

# Activating Culturally Empathic Motivation in Diverse Students

Donald E Grant Jr.<sup>1</sup> & Jerell B. Hill<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Center for Community and Social Impact, Pacific Oaks College Pasadena, CA, USA

<sup>2</sup> School of Education, Pacific Oaks College, Pasadena, CA, USA

Correspondence: Jerell B. Hill, School of Education, Pacific Oaks College, Pasadena, CA, USA. E-mail: [jhill1@pacificoaks.edu](mailto:jhill1@pacificoaks.edu)

Received: May 28, 2020    Accepted: July 23, 2020    Online Published: August 17, 2020

doi:10.5539/jel.v9n5p45    URL: <https://doi.org/10.5539/jel.v9n5p45>

## Abstract

School motivation as a construct is increasingly surfacing in classrooms across the United States. The research on achievement and intrinsic motivation has become more complex, given contemporary inquiries on trauma-informed practices, special education-related services. With the absence of culturally empathic practices, each of these factors can potentially add another barrier and impact those involved in the learning process. The need for schools to develop dynamic multi-disciplinary teams that capitalize on relational energy to provide support and increase student motivation remains necessary. Schools explore creative ways to prioritize relationships before rigor to see improvements in student motivation and the attainment of student learning outcomes. Low self-worth, falling short of expectations, or completely missing the mark magnifies the differences between self-perception and one's identity as perceived by others. To combat deficit-based models of engagement, the researchers analyzed culturally empathic motivation in diverse students. Teacher expectations, modeling, and enthusiasm need to be apparent to students, and teachers' efficacy needs to embrace the idea that all students can learn. Teacher quality, learning climate, and powerful instruction are vital to designing a productive learning environment that motivates students to learn. In a positive learning climate, the teacher and the students work together as a community of learners to help everyone achieve. Motivation plays a significant role in the creation of experiences that enhance the development of empathic awareness. Taking a deeper look at motivation interventions through a holistic ecological lens that is both culturally intelligent and trauma-informed will create a strength-based collaborative learning perspective.

**Keywords:** motivation, cultural responsiveness, empathy, self-determination theory

## 1. Introduction

The motivation for learning as a construct is increasingly surfacing in classrooms across the country (Headden & McKay, 2015). Research on achievement and motivation has become more sophisticated, given contemporary inquiries on trauma-informed care, equity, diversity and inclusion, special education-related services, and culturally empathic practices. Each of these factors adds a layer of complexity to the learning environment for those involved in the learning process. Schools must develop dynamic multi-disciplinary teams that capitalize on relational energy to provide support and increase student motivation in ways that other teams have not. In a parallel process, educators must prioritize relationships alongside academic rigor to see improvements in student motivation and the mastery of student learning outcomes.

Motivation plays a significant role in the creation of experiences that enhance the development of empathic awareness. Having low self-worth, falling short of expectations, or completely missing the mark magnifies the differences between self-perception and one's identity as perceived by others. To combat deficit-based models of engagement, activating culturally empathic motivation in diverse students repositions the narrative to incorporate strengths and talents that measure persistence and the obstinate perseverance to succeed. Students' motivation, trust, and reliance on a positive self-identity guide the individual differences associated with empathic motivation (Lockwood, Ang, Husain, & Crockett, 2017). Lockwood and colleagues (2017) suggest that those who are more empathic may also be more motivated.

Incentives to behave empathically can enhance motivational factors that change both behavior and achievement, and classrooms provide opportunities for the social interactions that promote this level and scope of awareness. Culturally empathic motivation can be developed within these social interactions (student to student and teacher to

student) to promote corrective emotional experiences for all involved effectively.

## 2. Motivation

Motivation is defined variously across an array of disciplines. In general, it is defined as the intrinsic human propensity to reserve energy for and direct energy toward the pursuit, fulfillment, and/or attainment of a goal. Zimmerman and Schunk (2008) define it as “the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained” (p. 4). All things being equal, the highly motivated individual is more likely to achieve than the individual with a lower level of motivation. To truly address equitable motivational frameworks (Arens et al., 2017; Dotterer & Lowe, 2011; Marsh et al., 2016; Oliver et al., 2019) it is critical to understand how and why culture plays a substantial role. How one does or does not experience one’s self in one’s world has a significant effect on internal and external motivations and loci of control. How one views oneself, and one’s efficacy is significantly impacted by how one has been trained to use learning and problem-solving tools to make sense of the world. Cultural traditions, historical contexts, and contemporary experiences inform how individuals and groups learn, what they learn, and the problem-solving strategies to which they are exposed. These factors render motivation, culture, and learning inextricably tied to one another so that one should not be discussed absent the contextualization of the other.

In 1984, Viktor Frankl’s *Man’s Search for Meaning* chronicled his experiences as a Nazi concentration camp prisoner during World War II. He wrote that “a man’s inner strength may raise him above his outward fate” (pp. 88–89). The inner strength that he describes is predicated on a cultural experience riddled with tragedy, loss, and trauma. Both the conceptualization and exhibition of this post-traumatic growth and resilience are fueled by a set of learned motivational tools and strategies acquired through lived experiences.

All cultural spaces generate a myriad of encounters, activities, and opportunities that inform the efficacy and robustness of learning, the spaces and times in which learning occurs, and the conditions that govern the learner’s ability and/or capacity to retain the information accessed. As a result, cultural factors that determine where and how value systems are established and which perspectives and experiences hold the highest hierarchical significance have a substantial influence on how, when, where, and why motivation occurs. There has been a need for an integrated theory of motivation, “Because there has yet to be a broad, integrated theory of motivation, any particular theory necessarily deals with only a subset of motivational factors” (Steel & König, 2006, p. 890).

Motivation comes in a variety of types and iterations within those types, many of which are either duplicative or extend beyond the scope of this work. To enhance the article’s utility and value, discussions on the various types of motivational styles were limited in order to open a broader discussion on culture and culturally empathic tools that increase all students’ access to resources that enhance their motivation for learning, enrichment, and growth. To most efficiently explore the constructs of this article, extrinsic, intrinsic, introjected and identified motivational patterns will be used.

