

Research since 1976 on Affective Student Characteristics*

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In 1978, Ed Begle died in Palo Alto leaving a book unfinished that was about to become a main reader in mathematics education. Until 1976, Begle had gathered any piece of information on empirical investigations in this field, prepared dozens of bibliographies and reviewed the literature. His conclusions on almost all topics of mathematics instruction were edited post mortem by his colleagues [Begle, 1979], standing as the compressed knowledge of one of the most eminent math educators of our time.

Begle's book is not only a summary, but finishes with a long list of questions, and points to lines of research worthwhile being undertaken and others probably fruitless, not adding much to our understanding of teaching and learning mathematics. Some that are discussed intensively by Begle involve "student variables". The present article deals with those student characteristics which Begle called "affective", namely anxiety, mathematics attitudes, motivation, personality, school attitudes, self-concept, and test anxiety, and their impact on mathematics learning and achievement as they are investigated in empirical studies since 1976.

Summing up the scientific knowledge in 1976 Begle concludes that the "survey of student variables provokes mixed reactions". Though quite a remarkable amount of empirical research with regard to these variables had been conducted in the preceding decade the results were by no means conclusive. In particular the correlations between some affective variables and mathematics achievement ranged from "considerable" to "none", and the quality of the relationship, in particular the problem "which causes which", remained unclear.

Before taking a deeper look at each variable and the research since 1976 some more general remarks are wanted. The line of research since and probably because of Begle's book has changed in several respects.

- Several studies and projects have been conducted to develop and evaluate intervention programs with the intention to increase self-concept, attitudes and motivation or to decrease school anxiety respectively [Ammons, 1975; Bagley, 1977; Barke-Stein, 1976; Brody, 1974; Crumpton, 1978; Dumke/Heidbrink, 1980; Fontana-Durso, 1976; Friesen, 1977; Hatfield, 1977; Kulm, 1977; Marquez, 1977; Parcarella, 1977a, b; Robitaille *et al.*, 1977; Scheer, 1977; Tapp, 1978; Waller, 1976]. The starting point is not necessarily the same for all these studies; some argue for a positive

change of the affective variable in question because of its causal relationship with mathematics achievement, while others follow Begle's argument, saying that "positive attitudes toward mathematics, even if they do not correlate at all with achievement, would be intrinsically desirable. Efforts to find ways to improve attitudes should be encouraged" [Begle, 1979, p. 99].

- The rationale of the studies has shifted in so far as the correlation between one affective variable and math achievement is no longer the main point of interest but the relationship between the affective variables, between these variables and modes of instruction, and, finally, between the variables and stages of the learning process [Bellamy, 1976; Birkel/Straub, 1977; Bozar, 1977; Carey, 1978; Cohen, 1977; Gilbert, 1977; Heymann, 1978; Johnson, 1977; Lissmann, 1977; Logiudice, 1970; Marjoribanks, 1976, 1977; McIntire/Drummond, 1977; Peterson, 1977; Pitianuwat, 1977; Simons *et al.*, 1975; Weinert *et al.*, 1975; Whitaker, 1977]
- The amount of empirical research seems to have decreased in favour of more theoretical endeavour reconceptualizing the underlying constructs in a way specific for mathematics instruction [Ames, 1976; Gauthier/Yarworth, 1980; Jopt, 1977, 1980; Loose/Unruh, 1976; Lorenz, 1979, 1980; Robinson, 1976].

The following will not summarize those studies which are "follow ups" confirming or disconfirming previous research already cited by Begle, but is restricted to what seem to be promising lines for future research. Begle's categorization of the affective variables is adopted for this purpose.

Anxiety and test anxiety

Correlational studies on anxiety and mathematics achievement seem to be infertile and questionable since research in general psychology has shown that the relationship is non-linear; it partakes rather of an inverted U-shape. Though these findings are not limited to mathematics learning but apply to all subjects and cognitive tasks they were mainly established and confirmed in mathematics. A certain level of "arousal" seems to be necessary and optimal for achievement, but beyond a certain critical value the achievement drops again [Morris *et al.*, 1978; Suydam, 1975].

