

THE EFFECTS OF STEREOTYPED AND NONSTEREOTYPED LITERATURE
ON CHILDREN'S ACHIEVEMENT-MOTIVATION

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ABSTRACT

Sixty preschool age and sixty second graders were used as subjects to determine the effects of sex-stereotyped and nonsex-stereotyped literature on children's achievement-motivation. The subjects at each grade level were randomly assigned to one of three treatment conditions: a presentation of a story depicting stereotyped achievement-motivated behavior by a male (the stereotyped story), a presentation of a story depicting the same behaviors by a female (the nonstereotyped story), or a control story involving no achievement-motivated behavior. After the story presentation, each subject was assessed for achievement-motivation by three measures: a persistence task, a risk-taking task, and a projective measure.

Results showed that the particular story had no consistent effect on the subjects' achievement-motivation. Results did, however, show that second graders persisted longer on the persistence task than preschoolers. Second graders also took greater risks on the risk-taking measure, and related more achievement-related story content on the projective measure than did preschoolers. The age of the subjects as a possible explanation for the results was discussed as well as the need for further research.

INTRODUCTION

Research shows that both men and women's attitudes concerning sex-appropriate behaviors are very stereotyped (Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Bee, Broverman, & Broverman, 1968). It has also been shown that these stereotyped beliefs can start to develop as early as age three (Flerx, Fidler, & Rogers, 1976). There are various views that try to explain how these stereotyped attitudes develop, one of which is the social learning theory. This social learning view (Bandura, 1965, 1969; Bandura & Walters, 1963) contends that learning, including learning of sex-stereotyped behavior can occur vicariously through observation of the model's behavior and its consequences. The effectiveness of social training has been shown to be governed by several aspects. The affective qualities of models, such as interpersonal attributes and attractiveness (Bandura & Huston, 1961; Grusec & Mischel, 1966) may elicit strong attending behavior. Secondly, retention of the observed behavior through imaginal and verbal forms may enhance observational learning (Margolius & Sheffield, 1961). A third major factor influencing modeling phenomenon involves the motoric reproduction processes. At the motoric level, the availability of responses partly govern the rate and level of observational learning. Finally, reinforcement or motivational processes affect observational learning. If

positive incentives are introduced, whether the behaviors are exhibited by models in vivo or through symbolic modeling (television, films, literature, or other audiovisual displays), the observer tends to reproduce the model's behavior.

The social learning view suggests the importance of parents, other live models, television and movie models on the forming of behavior, such as sex-typed behavior, in children. Studies show, for example, that parental influence begins on the first day infants are born.

For example, in one study (Rubin, Provenzans, & Luria, 1974) parents were asked to describe one-day-old infants as they would to a close friend or relative. Fifteen of the 30 pairs of parents were parents of boy infants, 15 of girl infants. The boy and girl infants did not differ in their average birth weight, birth length, or in various medical indexes (Apgar score). Yet, the different sexes were differentially perceived and labeled. Both mothers and fathers described their daughters more often as little, beautiful, cute, weaker, delicate and as resembling their mother. Boys were described more often as firmer, larger featured, better coordinated, more alert and stronger. Since the infants were all equal on body dimensions, the differential descriptions were most likely based on preconceived notions of masculinity and femininity.

Throughout the preschool years, the child is directly and indirectly reinforced by parents and others for behaving according to sex-role expectancies. Female children are supplied with the tools to imitate sequences of female housekeeping behavior. Boys are usually restricted to toy choices as well as play behavior. By the age of three, children have learned that there are activities and duties appropriate for each sex (Kohlberg, 1966).

By the time the child enters kindergarten, he or she can make sex-role preferences as well as express sex-role distinctions (Fling & Manosevitz, 1972). Williams, Bennett, and Best (1975) devised a technique, the Sex Stereotype Measure, to define the awareness and expression of sex stereotypes in young children. This measure was designed to be coordinated to the adult sex stereotypes defined by the Adjective Check List (Gough & Heilbrun, 1965). The adult-derived stereotypes on this check list were translated into a vocabulary that would be familiar to young children and into a format appropriate to their test-taking abilities. The stereotype adjectives were then used to compose 12 children's stories that represented the male stereotype, and 12 stories that represented the female stereotype. Each story had corresponding pictures of two adults, a male and a female. The resulting Sex Stereotype Measure involved presenting each picture, reading the corresponding story, and asking the child to point to the

person in each picture that the story was about. The child's response was recorded, yielding a male stereotype subscore, a female stereotype subscore, and a total stereotype subscore. These researchers found that kindergarten children show an appreciable degree of knowledge of adult sex stereotypes. This knowledge increased up to a second-grade level but showed no increase for the following two years. At the second- and fourth-grade levels, the expression of sex stereotypes appeared to be facilitated by the presence of a male examiner. These researchers labeled this time between these grades as a "latency period" during which little additional learning occurs. It was also found that a male stereotype was learned at an earlier age than the female stereotype. It seems apparent that sex-typing is well-developed by the time a child enters school.

During the child's formative years and throughout later education, sex-typing is modeled by various factors, one of which is culture. Research shows that it is justifiable to assume that sex-role behavior can be culturally determined by parents, significant others and the overall surroundings of the child. Kriedberg, Butcher, & White (1978) studied the effect of children's choices of vocational roles. Second- and sixth-grade children were given choices of vocational roles. Males in both grades endorsed traditional vocations overwhelmingly when asked,

"What do you want to be when you grow up?". Only the first vocation named in response to each question was recorded. No significant differences were found between male and female subjects in both grades in either the number of different vocations nominated or the number of subjects changing their original vocational choices. Second-graders, however, nominated traditional vocations significantly more often than nontraditional vocations. Boys, it seems, generally perceive a wide range of opportunities open to them and thus will name more occupational categories than girls (Looft, 1971). Besides this difference, boys also seem to be influenced by culture concerning the causes of their success or failure (Etaugh & Ropp, 1976). Children in the third- and fifth-grade performed a task which was labeled either sex-appropriate or sex-inappropriate. Following the task, prearranged feedback (success or failure) was provided and the children evaluated the importance of ability, effort, task difficulty and luck in determining their performance. Girls attributed failure to lack of ability more than did boys. Successful boys emphasized ability more than luck, whereas successful girls did not. Studies show that boys experience fewer restrictions inside and outside of the home when compared to girls (Etaugh, Collons, & Gerson, 1975; Fagot & Patterson, 1969). Females can be pressured more than males to conform to cultural expectancies.