Table 1. Motivational types

Motivational Types	
Intrinsic Motivation	Motivation is predicated upon an alignment with internalized value systems that manifest themselves in the satisfaction of gaining new knowledge, the human pleasure-seeking experience, or accomplishing and/or creating something.
Introjected Motivation	Motivation is predicated upon the reception or avoidance of internal experiences that manifest themselves in the maintenance of self-esteem and pride or the avoidance of guilt and anxiety.
Extrinsic Motivation	Motivation is predicated upon one’s propensity to be compelled into action by demands, requests, or incentives rendered valuable as a result of ecological associations.
Identified Motivation	Motivation is predicated upon one’s awareness that an activity must be done for a particular reason. This might occur absent any inherent value or external reward.

Researchers focus on why students learn and why some have a greater desire to learn than others. Motivation has been seen as the primary factor influencing test performance and overall school success. Self-determination theory is aimed at explaining an individual’s goal-driven behaviors and often incorporates the four valences as mentioned above under which motivation can usually be expected to occur. In addition to those factors, the theory rests upon a foundation of three psychological needs thought to be both universal and instinctive:

- Competence: The belief that one is armed with both the skills and the tools to perform well on a task or an activity.
- Autonomy: The belief that one is engaging in an activity out of their own volition and free will.

- Relatedness: The belief that a sense of shared experience or understanding has the capacity to support meaningful relationships.

### 3. Culture and Motivation

There is an array of theories and practices that influence the level to which students demonstrate a mastery of academic learning outcomes. Before mastery, however, is a motivation to engage, without which mastery is highly implausible (Gbolli & Harriet, 2017). Some of these theories and approaches have influence over intrinsic motivation and others over extrinsic. In some cases, the theories, and the evidence that informs them, create environmental factors that impact both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Inside each of these theories, it is critical that culture—not solely defined by race and ethnicity—informs the way in which theories and practices are interpreted and employed. To ensure attendance to these factors, a brief discussion on the culture-based phenomenon that impacts learning and motivation is essential.

Perception plays a significant role in people's overall development across the lifespan. Eggen and Kauchak (2013) define the theory of mind as “an understanding that other people have distinctive perceptions, feelings, desires, and beliefs” (p. 96). The research suggests that the way children think is heavily influenced by their perceptions (Eggen & Kauchak, 2013). For some children, these perceptions are shaped by many constructs, specifically stereotype threat, disidentification, and self-fulfilling prophecy. Each of these constructs are empirically supported examples of culture-based phenomena that impact the learning and motivation of learners who hold membership in a marginalized group or at the intersection of several. Steele (1997) defined stereotype threat as an “apprehension over possibly self-fulfilling negative stereotypes about one's group or being judged” (p. 620). In studies on stereotype threat, researchers facilitated standardized test sessions that controlled for expectation and preconception based on stereotypes girded in race, gender, culture, and ethnicity juxtaposed to behaviors and activities known to activate a valence of the identified stereotype. When presented with tests of innate athletic ability, White men executed measurably worse than other men because they were performing under the threat of fulfilling the stereotype related to their performance in activities of athleticism. Ultimately, it was determined that their performance was compromised under the valence of the stereotype. Success at athletic tasks is usually far less dangerous than some of the other compromised performance outcomes, like those of girls and women on tasks assessing math and science skills, Black children on tests cognitive ability and children experiencing poverty on skill demonstration of general cognitive acuity.

Stereotypes regarding academic aptitude for children of color and those who experience poverty play a significant role in the attainment of student learning outcomes, the styles in which educators engage students, and how under-resourced school systems are funded. The National Center for Education Statistics (2019) reports that children of all races and genders perform at similar rates until the third and fourth grades. At this stage of development, overall performance for a statistically significant number of male students begins to decline. For White male students, overall performance begins to improve. This is not the case with Black and Latino male students whose achievement often declines. Research on stereotype threat demonstrates that, when presented with tests of cognitive ability, Black students performed dramatically worse than White students. The researchers administered the same test to a different set of Black students (Brock, 2020). For these students, instead of a test on cognitive ability, it was presented as a set of problem-solving exercises. Removing the valence of the stereotype—referred to as the stereotype spotlight—rendered the racial stereotype irrelevant, allowing the individuals to achieve better outcomes. The mechanisms implicated in stereotype threat's compromised performance—depleted working memory, increased anxiety, and impaired knowledge acquisition—all impact a student's ability and desire to engage in academic function (Namkung, Peng, & Lin, 2019). Students might employ psychological defenses to minimize the injuries associated with continuously confronting the psycho-physiological effects of stereotype threat: Disidentification relieves the pain of stereotype threat by breaking identification and the pressure of adaptability which necessarily includes a loss of motivation, a dissociation of school achievement, and resilience (Steele, 1997)).

Educators, administrators, and school district officials are responsible for creating programs, structuring curriculum, and developing practices and policies that incorporate a culturally empathic understanding (Losinski, Ennis, Katsiyannis, & Rapa, 2019) of and response to these events. In addition, best practices to dismantle these phenomena must be deliberately employed. One method to combat stereotype threat and subsequent disidentification are for academic professionals to use tools that support the development of intrinsic motivation through a strength-based lens honoring the various identities represented in a class, a school, and a school district. Intrinsic motivation occurs when behaviors are driven by an individual's internal reward system through which they experience natural satisfaction as a result of engagement in the behavior or activity. The relevant curriculum has been identified as another effective method to ensure that people see that what they are learning not only makes

sense but is also valued based on their personal and collective perspectives. Culturally relevant engagement and activities induce internal motivations that develop into physical and mental resources in support of learning.

Each of the following educational theories should be viewed through an equity lens that attends to research on concepts like stereotype threat, disidentification, and self-fulfilling prophecy. Researchers and practitioners should pay close attention to student beliefs, actions, and behaviors. Engagement theory in learning (Kearsley & Shneiderman, 1998) implies that motivation must be structured around a set of student-centered approaches. The theory promotes the values of working collaboratively, gaining knowledge through project-based learning, and being able to develop an authentic focus as keys to motivating active engagement in student learning.

In addition to ethnocultural factors, age and maturity are significant factors impacting motivation. Motivation is a state of mind that arouses activities of human body action (cognitively and physically). Individuals who are intrinsically motivated to learn are self-driven to accomplish their goals as a form of personal satisfaction. In contrast, extrinsically motivated people to engage in learning to achieve specific incentives or rewards (Afzal, Ali, Aslam Khan, & Hamid, 2010).