Begle's categorization of anxiety and test anxiety is equivalent to the state and trait-anxiety distinction Ana-

lytic research on the differential effects of these anxieties showed that trait-anxiety only indirectly influences math achievement via state-anxiety, the latter having direct impact on learning in general and the problem solving process in particular [King *et al.*, 1967; Sepie/Keeling, 1978]. State anxiety, exceeding a critical value, prevents the generation of hypotheses in problem solving tasks [Fransson, 1977; Whitaker, 1977]

Unfortunately for empirical research, the effects of anxiety on achievement may be reduced by the higher effort undertaken by highly anxious students, something that can hardly be held constant or partially out in an empirical design

Mathematics differs from other subjects as students' anxiety level is higher than elsewhere [Fennema/Sherman, 1977]. Typical differences in anxiety between the sexes favouring boys [Tobias/Weissbrod, 1980] are reported in several studies, a problem which led the NSF to support research on its causes and possible remedial strategies. These projects are still being conducted and only partially published [Fox *et al.*, 1977; Fennema/Behr, 1980].

State anxiety seems to be directly related to another affective variable, namely the students' self-concept of his ability in mathematics. High self-esteem of one's own task-specific ability reduces anxiety and vice versa, the (negative) correlation being quite considerable [Suydam, 1975; Lorenz, 1980]. A change towards a cognitive point of view in future research on affective variables may lead to the conclusion that self-concept is not only an indicator of anxiety but the prior construct [Lorenz, 1979].

State anxiety and motivation relate in a similar way, high anxiety reducing the motivation to undergo mathematical tasks whereas low anxiety increases the willingness to "try at least" [Culler/Holahan, 1980]. The same holds true for the anxiety-attitude relationship, high anxiety decreasing the positive attitude for mathematics [Suydam, 1975].

Some research studies considered the effects of teachers on anxiety and mathematics achievement. It is obvious and well known that teachers differ in the amount of anxiety their instructional style produces. But as is shown in these works teachers even differ in the way student anxiety affects mathematics achievement: that is, in one class the negative effect of anxiety on test results may be high whereas the influence of intelligence and creativity is low, while in another class the effects are the other way round [Heymann, 1978]. It seems it would be fertile to study the teaching behaviour leading to high/low anxiety impacts on mathematics achievement for its practical value. It might be unnecessary to let students undergo anxiety reducing programs (such as systematic desensibilization) but rather train teachers in behaviours identified by empirical evidence

The influence of anxiety on achievement seems to diminish as students progress in a content area [Simons *et al.*, 1975]. When the instructional unit is presented in a hierarchical order (which it normally is) the high influence of anxiety on learning decreases whereas the influence of intelligence, being low at the beginning, increases reciprocally

[Weinert *et al.*, 1975]. It is not clear yet if this result obtained in elementary arithmetic is generalizable over age and mathematical content.

School attitudes and mathematics attitudes

What has been said on anxiety holds true for attitudes as well. School attitudes are too much a global construct to be directly attached or influential to any specific behaviour like mathematics achievement [Ames, 1976].

School attitudes are built up out of attitudes toward the several subjects and more or less their (weighted) average [Michaels/Forsyth, 1977]. The relationship between school attitudes and mathematics attitudes is thus not overwhelming and the correlation with mathematics achievement cannot be more than moderate [Marjoribanks, 1976, 1977; Robinson, 1976].

Mathematics attitude, as Begle mentioned, improves slightly from fourth to sixth grade and declines afterwards. The inverse linkage with anxiety towards mathematics might explain this fact and could possibly be due to sex specificities [Suydam, 1975; Aiken, 1976; Fennema/Sherman, 1977].

The causal relationship between attitudes and achievement has hardly been investigated since 1976 [Begle, 1977; Bozar, 1977; Hatfield, 1977; Pitiyanuwat, 1977; Quinn, 1978], partly due to some theoretical reconceptualizations of the underlying constructs and reorientations within the associated sciences (mainly general and cognitive psychology; see below).

Self-concept

Theoretical assumptions confirmed by a considerable amount of data show that the self-concept as a well defined construct does not exist [Torshen, 1976] but should be split into several parts each related to task-specific activities or situation-specific contexts [Betts *et al.*, 1976]. Not only may a student assess his mathematics ability as different from his English or science ability, but he may even be better in arithmetic than in geometry [Jopt/Ermshaus, 1977]. To evaluate the relationship between task- or content-specific self-concept and achievement a diversity of self-concept measures has been constructed [Bridgeman/Shipman, 1978; Oanh/Michael, 1977].