Another influence on children's attitudes of sex-typed behavior is provided by models portrayed in literature, television, and films (Mischel, 1970). Mischel concluded that aggressive roles are almost always portrayed by men and nurturant roles by women. Research suggests that children's aggressive behavior is increased by the observation of television violence (Isber & Cantor, 1975; Miles, 1975).

Social values are also transmitted to the child in school by exposure to literature, the topic of the present study. Reading research supports this contention. It seems that societal opinions of appropriate "masculinity" and "femininity" via literature have changed little in the past thirty years (Hillman, 1974). Child, Potter, & Levin (1946) reported that achievement-related behavior of story-book models was sex-stereotyped at that time. After investigating the characters in children's literature, they concluded that girls in school were not receiving the same training for work and achievement that the boys were receiving.

A recent examination of prize-winning children's picture books reveals that women are still greatly under-represented in the titles, central roles, and illustrations (Weiztman, Eifler, Hokada, & Ross, 1977). Even when women were represented, their characterizations reinforced the traditional sex-role stereotypes: boys lead and girls

follow, boys are active and girls are passive, boys achieve and girls ask for help.

Some researchers (Blom, Waits, & Zimet, 1968) believe that cultural attitudes and values are conveyed through the content of stories. Robinson (1962) states that some aspect of socialization is built into stories and books. McClelland (1961) suggests that sex differences in our society may derive in part from sex differences in achievement imagery in children's books.

Research indicates that literature does indeed affect various attitudes. Litcher & Johnson (1969) demonstrated changes in children's attitudes toward Blacks after the use of multiethnic readers. Jennings (1975) showed the effects of sex-typing in children's stories on preference and recall. Preschoolers heard stories about a character of their own sex and one about a character of the opposite sex. The main characters in the stories were always the same sex as the children in that particular group. The girls listened to one story about a girl who wanted to be a ballerina and one story about a girl who wanted to be a mail carrier. The main character in one story for the boys was a boy who wanted to be a male dancer while the main character in the other story wanted to be a mail carrier. Immediately after the stories, the children were tested individually for preference and recall. A significant number of subjects preferred the stories where the

character displayed "accurate" behavior for the sex represented. Barclay (1974) showed that after a "treatment" of reading books about women working and exposure to general career information, girls made more female vocational choices than boys. Sixty-four kindergarten children were pretested for ability to conserve liquid quantity and on an original picture test of vocations, choosing a man, a woman, or both as suitable for particular jobs. After pretesting, all children in the stage of concrete operations (conservers) were randomly assigned to three treatment groups. All nonconservers were likewise assigned. The treatments were then randomly assigned to the three groups. The treatment consisted of a flannel board demonstration of the story of the Gingerbread Man as a nonrelated control treatment, reading and discussion of the books dealing with various occupations that mothers can engage in addition to their wife-mother role and reading and discussion of a career information pamphlet entitled What Would I Like To Do? This booklet discussed a variety of career possibilities but made no reference to the sex of individuals holding the various jobs. Each treatment was administered for a daily 15-minute time period on three consecutive days for each group. After treatments, all children were individually posttested on the same picture test as in pretesting. Results indicate that a relatively short exposure of only three

15-minute lessons dealing with women's careers did affect kindergarten children's attitudes toward a woman's role. Girls made more female choices than did boys, and there was a significant treatment effect favoring the books about women in careers.

Attitudes concerning sex roles have been changed in children aged four and five. Flerx et. al. (1976) pre-tested children using the doll-choice technique. Each child was asked questions measuring stereotypes (e.g. "Show me who will grow up to be a Daddy?") and the child was to answer by pointing to the desired doll. By pointing to the appropriate doll, children indicated their beliefs about sex role standards for both children and parents on intelligence, play activities (for children only), type of work, androgynous acts and affect-expressiveness. Responses were scored from most stereotyped to most egalitarian. Each class was then assigned to one of two treatment groups, an egalitarian treatment composed of picture books that were recommended by several surveys of children's literature, and a traditional treatment composed of books that the survey listed as particularly traditional with stereotyped male and female models. The experimenter read to the subjects in each group 30 minutes a day for 5 days. A posttest was given on the day following completion of the readings to determine the effects of the experimental manipulation. Because of two problems, assigning classes

to treatments instead of randomly assigning individual children, and using the same person as story reader and tester, a second experiment was conducted. The two problems were corrected. For the second experiment, films were also used in the treatments. This addition of film exposure resulted in the use of three treatment conditions, an egalitarian film group, an egalitarian book group, and a traditional book group. The same procedures for pre- and posttesting and for conducting the experimental sessions were again employed.

Results of the second experiment corroborate the first. The results show that presentation of egalitarian sex roles reduced sex-role stereotyping and thus is consistent with a social learning approach to the modification of sex-typed beliefs. There was some evidence that films had more enduring impact than picture books. In both experiments the egalitarian treatments affected males and females similarly. Brief presentation of illustrated stories involving egalitarian sex-role models reduced stereotypic thinking. Males were found to exhibit more stereotyped responses than females. Interaction effects revealed that an egalitarian literature presentation was more effective at age 5 than at age 4 and more effective for females than males.

Some research has shown no significant change in children's sex-role attitudes after exposure to sex-typed

literature. Middleton (1977) exposed 36 four-year-old children to a treatment consisting of alternating non-sexist or traditional children's books. This treatment continued for two successive three-week periods. The IT Scale for Children (Brown, 1959), a projective measure of sex-role preference, was administered to each child three times, prior to the 3-week period, between periods, and following the second 3-week period. These results indicated that short-term exposure to non-sex stereotyped literature had no significant effect upon the sex-role preferences of either male or female four-year-olds. There were several methodological problems apparent in this study, one being the non-random assignment of subjects to a treatment condition. The findings did, however, offer support for earlier studies. For example, Marr (1975) tested the hypothesis that children's perceptions of sex appropriate behavior could be changed through training. Two children, both eight years old, were pretested on two inventories devised by the experimenter and one inventory (toy preference) devised by DeLucia (1963). The experimenter's two inventories included one which gauged activities each child would like to perform and one which asked the subject to identify a suitable occupation for "Jennifer", a female who was trying to choose a career. In the Toy Preference Inventory, the child was asked to choose one of two toys he or she would rather play with. Following the testing,

the experimenter spoke with each child three times weekly for six weeks for approximately one hour. These discussions involved stories of women being in jobs of authority and importance, illustrated with pictures from women's magazines depicting women as astronauts, jockeys, athletes, and candidates for President. Both children were retested and the pretest results were compared to the results of the posttest. Results showed that the stories or pictures elicited no noticeable change in either children's attitudes concerning these non-appropriate jobs. Marr concluded that attitudes embedded in an eight year old about future expectations for women cannot be dislodged by a six week training session.

