class into two teams and have competition to see which team can solve the puzzle in the shortest time. Care should be taken to see that the teams are of approximately equal ability. This device should be used only when all other methods fail.

Summary

The compilation of motivational devices and techniques in this chapter have been presented as suggested methods of motivating students in the secondary schools. The list is not intended to be a panacea for motivational problems but to stir the imagination of the average teacher into creating techniques which will work in his own particular situation.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY

(Motivation is a very important part of the learning process.)

This statement has been substantiated by Stewart⁵⁹ who says that "there is only one way under the high heaven to get anybody to do anything and that is by making that person want to do it". After investigating the literature on the status of motivation it was found that Tuttle, Gauney, and Digna all feel that present day educators are doing a very poor job of motivating students and that more effective use of present knowledge of motivational methods can be achieved.

One of the purposed of this investigation was to compile a list of motivating devices and techniques that would be usable by the classroom teacher. The criteria for selecting motivating devices were established with economy in time and money being used as basic considerations. The reason for these economies as a basis for developing the criteria is that time and finance are two commodities which are available to the ordinary classroom teacher in small quantities.

After devising criteria for selecting motivational devices and techniques and studying present methods of motivating, it has been attempted to compile a list of the devices and techniques that can be used to advantage by the classroom teacher. If these motivating devices

⁵⁹W. F. Stewart, Methods of Teaching, (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1950), p. 45.

can be of any assistance to any teacher in improving instructions in the classroom then the purpose of this paper will have been served. The implication of this paper for the teacher should be made more apparent to the reader by the following quotation:

The teacher who said it was her business to teach history, and the business of the pupil to learn it, or fail, had the wrong notion of the true purpose of teaching. The application of pupils to their work, their expenditure of energy, their physical and mental exertions, are weighty factors conditioning the kind and amount of learning which will result. This application, this expenditure of energy, and this exertion do not surge forth under all circumstances; they do come when the nature of the pupils, and the nature of the material to be learned, are harmoniously, intelligently, and psychologically directed into an agreeable partnership.⁶⁰

⁶⁰Butler, op. cit., pp. 145-46.

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