Research findings show that the mathematics self-concept is built up in an analogous way to concept formation [Lewis, 1976; McIntire/Drummond, 1977]: success and failure lead the student to tentative hypotheses about his own ability to cope with difficult tasks [Andrews, 1975; Raberger, 1976]; these hypotheses are tested in future activities and get stable over time [Calsyn/Kenny, 1977]. Several points should be mentioned:

- The student's assessment of his mathematics ability depends on the achievement of his reference group, e.g. his classmates [Ammons, 1976]. Quite different achievement outcomes in an elementary and a special school could correspond to the same self-concept as the levels calling a result success or failure are dissimilar [Herber, 1976; Rheinberg/Enstrup, 1977]. This could partly ex-

plain the relatively moderate correlations between self-concept and achievement in field studies that do not take the class as the unit of analysis [Roger *et al.*, 1978].

- Data from studies in general psychology confirm the close relationship between self-concept and persistence at difficult tasks. These findings, though not astonishing at all, are important as they relate cognitive with behavioral phenomena and elucidate the mechanisms between these two. High self-esteem leads the student to invest more effort when failing at a mathematical problem because additional effort seems reasonable and promising to cope with the task. Low self-concept, on the other hand, leads to a persistence drop as success seems to be out of reach even with additional exertion. The construct that links self-concept and persistence is "effort calculation" [Culler/Holahan, 1980; Lorenz, 1979; Jopt, 1980; Henson, 1976]

- Anxiety and motivation as well as attitudes are related to self-concept, though in different ways. Attitude seems to be a mere affective correlate of the student's cognitive assessment of being successful in certain content areas [August *et al.*, 1975; Kulm, 1980]. Anxiety can be conceptualized as the fear of failing at a task, a content, or a subject implying a cognitive calculation of the perceived ability and assumed (subjective) task difficulty. If a student assesses his mathematics ability to be low his fear of failing rises [Lorenz, 1979; Birkel/Straub, 1977]

The same applies to motivation regarded as hope for success [Eisenhard, 1977]. Anxiety and motivation both influence the student's willingness to persist at difficult tasks [Cohen, 1977]. Persistence as a behavioral construct directly relates to mathematics achievement [Jopt, 1977, 1980].

Personality

There is little research evidence on personality factors beyond Aiken's summary of 1976. Personality characteristics related to mathematics achievement, like high sense of personal worth, responsibility, high social standards, and freedom from withdrawing tendencies, should be regarded as indicators or correlates of *general* achievement motivation. There is no hint in the research literature of any of these factors being specific for mathematics, and no theoretical conceptualization leading to such an hypothesis [Dumke/Heidbrink, 1980]. This might partly explain the absence of empirical research endeavours in this topic since 1976.

There is, of course, some knowledge about those personality traits which are regarded as specific cognitive competencies, for example cognitive styles. There are close correlations between the dimensions of field-dependence/independence and mathematics achievement (highest for arithmetic and geometry) as well as between impulsivity/reflectiveness and mathematics performance favouring reflectiveness [Radatz, 1979]. But little has been added to our knowledge in this area since Begle's book [Friedrich, 1976; Lissmann, 1977].

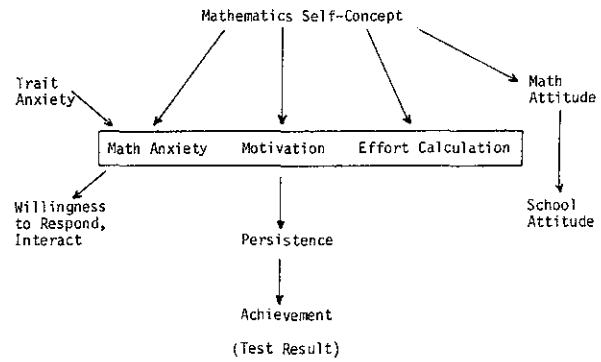


Figure 1

Process model of affective student variables

Perspective

The model outlined in the foregoing (see Figure 1) might thus establish a theoretical frame to explain the mechanisms between the affective variables discussed by Begle. A lot of crucial points still remain for future research. Studies have to be rather subtle to enlighten the differential relationships between these variables and their correspondence to mathematics achievement. A simple linear causality seems unrealistic in the light of the data and does not meet the complexity of classroom interaction and affective and cognitive student variables [Peterson, 1977]. A more systematic (=ecological) approach including teacher behaviour and content area is needed [Luce/Hoge, 1978; Lorenz, 1980].

One of the crucial points in future research will be the development of alternative research methods and techniques to illuminate the process character of mathematics learning and teaching, only partially studied in the last five years.

The need for content-specific instruments measuring the affective variables discussed in this article might show (and some research evidence already does) that these variables are not constant over time, not even from one day to the next. These findings conflict with the researcher's need for reliability and they limit the results in their external validity to specific contents, classes, and even situations. Still they may increase the practical value of fundamental research in mathematics education.