Fisher and Torney (1976) studied the effects of models in stories on dependent behavior (help seeking) and independent behavior (the withholding of help-seeking responses). These behaviors have been described as stereotypically appropriate feminine and masculine behaviors respectively (Mischel, 1970). Eight female and eight male five-year-old children were randomly assigned to each of ten story conditions. In two stories, the behavior of a child model was dependent; these two stories differed only with respect to the sex of the model. In two other stories, the behavior of the model was independent; these two stories also differed only with respect to the sex of the model. In the dependent story, the model sought help in

solving a puzzle and was verbally reinforced for doing so. In the independent story, the model worked at the puzzle on his or her own and finished it without asking for help; he or she was verbally reinforced for pursuing the solution alone. In the control group, each child was shown a series of eight pictures and was told that he or she would be asked to remember the pictures. Before hearing the dependent and independent stories, subjects were told they would be asked questions about the stories to aid in recall. After hearing the appropriate story, each subject attempted a block-design task. Prior to the test, subjects were given success experience with similar, simpler designs. The time between the beginning of the test design and when the subject requested help was measured as the dependent variable. Results indicated that girls sought help earlier than the boys regardless of the story that was presented. However, boys and girls in the control group were not significantly different in willingness to seek help. Children exposed to a dependent model asked for help sooner than those exposed to an independent model. Girls were found to ask for help sooner in all experimental groups than those in the control group. These findings, according to the authors, suggest that imitation of the modeled behavior depended greatly on what the children already knew about the behavior presented to them; dependent behavior had been previously acceptable for

females and independent behaviors had been viewed previously as acceptable for males. The results reveal no appreciable effects of short-term exposure to non-sex stereotyped literature on children's attitudes of sex-appropriate behavior.

It thus seems apparent that various behaviors of male and female models, such as achievement and aggression, are sex-typed. These stereotyped behaviors are illicitated through live and symbolic models. Because of conflicting results of the effect of literature on children's sex-typed behavior, the present study was undertaken to provide further research in this area.

This study concerns the effects of literature on achievement-motivation, a sex-typed behavior. The present study parallels the research done by McArthur and Eisen (1976). The authors assessed the effects of achievement behavior by male and female storybook models on children's own achievement. Sixty-eight nursery school children were read one of three storybooks. A stereotyped story depicted achievement-oriented behavior by a male but not by a female character. A reversal story consisted of a female character, not a male, exhibiting the achievement-oriented behavior. The third storybook involved a control story depicting no achievement-oriented behaviors; there were no people in this story which dealt with various vocalizations made by animals. Following the reading of one of the stories, the

children's own achievement-oriented behavior was assessed. The amount of time subjects spent trying to use tongs to stand up plastic flowers that were lying on their side in a terrarium served as the measure of subject's achievement-oriented behavior on a problem-solving task. Besides this persistence measure, subjects were asked to recall the story they had heard and state their preference for the male versus the female central character. The authors found that the portrayal of male and female characters in children's storybooks can have an effect on the reader's achievement-oriented behavior. The preschool boys manifested more task persistence following one brief story depicting achievement behavior by a male character than after a story using the same behavior shown by a female. A similar trend was found for girls but the results were nonsignificant. Correlations were found between recall and persistence: the more children recalled about a same-sex character, the longer they persisted on the terrarium task.

There are differences between the study done by McArthur and Eisen and the present study. McArthur and Eisen used a behavioral method, the persistence task, to measure the subject's achievement-motivation. This method may be constrained by the limits set by reality or by the person's abilities. Therefore, two additional measures for achievement motivated behavior were implemented in the present research. A ring toss game was constructed to

provide the subject with an opportunity to take small, moderate, or average risks. Use of tasks, such as the ring toss game, have been helpful in studying how individuals with different motive levels behave in risk-taking situations (McClelland, 1972). Secondly, projective measures, such as the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) can provide a sample of the subjects spontaneous thoughts as an indication of achievement motivation. TAT cards one and two were used for this purpose.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study was to determine the influence of literature on achievement-motivation. Three treatment conditions were implemented: a stereotype story condition, a reversal or non-stereotyped story, and a control story. Three aspects of achievement-motivation were used as measures in this study: the tasks included a persistence task (placing plastic flowers upright in a terrarium), a risk-taking task (ring-toss game), and a projective measure (cards one and two of the Thematic Apperception Test).

Several hypotheses were tested in this study. They are as follows:

Hypothesis I: Exposure to stereotyped literature will result in males exhibiting more achievement-motivation on all three dependent variables (the persistence task, risk-taking task, and projective measure).

Hypothesis II: Exposure to the reversal literature will result in females exhibiting more achievement-motivation on all three dependent variables.

Hypothesis III: Based on the similarity between the stereotyped literature and reversal literature and the persistence task (placing flowers upright in a terrarium), it is expected that effects will be greatest in the persistence task.

METHOD

Design. The independent variables were sex of the subject, story type condition (stereotyped, reversal, and control), and grade (preschool and second grade). The three illustrated stories were obtained from previous research with permission to use them in this study (McArthur & Eisen, Note 1). These factors combine to form a 2X3X2 (Sex X Storybook X Grade) design. Three dependent variables were used: a persistence task, a risk-taking task, and a projective test. These measures have been used as measures of achievement-motivation.

Subjects. One hundred and twenty male and female children were used as subjects. The preschoolers were enrolled in the Busy Beaver Child Development Center and the First Baptist Child Development Center, Hickory. The second graders were enrolled in the Catawba County School system. The mean age for the preschool subjects was 4 years, 7 months. The mean age for the second graders was 7 years, 6 months.

Apparatus. Each child was randomly assigned to one of the three storybook conditions. Each group consisted of twenty children. Before reading the appropriate story, the examiner told the children that they would be asked questions after hearing the story. They were also told that they would be asked to perform three tasks. The

examiner then read to them one of the three illustrated stories developed by McArthur and Eisen (1976). These were created specifically for similar research by these authors. The stereotyped story involved two central characters - a four-year-old boy and girl. These characters manifested behaviors that were similar to those displayed in various content analyses of children's literature. For example, it was found that boys are more likely than girls to manifest strength, bravery, or heroism (see Table 1 and Table 2). The reversal story was identical to the stereotyped story in all aspects except that the roles of the boy and girl were reversed. The control story concerned vocalizations made by animals. There were no people in the control story. (See Appendices B, C, and D for the stories)

Procedure. Immediately after reading the appropriate story to the different groups of children, each child was tested individually. Each subject was asked a set of questions to assess recall (e.g. Were there any children in the story?; What did the boy do?; What did the girl do?.) After answering the questions, the children were asked to attempt the three dependent variable tasks (persistence task, risk-taking task, and the projective test). The order of presentation of the three tasks was counterbalanced for each child.