Several researchers have also shown that academic achievement can be predicted from indicators of social adjustment. In their longitudinal study of the prosocial foundations of children's academic performance, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli, Bandura and Zimbardo (2000) used children's third-grade social behavior to predict their eighth-grade academic achievement. Caprara et al. (2000) found that early prosocial behavior robustly predicted later academic achievement, but old aggressive behaviors did not. Interestingly, third-grade academic achievement was not a significant predictor of eighth-grade academic success when controlling for third-grade prosocial behaviors. The results of this study suggest that social skills significantly contribute to later academic achievement, more so than do problem behaviors and even early academic skills. Increasing and improving training for educators and educational administrators on teacher social and emotional competence is critical to ensuring that foci move toward the development of prosocial classrooms and away from the prevalent deficits-based models that consistently plague our schools and our children.

Socially and emotionally competent teachers set the tone of the classroom by developing supportive and encouraging relationships with their students, designing lessons that build on student strengths and abilities, establishing and implementing behavioral guidelines in ways that promote intrinsic motivation, coaching students through conflict situations, encouraging cooperation among students, and acting as a role model for respectful and appropriate communication and exhibitions of prosocial behavior (Jennings & Greenberg, 2011, p. 492).

Other researchers (Muenks et al., 2017) have included the construct of academic competence in their predictive models of academic achievement. DiPerna and Elliott (2002) defined academic expertise as a multidimensional construct comprised of students' skills, attitudes, and behaviors that contribute to school success. The components of academic competencies are categorized as either academic skills or academic enablers. Academic skills include a student's aptitude in content areas such as reading and math. In contrast, academic enablers are the attitudes and behaviors (i.e., motivation and interpersonal skills) that facilitate a student's learning (DiPerna & Elliott, 2002). Academic competence has been operationalized as teacher ratings of a student's performance across multiple domains, including content area achievement, motivation, classroom behavior, and parental encouragement (DiPerna & Elliott, 2002; Gresham & Elliott, 1990). Although researchers have demonstrated an association among social adjustment, academic, and behavioral competencies, the methods for identifying students of varying levels of academic and behavior competence have been largely deficits-based and relied on either disability status or the same instruments that assess for a social adjustment (Ray & Elliott, 2006)

Although there are some studies on the relationship between motivation and engagement, most do not directly address the relational aspects of motivational factors and engagement learning strategies (Radovan & Makovec, 2015; Saeed & Zyngier, 2012). Most of the studies on students' motivation and engagement have intensively focused on academic achievement and qualities of commitment toward authentic learning (Stephen, 2015; Thijs & Verkuyten, 2009). It is suggested that a well-established relationship between student motivational factors and engagement strategies would enable students to engage in authentic learning that may lead to educationally productive activities and increased motivation. Practitioners and researchers must focus on capturing and enhancing the visual representations of what students think about themselves, what their motivation is, and how they engage in meaningful activities. Perceptions are shaped by the learner's experiences and the environments in which they occur. Principles of development indicate that educators can influence experiences through the environment. When deliberately engaged and strategized, development advances in a predictable manner, providing reinforcement and increasing students' motivation (Covington, 2000). Despite research on the theory of

mind, the provision of external rewards for student learning sends the wrong message about education by reducing the benefits and strengths associated with experiencing internal rewards that often pale in comparison to the aforementioned (Kohn, 1996). Consequently, money for grades turns learning from intrinsic to extrinsic, posing a problem for when the rewards have come to a halt or been neutralized, further reducing intrinsic motivation.

The infusion of technology-supported learning environments (Ball et al., 2019) also assists in increasing prosocial behaviors due to their ability to create changes in the learning conditions. Seki (2014) reports educational technologies to influence extrinsic motivational factors shown during specific activities or tasks (i.e., collaborative project and instructional strategies grading systems). Kearsley and Shneiderman (1998) suggest that, in technology-enhanced learning environments, students engage more effectively in meaningful learning activities. Similarly, technology, when used effectively, can provide another level of enrichment and exposure to magnify the classroom experience. Meaning lends itself to a deeper level of learning by connecting digital literacy to academic content. Motivational factors exist within a student-centered learning environment because task value, self-efficacy, extrinsic, and intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000) are present. Additionally, intrinsic motivation creates the innermost psychological need for intellectual and moral autonomy.

Constructivist theory determines motivation through hard work and success. Persistence and task choice (Eccles, & Wigfield, 2002) create expectations and value. Bong (2001) reports that task-values are “potential success factors on relatively difficult tasks that are judged to hold greater incentive values” (p. 554) which seem to encourage students’ authentic learning. Task value is related to most of the academic activities which promote enhancements in student interest, achievement, and self-esteem. Tasks that involve student choice and value accelerate in-depth engagement in the subject matter, ultimately increasing relevance.

Bandura’s (1977) study suggests that self-efficacy and pedagogical efficacy have a positive impact on student learning despite risk factors in the learning environment. As a result of in-depth engagement and improved learning conditions, students who are self-sufficient and confident demonstrate the ability to deal with challenging academic tasks and are more likely to engage in meaningful learning (Ritchie, 2015; Stephen, 2015). The dedicated time and focus contribute to enhancing motivational factors (Radovan & Makovec, 2015; Saeed & Zyngier, 2012) and deep levels of learning. Previously, Turi’s (2012) research has shown that engagement and student collaboration in their learning environment lay the groundwork on which their academic achievement rests.

Each of these aforementioned theories and factors remains relevant in academic settings. Learning orientation of the individual is present when cultural meanings are connected to personal experiences (Munro et al., 1997). Another method used to create cultural relevance in academic settings that improve intrinsic motivation is a dedication to the development and implementation of anti-bias curricular models. Louise Derman-Sparks and colleagues (2015), in their creation of the model, took an activist approach to the creation of curricula that worked to contest paradigms of racism, classism, sexism, ableism, and homophobia. Personal relevance is supported by an individual’s ability to see their own perspective and values represented in the content, the discourse, and the instruction methodology.

Many students throughout the world hold intersectional membership in several target groups. Whether they are persons of color who experience poverty or immigrants who identify as LGBTQ, they rarely see relevant strength-based classroom content or programs. Anti-bias curricular tools ensure that students experience pedagogical approaches that employ teaching styles and content areas, which demonstrate a deliberate relevance to the lived experiences of most people in a classroom or on campus. The four goals of anti-bias education are

- Each child will demonstrate self-awareness, confidence, family pride, and positive social identities.
- Each child will express comfort and joy with human diversity; accurate language for human differences; and sincere, caring human connections.
- Each child will increasingly recognize unfairness, have the language to describe unfairness, and understand that unfairness hurts.
- Each child will demonstrate empowerment and the skills to act, with others or alone, against prejudice and discrimination.