Mathematics education is not yet a scientific discipline with regard to its own methodology and instruments [Bromme *et al.*, 1980]. It still relies heavily on theoretical concepts discussed and studied in related fields. Affective student variables as described in this article are more or less arbitrary selections of factors emerging from studies in educational psychology and personal psychology. By taking over the results of related sciences one adopts their theoretical shortcomings as well. In the author's view personal psychology especially seems to be a dead end with

respect to mathematics instruction, leading to well planned studies (and doctoral degrees) on the one hand but adding little to our understanding of mathematics learning Begle/Gibb [1980] criticized this kind of scientific endeavour as “making bricks” instead of “building edifices of knowledge”

Begle/Gibb’s perspective of future research in mathematics education is too recent to have an impact on the studies discussed in this article. But there is some research undertaken in fields which, at this moment, seem quite far away but are nevertheless fruitful for our discipline. Problems of learning, in particular of building up cognitive structures and available memory in specific situations, are studied in cognitive psychology and artificial intelligence, converging in something like “cognitive science”. Fortunately, mathematical situations and mathematics learning are the main topics in this field (because one center is at MIT in connection with Papert’s Logo-Project).

Evidently, the structure of the problems to be solved calls for clinical investigation and observation, longitudinal studies with individuals, and the idiosyncratic influence of their (affective and cognitive) “variables” on the learning process and the foundation of meaning [for an example see Lawler, 1981]. This type of research resumes the Piagetian tradition (“structure building” as research problem and clinical method), partly lost in mathematics education or converted to correlational field studies. (Ginsburg and Erlwanger are rare exceptions; that’s why they seem to be the most cited authors of the last decade.)

A reorientation in mathematics education seems necessary, and Shumway’s book [1980] is a good start. If mathematics educators are looking beyond the borders of their discipline, the author would point in the direction of AI and cognitive science.

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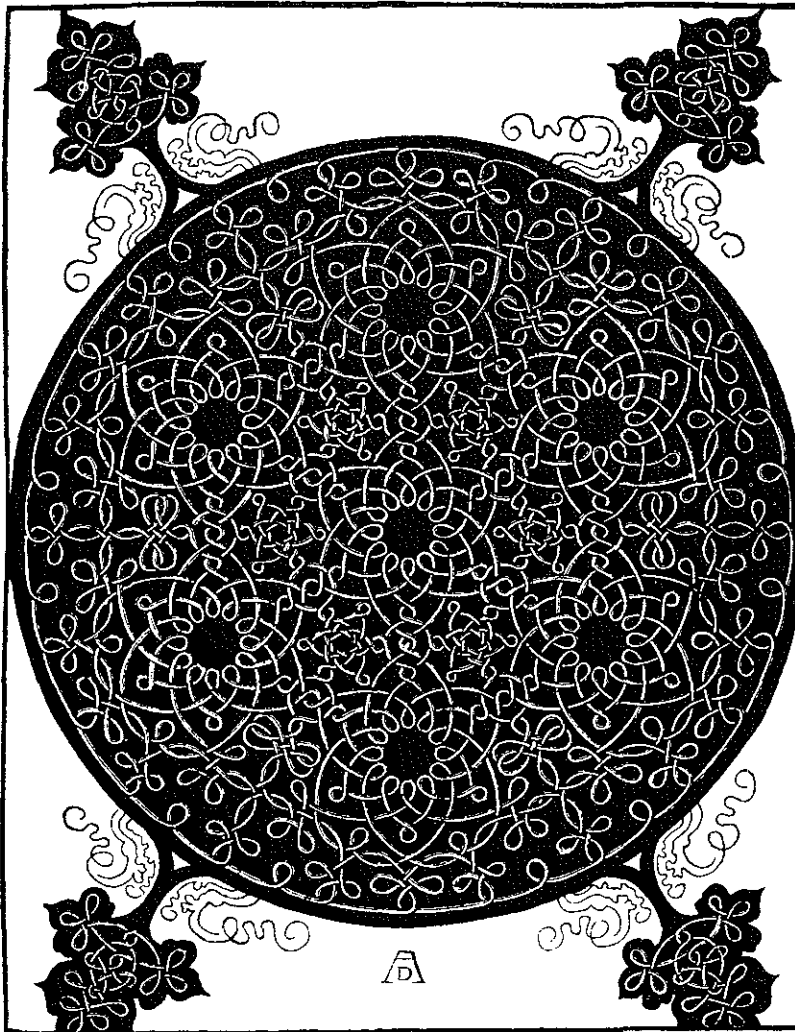
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