Persistence Task. The child was asked to try to stand up some plastic flowers that were lying on their side in a

Table 1
Behaviors Manifested by the Boy in the Stereotype
Story and the Research Findings on Which These
Portrayals are Based

Boy's behavior	Supporting research findings ^a
Constructs a model ship.	Boys are more likely than girls to construct things. (1,2)
Saves the girl from a goat.	Boys are more likely than girls to manifest strength, bravery, or heroism. (2,3)
Receives money for rescuing the girl, and with it buys a model ship in a bottle.	Boys are more likely than girls to earn money or to buy material products. (1,2)
Figures out how to get the ship into the bottle.	Boys are more likely than girls to manifest cleverness and problem-solving ability. (2)
Gets the ship into bottle and, after much effort, pulls it upright.	Boys are more likely than girls to show achievement attempts and perseverance, and to construct things. (1,2)

^aNumbers represent sex differences reported by (1) Child, Potter, and Levine (1946); (2) Women on Words and Images (1972); and (3) Weitzman, Eifler, Hokada, and Ross (1972).

Table 2
Behaviors Manifested by the Girl in the Stereotype
Story and the Research Findings on Which These
Portrayals are Based

Girl's behavior	Supporting research findings ^a
Paints a picture.	This behavior is not based on sex differences in children's books, but is consistent with sex differences in pre-schoolers' behavior. (Fagot & Patterson, 1969).
Is frightened by a goat, and calls for help.	Girls are relatively likely to display fear and avoidance of danger, and to make requests for help. (1,2)
Receives a hug after being rescued from the goat	Girls are relatively likely to receive nurturance. (1)
Suggests asking an adult to help get a model ship into a narrow-necked bottle.	Girls are relatively likely to request help. (1)
Watches the boy get the model ship into the bottle.	Girls are relatively likely to display passivity. (2,3)
Leaves while the boy continues trying to get the ship upright in the bottle.	Girls are less likely than boys to display perseverance and achievement attempts. (1,2)

^aNumbers represent sex differences reported by (1) Child, Potter, and Levine (1946); (2) Women on Words and Images (1972); and (3) Weitzman, Eifler, Hokada, and Ross (1972).

terrarium. This task was similar to the one used by McArthur & Eisen (1976). The amount of time subjects spent on the task served as the measure of subjects' achievement-oriented behavior. The terrarium was a narrow-necked bottle, similar in appearance to the bottle in the stereotyped and reversal stories, and its shape necessitated the use of aluminum tongs to stand up the flowers. To insure that the subjects' persistence on the terrarium task reflected internalized motivation, the task was presented as an optional one, and the subjects were told that they could stop whenever they wanted. The task was terminated when the subject said that he or she did not want to work on it any longer or after ten minutes had elapsed.

Risk-Taking Task. This task consisted of a ring-toss stand and three marks on the floor that were 4, 8, or 12 feet from the stand. Each distance was associated with a set value: i.e., a 4-foot mark, equalling 5 points, an 8-foot mark equalling 10 points, and a 12-foot mark equalling 25 points. The subject would earn the designated number of points if he or she successfully tossed the ring onto the stand. After three attempts, the subject's score was totalled and he or she received a prize according to the number of points the subject had obtained. Prizes included one animal sticker for 5 to 25 points, two animal stickers for 30 to 50 points, and a balloon for a score of 55 to 75

points. The scoring was explained to the subject before any attempts were made. The average of the distance chosen for the three tosses served as the measure of the subject's risk-taking behavior.

Projective Test. Each subject was seated across from the examiner and given these instructions: "This is a storytelling test. I have some pictures here that I am going to show you, and for each picture I want you to make up a story. Tell what has happened before and what is happening now. Say what the people are feeling and thinking and how it will come out. You can make up any kind of story you please. Do you understand? Well then, here is the first picture. You have five minutes to make up a story. See how well you can do." (Murray, 1943). Pictures one and two of the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) were chosen because of their tendency to bring out a need for achievement or stories which focused on role of the sexes (Bellak, 1978). Picture one is that of a young boy contemplating a violin which rests on a table in front of him. Picture two is that of a country scene: in the foreground is a young woman with books in her hand; in the background is a man working in the fields and an older woman is looking on.

The subjects' stories were scored by a method developed by McClelland (1972). The method was devised in order to extract from TAT stories certain thought groupings. These

groupings reflect different motives within a person. The motive or need (n) scored in this study involved achievement. McClelland defines the achievement motive (n Ach) as indicated by a character in a story wanting to perform or do something better, or by someone caring about performing or doing something better. The scorer first decided whether or not the story contained any reference to an achievement goal which would justify his scoring the subsequent categories (Need, Instrumental Activity, etc.) as achievement related. The achievement goal was defined as "success in competition with some standard of excellence," (McClelland, 1974). This individual's concern over competition with a standard of excellence is the generic definition of n Achievement.

For any of the characters to have an achievement goal, he had to want to perform better or care about performing better. Performing better was indicated by a character who exhibited one or more of four criteria (see Table 3). If one or more of the criteria was met in a story, the story was scored +1 for Achievement Imagery (AI). If none of the characteristics were present, the story was scored 0 and no further scoring for n Achievement was possible.

If Achievement Imagery (AI) was present in the story, then additional scoring for the Achievement Motive was possible. A story received an additional one point for

Table 3

Criteria for Scoring the Achievement Motive

Criteria	Example
1. The character in the story outperforms someone else.	Getting a bigger share of the market, running faster, getting a higher score, etc.
2. The character in the story meets or surpasses some self-imposed standard of excellence.	Doing something cheaper, more efficiently, faster, etc.
3. The character in the story does something unique.	Inventing something.
4. The character in the story is involved over a long term in doing something well - where there is an indication of great involvement over time in the achievement goal.	Being a success in life, becoming a lawyer, doctor, nurse, etc.

each of the ten additional criteria that could be included in the story (see Table 4). These additional characteristics involved a more intensive study of each story. Aspects considered included whether or not the character had help in attaining the goal, the character's feelings regarding the goal, etc. After scoring was completed, it was possible to receive a maximum total of eleven points (11) for n Achievement in one story.