When children experience curricular elements that embody the goals of anti-bias education, culture-based phenomena that negatively impact learning can be combated effectively. As students begin to consistently see non-deficits-based images of themselves and their peers, alongside the empowerment of all students, they become more equipped to address the various injustices and privileges (Howard, 2018) that each of them might face in different life scenarios.

Additionally, Wlodkowski and Ginsberg (1995) found that a way to ensure relevance in education in the promotion of intrinsic motivation is the development of the Motivational Framework for Culturally Responsive Teaching (MFCRT). Ladson-Billings (2014) affirms that the culturally relevant teaching is a macro cultural model built on principles that apply both within and across cultures to create a pluralistic approach aimed at the development of intrinsic motivation in all learners. This framework is activated through the dynamic operationalization of four motivational conditions that work both collectively and individually by enhancing intrinsic motivation to learn.

Table 2. Four motivational conditions

<b>Four Motivational Conditions</b> (Adapted from Wlodkowski & Ginsberg, 1995)		
<b>Condition</b>	<b>Criteria</b>	<b>Explanation</b>
Inclusion	Respect and Connectedness	Through reciprocal experiences of respect and connectedness, learners experience increased intrinsic motivation as they feel safe, are able to exhibit authenticity, and are encouraged to share their opinions.
Attitude	Relevance and Volition	A relevant curriculum and an empowered student who participates in their learning with a sense of volition contribute to a sense of ownership where they are motivated to communicate and make sense of what they are experiencing.
Meaning	Engagement and Challenge	Engaging learners in actions and behaviors aimed at the deliberate resolution of a challenge through the development of new ideas or processes that increase efficiencies.
Competence	Effectiveness and Authenticity	Ensuring that learners feel empowered through an ability to positively impact their environment through the acquisition of knowledge that can be applied to their real life.

Brophy (1981) focused on aspects of the class that teachers could utilize to increase student motivation (aside from praise):

- Student interest – related subject of study to what students like
- Student needs – motivated when activities meet some basic need
- Novelty & variety – mix up activities, shorter lectures, etc.
- Success – make goals/objectives clear, teach in small steps, check for understanding
- Student attribution for success & failure – failure should be seen as a lack of effort, not of ability
- Tension – by walking around, quizzing, and the like, teachers remind students of work that needs to be accomplished
- Feeling tone – class climate

#### 4. Teacher Motivation

Creating a community of learners is a component that addresses motivational issues within the classroom. Communication is essential to motivation. The United Nations (DESA) Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2016) acknowledged that seeking opinions and listening to the people who are directly affected by decisions will improve the overall motivation of the staff. The challenge comes from selling intended results to seasoned staff. Sometimes, they feel like they have seen every possible idea that will help student outcomes, which might result in a lack of motivation. Some teachers prefer to silo themselves and remain uncooperative in the development of collective efficacy amongst their peers.

Teachers' should be compelled to gain content knowledge and the ability to deliver effective instruction to diverse learners. These skills are developed by observation, practice, collaboration, and ongoing professional development. Self-confidence, alongside knowledge of the school climate and culture, are some of the intangible factors and variables that require attention to improve student performance. Awareness of factors external to the classroom that have positive or negative influences on the learning environment is invaluable to a teacher's ability to plan more effectively and strategically. The mastery experiences that teachers need are outlined in Fredrick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, which "seeks to determine factors that cause motivation. Rather than looking for needs energized within the individual, Herzberg focused attention on the work environment to identify factors that arouse in people either positive or negative attitudes towards their work" (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012, p. 84). The most valuable motivator is achievement, and, when teachers feel successful about their teaching ability, students' learning outcomes improve.

Before teachers can achieve high instructional success, they need to have models of what excellent instruction

looks like and the time to discuss and reflect on their findings. To support their mastery experiences, teachers must engage in ongoing professional development in the area of teaching and learning. It gives teachers the opportunities to create an environment that fosters growth as well as the possibility of promotion and recognition, all of which provide them both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Successful schools must celebrate what they would like to see more and embrace those opportunities to motivate students.

Developing awareness and creating the optimal environment for students to trust their teachers as collaborators will improve student achievement. One significant potential confounding variable in efforts to identify qualities of effective teacher-student interactions linked to student achievement is the likelihood that high-quality interactions may come more easily among students who are already academically motivated and successful. Given the possibility that students are to some degree tracked into higher and lower-achieving groups in secondary schools (either explicitly or implicitly), different teachers are likely to face students with very different characteristics at the start of an academic year. End-of-year student test scores are highly dependent on pre-existing student levels of academic proficiency and are typically highly correlated with prior year test scores. Failure to account for the previous test scores would thus misattribute variance in student achievement that would be more directly be considered for by pre-existing student proficiencies, not to be confused with intelligence.

Aligned with the growing recognition of the importance of value-added approaches to assessing student learning (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2010; Rothstein, 2010), assessed end-of-year test scores after first accounting for prior year test scores, which we consider to be an indicator of student academic proficiency independent of the current classroom environment (Allen et al., 2013). The teacher's task is to provide a match between what the child is ready to learn and what is available to the child to learn. The constructivist view differs from the traditional view of readiness in that it emphasizes that cognitive readiness is not determined simply by biological maturation. Rather, readiness also depends on the transactional nature of the child's environment. At any point in time, a child is ready to learn if learning experiences are at an optimal level of novelty or incongruity (Cushner, McClelland, & Stafford, 2015). Moreover, the humanist teacher focuses on student motivation by acting as a facilitator of knowledge (rather than disperser), promoting student autonomy, and focusing on building student self-esteem.

### **5. Student Achievement and Developmentally Appropriate Practice**

School experiences profoundly influence and are altered by growth and human development. The term "cognitive structure" refers to the concepts, ideas, and understandings that children construct through transactions with their social and physical environments. Knowledge is "made" by the knower, who assimilates new experiences within knowledge structures already present, and accommodates other experiences that do not fit neatly into those pre-existing structures. Motivation to learn comes from the fact that children's cognitive structures are constantly challenged (Cushner et al., 2015). The developmentally appropriate practice (DAP) guidelines affirmed the primary responsibility of teachers and administrators to support a child's sense of competence and worth is the foundation for learning and development (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997). With this intention, a shift in teaching has occurred, from mostly reciting information to becoming collaborators. As educators gain a better understanding of the brain structure and function, a renewed conviction is birthed. Teachers, indeed, can play a highly influential role in not only their students' acquisition of knowledge but also their continuing cognitive development (Cushner et al., 2015). The development of middle schools and early childhood programs help to define the DAP guidelines for adult-student interactions by providing an understanding of how children can develop their knowledge through experience.