An experienced examiner scored a sample of the TAT stories to serve as a check on reliability for the scoring system. Six protocols were scored and there was complete agreement between the scores.

Table 4

Criteria For Scoring The Achievement Imagery

1. N = Stated Need for Achievement: Some character in the story explicitly states the desire to meet an achievement goal.
2. Act = Activity: Action is taken in the story toward attainment of the achievement goal.
3. Sa = Anticipating Success: Some character in the story thinks about the achievement goal.
4. Fa = Anticipating Failure: Someone in the story doubts that he will reach the achievement goal.
5. Bp = Personal Block: Some characteristic of a character in the story becomes a block to his achievement.
6. Bw = World Block: Something in the environment is seen as a block to achievement.
7. H = Help: The character in the story with an achievement goal receives help or encouragement from someone else in the story.
8. F+ = Positive Feelings: The character is pleased when an achievement goal is reached.
9. F- = Negative Feelings: The character is discouraged when an achievement goal is not reached.
10. Th = Theme: The central plot of the story contains achievement thoughts and activities.

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine the influence of literature on children's achievement-motivation. Three stories were used as one of the independent variables: a sex-stereotyped story, a reversal story (a nonsex-stereotyped story), and a control story. The remaining two independent variables were sex of the subject and grade. The three dependent variables used to study the effects of the literature on the subject's achievement-motivation were a persistence task (placing flowers upright in a terrarium), a risk-taking task (ring toss game), and a projective measure (pictures one and two of the TAT).

A three-way analysis of variance was used to evaluate the effect of story type, sex, and grade on the persistence measure, i.e. the total time the child worked on the terrarium task. A significant effect for story type was found ($F(1,119) = 11.319, p = .001$). The means of the number of seconds for the stereotype, reversal, and control stories were 494.65, 464.80, and 323.27 seconds respectively. (See Table 5 for the ANOVA summary and means and standard deviations). A t-test analysis also indicated that the individuals who heard the stereotyped story persisted significantly longer on the persistence task than the individuals hearing the control story (Critical difference for significance at .05 level = 153.79). There were no

Table 5
ANOVA Summary Tables and Means and Standard
Deviations for Persistence

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Story	2	339461.7	11.3	.001
Sex	1	30422.2	1.0	ns
Grade	1	1271091.0	42.3	.001
Story X Sex	2	20008.8	.6	ns
Story X Grade	2	54123.5	1.8	ns
Sex X Grade	1	17471.6	.5	ns
Story X Sex X Grade	2	26593.6	.8	ns
Error (Within Subjects)	108	29991.5		
Total	119	45721.1		

b. Means and Standard Deviations

	Stereotyped	Story Reversal	Control
Preschool Male	508.5(183.6)	372.0(217.3)	192.1(167.7)
Female	364.8(227.5)	294.9(249.9)	238.6(179.2)
2nd Grade Male	563.8(120.0)	600.0(0.0)	443.3(179.4)
Female	554.8(135.3)	600.0(0.0)	423.6(191.4)

significant effects found for persistence between the reversal and control stories, or between the stereotyped and reversal stories.

These results show that subjects persisted longer on the persistence task (placing flowers upright in a terrarium using tongs) after hearing the stereotyped story.

A significant effect was also found for grade ($F(1,119) = 42.382, p = .001$). The second grade subjects persisted longer on the persistence task than the preschool subjects. The means for the second grade and preschool groups were 531.05 and 324.06 seconds respectively. No significant effects were found for sex. (See Table 6 for the ANOVA summary and means and standard deviations).

A three-way analysis of variance was performed on the effects of story type, sex, and grade on the amount of risk-taking displayed. This risk-taking task involved the subject having three attempts to toss a ring on a ring stand from various distances. Examination of the results showed a significant effect for grade ($F(1,119) = 23.25, p = .001$). Second grade subjects took more risks (attempted to toss from greater distances) than preschool subjects. The means for the second grade and preschoolers were 8.13 and 4.62 feet respectively. No significant effects were found for story type or sex. (See Table 6 for the ANOVA summary and means and standard deviations).

A third analysis of variance using story type, sex, and grade on the total TAT achievement scores resulted in

Table 6

ANOVA Summary Tables and Means and Standard
Deviations for Risk-Taking

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Story	2	7.4	0.4	ns
Sex	1	16.1	1.0	ns
Grade	1	365.2	23.2	.001
Story X Sex	2	0.2	0.0	ns
Story X Grade	2	6.5	0.4	ns
Sex X Grade	1	8.1	0.5	ns
Story X Sex X Grade	2	7.6	.4	ns
Residual (Within subjects)	108	15.7		
Total	119			

b. Means and Standard Deviations

		Stereotyped	Story Reversal	Control
Preschool	Male	5.7(2.9)	4.2(0.5)	4.2(0.5)
	Female	4.7(2.0)	4.2(0.5)	4.5(0.9)
2nd Grade	Male	8.2(2.4)	8.2(2.2)	9.8(12.2)
	Female	8.0(2.2)	6.6(2.1)	7.7(1.7)

a significant effect for grade ($F(1,119) = 51.67, p = .001$). The second grade subjects obtained higher TAT scores for achievement-motivation content than the preschool group. Means for the second grade and preschool groups were 2.55 and .78 points respectively. Regarding sex or story type, no significant effects were found. (See Table 7 for the ANOVA summary and means and standard deviations).

An analysis of variance was also performed on the individual TAT stories. TAT picture one was the only picture of the two used that reflected a difference in achievement content. No significant effect of story type, grade, or sex was found for the content of TAT picture two. A significant effect of grade on story content of TAT picture one was found ($F(1,119) = 52.12, p = .001$). Subjects in the second grade exhibited more achievement-motivated content for TAT picture one than the preschool subjects. Means for the second grade and preschool group were 2.20 and .55 points respectively. No significant effect of story type or sex on story content of TAT picture one was found. There was little if any achievement content in stories for picture two. (For the ANOVA summary and means and standard deviations, see Table 8).