Despite the keen theoretical interest in identifying qualities of teacher-student interactions linked to student achievement, scientific evidence is quite sparse regarding our capacity to identify and observe the critical features of these interactions that predict student learning within the secondary school classroom. Virtually no evidence exists regarding the effectiveness of assessment systems designed to capture broad interactional patterns and apply them across diverse content areas at the secondary level (Allen et al., 2013). Some qualities of teacher-student interactions may primarily reflect student characteristics as they enter the class at the start of the year, particularly to the extent to which students are implicitly or explicitly grouped into higher and lower-achieving classes or ability tracks. Without awareness of this possibility, it would be all too easy to misattribute the qualities of classroom interactions to teacher skill levels, rather than recognizing that they may primarily reflect the academic characteristics of the students they are teaching. By identifying such student-driven qualities, this study seeks to provide appropriate contextual balance to our emerging picture of the role of teacher-student interactions, showing not only where these interactions predict future achievement, but also where they may also simply reflect pre-existing student characteristics, rather than simple teacher skill (Allen et al., 2013). Teachers work in collaboration with students, other teachers, caregivers, administrators, and other adults. The goal is to support the learning and development of all children. Teachers need to know as much as possible about each child's learning

styles, interests, preferences, personality, temperament, skills, and talents, challenges, and difficulties (Cushner et al., 2015).

The constructivist view differs from the traditional view of readiness in that it emphasizes that cognitive readiness is not determined simply by biological maturation. Rather, readiness also depends on the child's environment. "The notion of intrinsically motivated, child-directed learning is, for many epitomized in the approach developed by Maria Montessori, whose injunction, 'Don't tell, teach!' summed up her view of how classrooms for students of any age should be conducted" (Cushner et al., 2015, p. 360).

## 6. Motivation and Learning

Motivated students have positive attitudes towards school and describe it as satisfying, persist on challenging tasks, cause few management problems (Eggen & Kauchak, 2013), process information in-depth, and excel in classroom learning experiences (Perry, Turner, & Meyer, 2006). To develop a capacity to organize and execute the course of action required to improve the reading performance of their students, teachers must use data analysis and design accurate baselines on their students. With this process, the teachers can create lessons based on the students' abilities because they have data that show the students' strengths and challenges. The proper use of data can align instruction, scaffolding, and pacing with the learning task and/or objectives, increasing attainability.

Professional development and observations of successful teaching assist in development in high quality teaching. Teachers need the opportunity to learn the curriculum they teach, and they need to see varying ways of delivering that instruction using differentiation tools and strategies. The most effective and resourced teachers can select strategies that match their students' learning styles. Practical strategies that compel teachers to improve their students' proficiency can often be found in project-based learning and co-teaching models. The activities associated with these models allow teachers to meet their students' diverse needs in several ways. If students are working on a project in a group, they can select portions of the assignment that utilized their strengths. In addition, they can learn from their peers, improve their self-management skills, and build appropriate social skills. Research suggests that social support is essential for people's mental health and success throughout the lifespan (Eggen & Kauchak, 2013). The instinctual dimension of human affect cannot be ignored, but neither can the social and socially constructed impact of emotion as rooted in lived experience always integrating cognitive, affective, and behavioral facets (Senge, 2004). Mastery of skills is crucial, and the alignment process should have elements that reflect creativity and teacher autonomy.

The humanistic views of motivation focus on the "whole person" and view motivation as people's attempts to fulfill their total potential as human beings and become self-actualized (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008). As a result, understanding motivation requires an empathic awareness of people's thoughts, feelings, and actions. Understanding behaviors or even thinking alone is not sufficient to understand our students; we need to focus on the total picture, including who they are as human beings (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2008). This approach utilizes teaching as a caring profession by connecting the motivational zone of proximal development and the unconditional positive regard for student achievement regardless of their situation, condition, or life circumstance. When a teacher can find the match between a learning activity and the learners' prior knowledge and experience that is close enough to stimulate interest and perceived value in the activity (Eggen & Kauchak, 2013), motivation and its impact on student achievement increase.

A learning environment must account for instructional variables. Students learn at different rates and have diverse needs, beliefs, goals, interests, and emotions. The variables need to address safety by designing an environment that encourages students to take risks and meets their needs for belonging and achievement. Teacher expectations, modeling, and enthusiasm need to be apparent to students, and teachers' efficacy needs to embrace the idea that all students can learn. Teacher quality, learning climate, and powerful instruction are key to designing a productive learning environment that motivates students to learn. In a positive learning climate, the teacher and the students work together as a community of learners to help everyone achieve. In the environment, our goal is to promote students' feelings of safety and security, along with a sense of success, enrichment, and understanding (Eggen & Kauchak, 2013). Taking a more in-depth look at the success of self-efficacy safety and practical challenges that help students develop cognitively will lead to a positive learning climate that allows educators to create a motivating environment. Connections with a person give a clear understanding of tasks and expectations. Useful teacher feedback that is specific and actionable can address instructional variables within the classroom.

Alternatives to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation may come in the form of rewards acknowledgments, exclusive privileges, and student success. The intrinsically motivated have high levels of self-efficacy, which "influences learning as well as the effort (they) exert on the job ... because they are confident that their efforts will be successful" (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012, p. 89). Alternatives for intrinsic motivation are situational, and the



environmental factors have to be considered when suggestions are made. According to expectancy theory's fourth assumption, "people will choose among alternatives to optimize outcomes for them personally." (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012, p. 90). Confidence and choices play a significant role when it comes to what types of administrators' teachers will follow and their willingness to take ownership of tasks.

"The dominant needs, motives, and personality of subordinates may influence their acceptance of and satisfaction with alternative leadership styles... Subordinates who have a high need for esteem and affiliation should be more satisfied with a supportive leader" (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012, p. 114). The need for affiliation could imply that the individual likes to co-teach and participate with planning committees to help improve student achievement. An effective leader should work consistently to identify and address the needs of their staff. The leader's ability to adjust beliefs, values, and decision-making will shape their school site, and the team will embrace the environment and support the instructional objectives designed to improve learning outcomes.

The use of goal orientation strategy focuses on the student without social comparisons to their peers and emphasizes that learning is the goal of schooling and that grades will take care of themselves if we understand the topics we study. The design allows teachers to create assessments that measure a deep understanding of content and avoid focusing on factual information. The combination of mastery and social-responsibility goals results in the highest achievement (Eggen & Kauchak, 2013). Looking through the lens of humanistic theories and environments imbued with motivational learning, teachers are motivated to provide more emotional support for high achievers. Research demonstrates that, when teaching high-achieving students, teachers interact with them more often and more positively, provide more affirming nonverbal feedback, demand more of these students, and give them more instructional support. The same body of research demonstrated that teachers also call on perceived high achievers more often, give them more time to answer, prompt them more when they are unable to answer, praise them more, criticize them less, and provide them with more informative feedback (Eggen & Kauchak, 2013). These factors together promote outcomes for a self-fulfilling prophecy, a phenomenon that occurs when environmental factors support the development of characteristics that increase the likelihood of perceived characteristics—talents or deficits—coming to measurable fruition. Training educators to see that all children have the capacity for achievement and an aptitude for success aligns their teaching behaviors to a strength-based paradigm that supports the ascension of all learners.

To ensure that all children benefit from the engagement afforded to those perceived as high-achieving, systems and leaders must address potential teacher frustrations associated with modifying curriculum for a range of individual learner's needs, abilities, and interests. For some, this can feel like an insurmountable task (Reis, Burns, & Renzulli, 1992). There are certainly challenges associated with teaching students across the ability continuum in a single classroom. Operative strategies that teachers can use to enrich under-performing students and enhance those students perceived as exceptionally bright have shown efficacy in an array of settings. One such approach is curriculum compacting, a technique that makes curricular modifications to meet the needs of gifted students while maintaining original curricular characteristics (Reis, Westberg, et al., 1999). Gifted and talented students, as well as all learners who exhibit strengths or high levels of interests, can benefit from curriculum compacting (Westberg, 1999). Notwithstanding the assortment of curriculum modification techniques, teachers often fail to use research-based strategies to meet individual students' needs (Reis, Westberg, Kulikowich, & Purcell, 1998). The result is often underachievement and negative attitudes toward school (Feldhusen, 1989), the antithesis of creating an environment where children feel like they are high achievers, which consistently results in improving their achievement.

Self-determination theory emphasizes the importance of school-based autonomy and belongingness to academic achievement and psychological adjustment. The theory posits a model in which engagement in school mediates the influence of autonomy and belongingness on these outcomes. To date, this model has only been evaluated on academic outcomes (Van Ryzin, Gravely, & Roseth, 2009) but operationalizes itself in specific protective factors that can eradicate disidentification and maximize intrinsic motivation.

Students spend much time receiving instruction in schools across the world. The value of teaching should be determined using multiple data points that incorporate rubrics grounded in culturally empathic paradigms. Success and student achievement allow learning teams, in parallel processes, opportunities to measure effectiveness, student performance, teacher performance, climate, and culture. Timely, accurate data provide school leaders with information to adjust instruction and improve programs as needed to ensure individual learning outcomes are met and program effectiveness is improved (Glatthorn, Boschee, Whitehead, & Boschee, 2012).

A final component to addressing issues with student motivation is the accountability incumbent upon colleges and universities responsible for training the world's teachers. Institutions of higher learning that house schools of

education, credentialing programs for teachers or certifications for K-12 educators must create pedagogical practices that prepare their students to optimize teaching tools and practices. How has the curriculum for teacher preparation programs evolved over time? If institutions are unable to identify specific efforts they have employed to ensure teachers are prepared for today's school environment that requires a trauma-informed lens, a culturally empathic perspective, and a foundational grasp of integrating educational technology into the curriculum and the classroom.

According to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, mentions the absence of national standards for technology integration for teacher preparation programs to support clinical practice, which could widen achievement gaps (Planta, 2016). In addition to technology, many universities are delivering socio-emotional learning tools and skills that are either inadequate or culturally unempathic. Finally, there is a severe lack of trauma-informed training protocols and tools incorporated into the curriculum for teacher education. These are just a few factors that significantly impact how teacher education programs support the development of educators who make changes in our schools.

Trying to use value-added to assess the quality of a university's teacher education problem by state-wide testing over time may unlock a root cause to student achievement. Value-added assessment is a technique of using data to determine the value that teachers add to each student's learning. It focuses on how test data can help each child academically. This type of assessment makes it possible to isolate the impact of the individual teacher and to respond with appropriate rewards and corrective training (Glatthorn et al., 2012).

Cruikshank and Haefele (1991) argued that there are many kinds of good teachers; some of them are effective at producing high levels of student performance, and others are good for other reasons. Since the publication of that article, the education community has moved steadily toward the notion that good teaching is teaching that results in student achievement. A concern for teacher effectiveness mostly follows the national standards and assessment movement designed to hold states, districts, schools, and teachers accountable for student performance on designated outcomes. Standards would define what every student should know and be able to do, curricula would be designed to be aligned with the standards, and assessment would measure the extent to which students achieved the designated outcomes. The evaluation of teacher effectiveness in this process naturally follows. The impetus for much of the reform in teacher performance as it relates to students' achievement has come as a result of students' diverse needs, culturally relevant learning opportunities, and motivation (Rink, 2013). Educators will need the time, training, environment, and the resources to improve effectiveness. To measure what motivates students and how they learn needs to continue to be explored.

## 7. Conclusion

To conclude, motivation and learning consider intrinsic and extrinsic values that teaching and performance provide to educators and students. Mastery-focused environments increase student motivation to learn, whereas performance-focused environments can detract from motivation to learn for all but the highest achievers (Eggen & Kauchak, 2013). Understanding personal qualities and the importance of teacher efficacy allows learning leaders to overcome the obstacles created by instructional variables that prevent high levels of student participation and useful feedback. To develop self-efficacy, educators would need school sites to build effective relationships and communication. With the transition to the new state standards, change is inevitable, and the staff must support each other as we begin this journey. Established lines of communication help strengthen positive relationships. This will be achievable if states support mentees participating in retreats and other team building activities so that they can spend time outside of the work environment in an attempt to build trust and openness. When a team has a chance to get to know each other on a philosophical level, work relationships improve.