A review of the results show that neither hypothesis one or two were supported. Exposure to stereotyped literature did not result in males exhibiting more achievement-motivation than females on all three dependent

Table 7

ANOVA Summary Tables and Means and Standard
Deviations for Total TAT Story Scores

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Story	2	4.8	2.6	ns
Sex	1	1.3	0.7	ns
Grade	1	94.2	51.6	.001
Story X Sex	2	2.4	1.3	ns
Story X Grade	2	0.9	0.5	ns
Sex X Grade	1	1.2	0.7	ns
Story X Sex X Grade	2	1.4	0.7	ns
Residual (Within subjects)	108	1.8		
Total	119	2.6		

b. Means and Standard Deviations

	Stereotyped	Story Reversal	Control
Preschool Male	0.7(0.9)	1.3(1.2)	0.2(0.6)
Female	1.0(1.3)	0.4(0.8)	0.8(1.0)
2nd Grade Male	2.5(2.2)	2.6(1.7)	1.9(0.8)
Female	3.4(1.8)	2.8(1.2)	2.1(1.3)

Table 8
ANOVA Summary Tables and Means and Standard
Deviations for TAT Story 1 Scores

a. ANOVA Summary

Source	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Story	2	5.6	3.5	ns
Sex	1	1.0	0.6	ns
Grade	1	82.2	52.1	.001
Story X Sex	2	1.6	1.0	ns
Story X Grade	2	1.7	1.0	ns
Sex X Grade	1	.3	0.1	ns
Story X Sex X Grade	2	2.2	1.4	ns
Residual (Within subjects)	108	1.5		
Total	119	2.3		

b. Means and Standard Deviations

		Stereotyped	Story Reversal	Control
Preschool	Male	0.6(1.0)	0.8(0.9)	0.0(0.0)
	Female	0.9(1.3)	0.1(0.6)	0.7(0.9)
2nd Grade	Male	2.1(1.8)	2.4(1.3)	1.6(1.1)
	Female	3.0(1.9)	2.6(1.5)	1.5(1.1)

variables. Also, exposure to the reversal literature did not result in females exhibiting more achievement-motivation than males on the three dependent variables. Hypothesis three was supported in that based on the similarity between the stereotyped and reversal literature and the persistence task, the effects were greatest in the persistence task.

It seems apparent from these results that age of the subject was an important factor on the amount of achievement-motivation exhibited. The older subjects, the second graders, persisted longer, took more risks, and related more achievement-related story content than the younger preschool group.

Concerning sex of the subjects, results show no increased display of achievement-motivation from males after exposure to the stereotype story. Nor did the results show an increase of achievement-motivation by females after exposure to the reversal story. One explanation for these results could be the short term presentation of the literature.

Greatest effects were found in story type, stereotype and reversal, on amount of persistence exhibited. It is felt that the effects were evident because of the similarity between the story content and the persistence task. These effects did not generalize to the remaining two measures, risk-taking and the projective test, possibly because of the dissimilarity between the story content and the tasks.

DISCUSSION

The results of the present study show that males and females did not significantly differ in the amount of achievement-motivation exhibited after exposure to stereotyped and reversal literature. The first and second hypotheses of this study were thus not supported. Males did not exhibit more achievement-motivation after exposure to the stereotyped literature and females did not exhibit more achievement-motivation after exposure to the reversal literature. These results coincide with previous research (Guttentag & Bray, 1976; Marr, 1976; Middleton, Note 2) revealing no appreciable effects of short-term exposure to stereotyped literature. This is consistent with the view that children's sex role behaviors are mediated by a variety of elements, including parent modeling, television, and the influence of peers. These forces are instrumental in developing children's personalities and attitudes from the very first day of life. It is not surprising then, that brief interventions to change these attitudes and behaviors have little effect.

The results of this study differ from those obtained by McArthur and Eisen (1976), on which this study was partly based. In the McArthur and Eisen study, a tendency was found of males to persist longer on a task after hearing a story depicting achievement-motivation by a male character

than after a story depicting the same behavior by a female. A nonsignificant trend in the opposite direction was observed for girls. It is speculated that one reason for these results is the similarity between the story content of the stereotype and reversal literature and the persistence task. It is felt that several measures of achievement-motivation should have been used, as in the present study, to reveal any generalization of the story effects to the other measures.

The present research resulted in no differences between sexes on exhibited achievement-motivation. However, differences were found between the preschool subjects and the second grade subjects. Second grade children persisted significantly longer on the persistence task than the preschool children. Second grade subjects also took significantly more risks and related more achievement-motivated story content on the TAT stories compared to the preschool subjects. It is possible that these results are due to the age of the subjects. Since second grade children are physically more mature and have better developed gross motor skills than preschool age children, it is not surprising that the second graders persisted longer and exhibited greater risk-taking on a task based on motor skills. Regarding the story content from the TAT pictures, it is assumed that as the subject gets older and verbal skills develop, more significant story content will be related (Murray, 1943).

Examination of the results shows that the stereotype and reversal literature had no effect on the amount of achievement-motivation exhibited. These results are consistent with other studies involving measurement of various aspects of children's personalities. For example, Weeks, Thornberg and Little (1977) found no significant change in children's vocational role preferences after exposure to nontraditional role models and curricular materials. Lesser, Krawitz and Packard (1963) found that the introduction of achievement-oriented materials and pictures did not produce an increase in achievement-motivation scores for their particular sample of females. It would appear that because children are influenced by many factors regarding their attitudes concerning sex roles and sex-appropriate behaviors, altering one factor, such as literature, is not enough to modify these attitudes.

This study revealed several methodological concerns in measuring and promoting achievement-motivation. One concern is the use of same-sexed story presenter and experimenter. This research used a female as both the reader of the stereotype, reversal and control literature and the experimenter. It is possible that the use of experimenters of both sexes could have resulted in different findings. Williams, Bennett and Best (1975) found that second grade children gave significantly more stereotyped responses on a sex stereotype questionnaire

when the examiner was male than when the examiner was female. These authors suggest that the difference between the presence of a male and female examiner could be viewed as a micromodel of more general differences in sex-related situations that may stimulate or suppress stereotypic behavior in young children.

Another procedure that should be examined is the use of the child's parent or a significant other as the models in a situation depicting achievement-motivation. After viewing the model's behavior, whether stereotyped or non-stereotyped, the child could then be assessed for the amount of achievement-motivation exhibited. Regarding presentation of the literature, parents or teachers could be used to read the literature to the children. Hearing the story from a person with which the child is acquainted could have an effect on the child's performance as opposed to hearing the story from a stranger.

It seems important to utilize several measures of achievement-motivation in studies of this type. Using a variety of measures enables the subject to express achievement through various means. As in the present study, a child may lack skills in verbal expression, thus relating TAT stories with little achievement-related content. However, the same child may have better developed gross motor skills which could result in exhibition of achievement behavior.