The establishment of the trust is based on relationships with individuals and/or groups. Covey et al. (1995) state, "Trust is the glue of life. It is a foundational principle that holds all relationships" (p. 203). Moreover, trust is measured almost exclusively in terms of reliability, consistency, and responsiveness (Kirkmen, Rosen, Gibson, Tesluk, & McPherson, 2004; Meyer 2010; Reason, 2010) and cultural intelligence. Workstyle preferences and motivation questionnaires are emerging as useful tools in the development of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation amongst school-aged children. The practices of analyzing achievement, assessing work and life attitudes, and honoring core beliefs and values all play a central role in stimulating student effort and engagement in learning activities and the environments in which they occur. Using tools to define the types of learning environments that satisfy particular needs are emerging, but the evidence remains insufficient for reliable conclusions.

Educators must consider the environment to successfully understand the dimensions described above because stimuli can be a primary factor in student behavior impeding learning opportunities. To assess learning, the teacher has to establish a safe environment that allows students to take risks and be engaged in learning activities. In

addition, the appropriate use of reinforcement scaffolds, technology, and social capital building positively impacts student motivation, engagement, and achievement. Research suggests that no learning theory is complete, and this is particularly true of behaviorism. However, if judiciously applied by knowledgeable professionals, it can be a useful tool for creating environments that optimize the opportunity to learn for all students (Eggen & Kauchak, 2013). The factors identified as moderators of the effectiveness of theory-based motivation intervention are environmental influences within the community and school culture. There have been many attempts to reimagine school culture. Seymour Sarason (1996), a Yale Psychologist, found that the school climate and outcomes of schooling when students and teachers change the culture. Nonetheless, well-intentioned efforts will be demolished if the climate and culture go unchanged. Taking a more in-depth look at motivation interventions through a holistic ecological lens that is both culturally intelligent and trauma-informed will create a strength-based collaborative learning perspective with the capacity to increase success among all students.

## References

- Afzal, H., Ali, I., Aslam Khan, M., & Hamid, K. (2010). A study of university students' motivation and its relationship with their academic performance. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(4), 80–89. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v5n4p80>
- Allen, J., Gregory, A., Mikami, A., Lun, J., Hamre, B., & Pianta, R. (2013). Observations of effective teacher-student interactions in secondary school classrooms: Predicting student achievement with the classroom assessment scoring system-secondary. *School Psychology Review*, 42(1), 76–98.
- Arens, A. K., Marsh, H. W., Pekrun, R., Lichtenfeld, S., Murayama, K., & vom Hofe, R. (2017). Math self-concept, grades, and achievement test scores: long-term reciprocal effects across five waves and three achievement tracks. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 109(5), 621–634. <https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000163>
- Ball, C., Huang, K., Rikard, R. V., & Cotten, S. R. (2019). The emotional costs of computers: An expectancy-value theory analysis of predominantly low-socioeconomic status minority students' STEM attitudes. *Information, Communication & Society*, 22(1), 105–128. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1369118X.2017.1355403>
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191–215. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191>
- Bong, M. (2001). Role of self-efficacy and task-value in predicting college students' course performance and future enrollment intentions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 26(4), 553–570. <https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.2000.1048>
- Bredenkamp, S., & Copple, C. (1997). *Developmentally appropriate practice in early childhood programs* (Rev. ed.). Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children.
- Brophy, J. (1981). Teacher praise: A functional analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 51(1), 5–32. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1170249>
- Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Pastorelli, C., Bandura, A., & Zimbardo, P. G. (2000). Prosocial foundations of children's academic achievement. *Psychological Science*, 11(4), 302–306. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9280.00260>
- Covey, S. R., Merrill, A. R., & Merrill, R. R. (1995). *First things first: to live, to love, to learn, to leave a legacy* (1st Fireside ed.). New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Covington, M. V. (2000). Goal theory, motivation, and school achievement: An integrative review. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 51, 171–200. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.51.1.171>
- Cruikshank, D., & Haefele, D. (1991). Good teachers, plural. *Educational Leadership*, 58(5), 26–30.
- Cushner, K. H., McClelland, A., & Stafford, P. (2015). *Human diversity in education: An intercultural approach*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Derman-Sparks, L., LeeKeenan, D., & Nimmo, J. (2015). Building anti-bias early childhood programs: The role of the leader. *Young Children*, 70(2), 42–45.
- DiPerna, J. C., & Elliott, S. N. (2002). Promoting academic enablers to improve student achievement: An introduction to the mini-series. *School Psychology Review*, 31, 293–297.
- Dotterer, A. M., & Lowe, K. (2011). Classroom context, school engagement, and academic achievement in early adolescence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 40(12), 1649–1660.