There is a definite need for further research in the area of literature effects on children's achievement-motivation. Saario, Jacklin and Little (1973) suggest that as the child gets older, they are continually exposed to sex-typed literature, sex-biased educational testing, and sex-segregated classes. The authors, along with others (Mitchell, 1972; Potter, Note 3), state that the child's sex-typed attitudes concerning sex roles are constantly reinforced and become increasingly more difficult to alter as the child grows older. Since children apparently develop attitudes concerning sex roles and sex-appropriate behavior from what they hear, read, and see, it seems necessary to determine just how literature effects their perceptions. Further research is imperative if children's attitudes and behaviors are to become more egalitarian.

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APPENDIX A

SAMPLE PERMISSION LETTER TO PARENTS

Dear Parent,

I am a graduate student in Clinical Psychology at Appalachian State University. During the next two months, I will be completing my thesis, working with local pre-school and second-grade children. I would like to have permission to include your child in my study.

In this project I will be trying to find out how two different types of children's books affect pre-schoolers and second-graders. Specifically, I will be looking at the effects of these books upon the children's persistence on a task, a ring-toss game, and on recall of the stories. There will be no changes in the normal routine of the child's schedule. Each child will be individually tested using the task, ring-toss game, and recall immediately after he or she has heard the story and on the following day. On each of the two days, testing will take approximately 15 minutes.

If you have any questions concerning this study, I will be happy to discuss it with you in person. I can be reached through the numbers listed below.

Please indicate if you are willing to have your child participate by signing in the space provided below. This letter may be returned to your child's teacher. Your

cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Following the completion of the study, the results will be available through the school. No information regarding individual children will be available.

Sincerely,

Examiner's Signature

I GIVE MY PERMISSION FOR MY CHILD TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY DESCRIBED IN THE ABOVE LETTER.

(Sign) _____

APPENDIX B
STEREOTYPE STORY

SALLY AND STEVEN ARE GOOD FRIENDS.
THEY ARE BOTH FOUR YEARS OLD WAITING TO BE FIVE.

SALLY LIKES TO DO LOTS OF THINGS,
BUT MOST OF ALL SHE LIKES TO PAINT.

STEVEN LIKES TO DO LOTS OF THINGS,
BUT MOST OF ALL HE LIKES TO BUILD LITTLE BOATS.

ONE DAY STEVEN SAW A BEAUTIFUL LITTLE BOAT IN THE STORE.
STEVEN THOUGHT IT WAS EVEN BETTER THAN THE ONES HE MADE,
BECAUSE IT WAS ALL INSIDE A BOTTLE.

STEVEN WISHED THE BOAT IN THE BOTTLE BELONGED TO HIM,
BUT IT COST A WHOLE DOLLAR AND
STEVEN DIDN'T HAVE A DOLLAR ALL HIS OWN TO SPEND.

THE NEXT DAY SALLY WAS
PAINTING A PICTURE OUT IN A BIG FIELD
WHEN SUDDENLY A VERY LARGE GOAT WITH HORNS
CAME UP AND SCARED HER.
"OH HELP" CALLED SALLY. "SOMEONE PLEASE HELP ME."

STEVEN WAS WALKING ALONG THE ROAD JUST THEN
AND HE RAN UP AND HELD ONTO THE GOAT'S TAIL.
HE PULLED ON THE GOAT'S TAIL UNTIL
THE GOAT TURNED AROUND AND WENT TO EAT SOME GRASS.

STEVEN WALKED WITH SALLY TO HER HOUSE, AND
SALLY TOLD HER MOTHER HOW BRAVE STEVEN HAD BEEN.

SALLY'S MOTHER GAVE SALLY A BIG HUG
AND SHE GAVE STEVEN A WHOLE DOLLAR
FOR SAVING SALLY FROM THE GOAT.

STEVEN SAID THANK YOU AND
HE AND SALLY RAN TO THE STORE
WHERE STEVEN BOUGHT THE BOAT IN THE BOTTLE.

STEVEN CARRIED IT HOME, BUT WHEN THEY GOT TO HIS HOUSE
HIS BIG DOG RAN UP TO HIM
AND KNOCKED THE BOTTLE DOWN.

THE BOTTLE BROKE INTO A HUNDRED PIECES,

BUT LUCKILY THE LITTLE BOAT DID NOT BREAK, AND
STEVEN'S FATHER HAD A BOTTLE JUST LIKE THE ONE THAT BROKE.

"MAYBE I COULD PUT THE BOAT IN IT," SAID STEVEN,
"IF YOU FIGURE OUT HOW TO DO IT," SAID HIS FATHER,
"YOU'LL BE A VERY SMART BOY INDEED."

SALLY WATCHED WHILE STEVEN TRIED
TO PUT THE BOAT IN THE BOTTLE.
BUT THE NARROW OPENING WAS
MUCH TOO SMALL TO PUT THE BOAT THROUGH.

"MAYBE WE SHOULD CALL YOUR FATHER
TO COME AND HELP," SAID SALLY.

BUT SUDDENLY STEVEN HAD AN IDEA.
HE PICKED UP THE LITTLE BOAT AND
SHOWED SALLY HOW HE COULD PUSH THE SAILS DOWN FLAT.

THEN THE BOAT JUST SLID THROUGH
THE OPENING OF THE BOTTLE.

NEXT, STEVEN STUCK A HOOK INSIDE THE BOTTLE,
AND HE TRIED VERY HARD
TO CATCH ONE OF THE LITTLE SAILS WITH IT.

EACH TIME THAT STEVEN ALMOST CAUGHT
THE HOOK ON A SAIL,
IT SLIPPED RIGHT OFF,
BUT STEVEN TRIED AGAIN AND AGAIN.

HE WORKED FOR SUCH A LONG TIME THAT
SALLY DECIDED TO LEAVE AND GO HOME.

FINALLY THE HOOK CAUGHT ON ONE OF THE LITTLE SAILS.

STEVEN PULLED ON THE HOOK UNTIL
THE BOAT STOOD UP IN THE BOTTLE AS STRAIGHT AS EVER.

STEVEN STARED AND STARED.
HE WAS VERY PROUD THAT
HE HAD MADE A BOAT IN THE BOTTLE ALL BY HIMSELF.

APPENDIX C

REVERSAL STORY

SALLY AND STEVEN ARE GOOD FRIENDS.
THEY ARE BOTH FOUR YEARS OLD WAITING TO BE FIVE.

STEVEN LIKES TO DO LOTS OF THINGS,
BUT MOST OF ALL HE LIKES TO PAINT.

SALLY LIKES TO DO LOTS OF THINGS,
BUT MOST OF ALL SHE LIKES TO BUILD LITTLE BOATS.

ONE DAY SALLY SAW A BEAUTIFUL LITTLE BOAT IN THE STORE.
SALLY THOUGHT IT WAS EVEN BETTER THAN THE ONES SHE MADE,
BECAUSE IT WAS ALL INSIDE A BOTTLE.

SALLY WISHED THE BOAT IN THE BOTTLE BELONGED TO HER,
BUT IT COST A WHOLE DOLLAR AND
SALLY DIDN'T HAVE A DOLLAR ALL HER OWN TO SPEND.

THE NEXT DAY STEVEN WAS
PAINTING A PICTURE OUT IN A BIG FIELD
WHEN SUDDENLY A VERY LARGE GOAT WITH HORNS
CAME UP AND SCARED HIM.
"OH HELP" CALLED STEVEN. "SOMEONE PLEASE HELP ME."

SALLY WAS WALKING ALONG THE ROAD JUST THEN
AND SHE RAN UP AND HELD ONTO THE GOAT'S TAIL.
SHE PULLED ON THE GOAT'S TAIL UNTIL
THE GOAT TURNED AROUND AND WENT TO EAT SOME GRASS.

SALLY WALKED WITH STEVEN TO HIS HOUSE, AND
STEVEN TOLD HIS MOTHER HOW BRAVE SALLY HAD BEEN.

STEVEN'S MOTHER GAVE STEVEN A BIG HUG
AND SHE GAVE SALLY A WHOLE DOLLAR
FOR SAVING STEVEN FROM THE GOAT.

SALLY SAID THANK YOU AND
SHE AND STEVEN RAN TO THE STORE
WHERE SALLY BOUGHT THE BOAT IN THE BOTTLE.

SALLY CARRIED IT HOME, BUT WHEN THEY GOT TO HER HOUSE
HER BIG DOG RAN UP TO HER
AND KNOCKED THE BOTTLE DOWN.

THE BOTTLE BROKE INTO A HUNDRED PIECES

BUT LUCKILY THE LITTLE BOAT DID NOT BREAK, AND
SALLY'S FATHER HAD A BOTTLE JUST LIKE THE ONE THAT BROKE.

"MAYBE I COULD PUT THE BOAT IN IT," SAID SALLY,
"IF YOU FIGURE OUT HOW TO DO IT," SAID HER FATHER,
"YOU'LL BE A VERY SMART GIRL INDEED."

STEVEN WATCHED WHILE SALLY TRIED
TO PUT THE BOAT IN THE BOTTLE.
BUT THE NARROW OPENING WAS
MUCH TOO SMALL TO PUT THE BOAT THROUGH.

"MAYBE WE SHOULD CALL YOUR FATHER
TO COME AND HELP," SAID STEVEN.

BUT SUDDENLY SALLY HAD AN IDEA.
SHE PICKED UP THE LITTLE BOAT AND
SHOWED STEVEN HOW SHE COULD PUSH THE SAILS DOWN FLAT.

THEN THE BOAT JUST SLID THROUGH
THE OPENING OF THE BOTTLE.

NEXT, SALLY STUCK A HOOK INSIDE THE BOTTLE,
AND SHE TRIED VERY HARD
TO CATCH ONE OF THE LITTLE SAILS WITH IT.

EACH TIME THAT SALLY ALMOST CAUGHT
THE HOOK ON A SAIL,
IT SLIPPED RIGHT OFF,
BUT SALLY TRIED AGAIN AND AGAIN.

SHE WORKED FOR SUCH A LONG TIME THAT
STEVEN DECIDED TO LEAVE AND GO HOME.

FINALLY THE HOOK CAUGHT ON ONE OF THE LITTLE SAILS.

SALLY PULLED ON THE HOOK UNTIL
THE BOAT STOOD UP IN THE BOTTLE AS STRAIGHT AS EVER.

SALLY STARED AND STARED.
SHE WAS VERY PROUD THAT
SHE HAD MADE A BOAT IN THE BOTTLE ALL BY HERSELF.

APPENDIX D
CONTROL STORY

DO YOU SUPPOSE
WHEN A COW SAYS MOO
THAT'S SHE'S REALLY ASKING,
"HOW DO YOU DO?"

DO YOU SUPPOSE
WHEN A HORSE SAYS NEIGH
THAT HE MEANS "I'M HUNGRY,
MAY I HAVE SOME HAY?"

DO YOU THINK
WHEN A CHICKADEE SINGS
THAT HE REALLY MEANS
"WHAT FUN TO HAVE WINGS!"

DO YOU SUPPOSE
WHEN A CHIPMUNK SQUEEKS
THAT HE'S REALLY SAYING
"SEE MY CHUBBY CHEEKS!"

DO YOU SUPPOSE
THAT A GOAT'S GRUFF BLEAT
MEANS "I LIKE TULIPS
AND DAISIES TO EAT!"

AND DO YOU THINK
WHEN A GOOSE HONKS CLEAR
THAT SHE'S REALLY CALLING,
"JUST LOOK WHO'S HERE!"

DO YOU SUPPOSE
WHEN A PIGLET SQUEALS
THAT SHE'S REALLY SAYING
"HOW FINE MUD FEELS!"

DO YOU SUPPOSE
THAT A PUPPY'S BARK
MEANS "LET'S HURRY HOME
BEFORE IT'S DARK!"

AND DO YOU THINK
THAT A CAT'S MEOW
MEANS "A DISH OF MILK
WOULD TASTE GOOD NOW!"

DO YOU SUPPOSE
WHEN BEES BUZZ BY
THAT THEY'RE ASKING,
"WOULD YOU LIKE TO FLY?"

DO YOU SUPPOSE
THAT A MOUSE'S EEEEEEK
MEANS "I NEARLY WAS CAUGHT
BY A CAT LAST WEEK!"

AND DO YOU THINK
THAT A DONKEY'S BRAY
MEANS "COME ON, LET'S GO
ON A TRIP TODAY!"

DO YOU SUPPOSE
THAT A DUCK'S LOUD QUACK
MEANS "I'M TAKING A SHOWER,
SO PLEASE STEP BACK!"

DO YOU SUPPOSE
THAT A ROOSTER'S CROW
MEANS "WAKE UP SLEEPYHEAD,
GET DRESSED AND GO!"

DO YOU THINK
WHEN A LAMB BAAAAS LOW
THAT HE'S REALLY SAYING
"SOMEDAY I'LL GROWN!"

DO YOU SUPPOSE
WHEN THEY SQUEAK OR SQUAWK
THAT ANIMALS REALLY,
TRULY TALK?