- <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-011-9647-5>
- Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. (2002). Motivational beliefs, values, and goals. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53(1), 109–132. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.53.100901.135153>
- Eggen, P., & Kauchak, D. (2013). *Educational Psychology: Windows on Classrooms*.
- Feldhusen, J. F. (1989). Why the Public schools will continue to neglect the gifted. *Gifted Child Today Magazine*, 12(2), 55–59. <https://doi.org/10.1177/107621758901200221>
- Frankl, V. E. (1984). *Man's search for meaning: An introduction to logotherapy*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Gbollie, C., & Harriett, P. K. (2017). Student academic performance: The role of motivation, strategies, and perceived factors hindering liberian junior and senior high school students learning. *Education Research International*. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2017/1789084>
- Glatthorn, A. A., Boschee, F., Whitehead, B. M., & Boschee, B. F. (2012). *Curriculum leadership: Strategies for development and implementation* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Gresham, F. M., & Elliott, S. N. (1990). *Social skills rating system: Manual*. Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.
- Hanushek, E. A., & Rivkin, S. G. (2010). Generalizations about using value-added measures of teacher quality. *The American Economic Review*, 100(2), 267–271. <https://doi.org/10.1257/aer.100.2.267>
- Headden, S., & McKay, S. (2015). *Motivation matters: How new research can help teachers boost student engagement*. Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Stanford, CA.
- Howard, T. C. (2018). Capitalizing on culture: Engaging young learners in diverse classrooms. *YC Young Children*, 73(2), 24–33.
- Jennings, P., & Greenberg, M. (2011). The Prosocial Classroom: Teacher social and emotional competence in relation to student and classroom outcomes. *Review of Educational Research*, 79(1). <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654308325693>
- Kearsley, G., & Shneiderman, B. (1998). Engagement theory: A framework for technology-based teaching and learning. *Educational Technology*, 38(5), 20–23.
- Kirkman, B. L., Rosen, B., Tesluk, P. E., & Gibson, C. B. (2004). The Impact of Team Empowerment on Virtual Team Performance: The Moderating Role of Face-to-Face Interaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(2). <https://doi.org/10.5465/20159571>
- Kohn, A. (1996). *Beyond discipline: From compliance to community*. Alexandria, Va: ASCD.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (2014). Culturally relevant pedagogy 2.0: A.k.a. the remix. *Harvard Educational Review*, 84(1), 74–84. <https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.84.1.p2rj131485484751>
- Lockwood, P. L., Ang, Y. S., Husain, M., & Crockett, M. J. (2017). Individual differences in empathy are associated with apathy-motivation. *Scientific Reports*, 7(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-17415-w>
- Losinski, M., Ennis, R., Katsiyannis, A., & Rapa, L. J. (2019). Schools as change agents in reducing bias and discrimination: Shaping behaviors and attitudes. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 28(10), 2718–2726. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-019-01452-2>
- Lunenburg, F., & Ornstein, F. (2012). *Educational administration: Concepts and practices*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Marsh, H. W., Pekrun, R., Parker, P. D., Murayama, K., Guo, J., Dicke, T., & Arens, A. K. (2018). The murky distinction between self-concept and self-efficacy: beware of lurking jingle-jangle fallacies. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 111(2), 331–353. <https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000281>
- Muenks, K., Wigfield, A., Yang, J. S., & O'Neal, C. R. (2017). How true is grit? assessing its relations to high school and college students' personality characteristics, self-regulation, engagement, and achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 109(5), 599–620. <https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000153>
- Munro, D., Schumaker, J. F., & Carr, S. C. (eds.). (1997). *Motivation and Culture*. New York: Routledge.
- Namkung, J. M., Peng, P., & Lin, X. (2019). The relation between mathematics anxiety and mathematics performance among school-aged students: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 89(3),

- 459–496. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654319843494>
- Olivier, E., Archambault, I., De Clercq, M., & Galand, B. (2019). Student self-efficacy, classroom engagement, and academic achievement: Comparing three theoretical frameworks. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 48(2), 326–340. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-018-0952-0>
- Perry, N. E., Turner, J. C., & Meyer, D. K. (2006). Classroom contexts for motivating learners. In P. Alexander & P. Winnie (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 327–348). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Planta, R. (2016). *The responsibility of schools of education in preparing teachers to teach with tech*. Huffington Post. Retrieved from [https://www.huffpost.com/entry/the-responsibility-of-sch\\_b\\_9081476](https://www.huffpost.com/entry/the-responsibility-of-sch_b_9081476)
- Radovan, M., & Makovec, D. (2015). Relations between students' motivation, and perceptions of the learning environment. *CEPS Journal*, 5(2), 115–138.
- Ray, B. C. (2020). "I belong here.": Culturally sustaining pedagogical praxes from an alternative high school in brooklyn. *The Urban Review*, 52(2), 376–391. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11256-019-00536-z>
- Ray, C. E., & Elliott, S. (2006). Social adjustment and academic achievement: A predictive model for students with diverse academic and behavior competencies. *School Psychology Review*, 35(3), 493–501.
- Reason, C. (2010). *Leading a learning organization: The science of working with others*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree.
- Reis, S. M., Burns, D. E., & Renzulli, J. S. (1992). *Curriculum compacting: The complete guide to modifying the regular curriculum for high ability students*. Mansfield Center, CT: Creative Learning Press.
- Reis, S. M., Westberg, K. L., Kulikowich, J. M., & Purcell, J. H. (1998). Curriculum compacting and achievement test scores: What does the research say? *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 42(2), 123–129. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001698629804200206>
- Rink, J. E. (2013). Measuring teacher effectiveness in physical education. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 84(4), 407–418. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02701367.2013.844018>
- Ritchie, L. (2015). *Fostering self-efficacy in higher education*. London, England: Palgrave. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-137-46378-4>
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 54–67. <https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1020>
- Saeed, S., & Zyngier, D. (2012). How motivation influences student engagement: A qualitative case study. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 1(2), 252–267. <https://doi.org/10.5539/jel.v1n2p252>
- Sarason, S. B. (1996). *Revisiting "The culture of the school and the problem of change"*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Schunk, D. H., Pintrich, P. R., & Meece, J. L. (2008). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Seki, G. K. (2014). *The relationship between motivational factors and engagement in an urban high school setting*. Doctoral dissertation. Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database (3643164).
- Senge, P. (2004). *The fifth discipline: The art & practice of the learning organization*. Doubleday
- Steel, P., & König, C. J. (2006). Integrating theories of motivation. *The Academy of Management Review*, 31(4), 889–913. <https://doi.org/10.2307/20159257>
- Steele, C. M. (1997). A threat in the air: How stereotypes shape intellectual identity and performance. *American Psychologist*, 52(6), 613–629. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.52.6.613>
- Stephen, T. L. (2015). *Encouraging positive student engagement and motivation: Tips for teachers*. Retrieved from <http://www.pearsoned.com/education-blog/encouraging-positive-student-engagement-and-motivation-tips-for-teachers/>
- Thijs, J., & Verkuyten, M. (2009). Students' anticipated situational engagement: The roles of teacher behaviour, personal engagement, and gender. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 170(3), 268–286. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00221320903218323>
- Trowler, V. (2010). *Student engagement literature review*. York, England: The Higher Education Academy.

- Turi, D. M. (2012). *The relationship between student engagement and the development of character in Mission driven faith-based colleges and universities as measured by the national survey of student engagement*. Doctoral dissertation. Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database (3520927).
- UN DESA. (2016). *Identifying social inclusion and exclusion, in Report on the World Social Situation 2016: Leaving no one Behind: The Imperative of Inclusive Development*. UN, New York
- US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (2019). *Status and trends in the education of racial and ethnic groups*. Retrieved from [https://nces.ed.gov/programs/raceindicators/indicator\\_RDA.asp](https://nces.ed.gov/programs/raceindicators/indicator_RDA.asp)
- Van Ryzin, M. J., Gravely, A. A., & Roseth, C. J. (2009). Autonomy, belongingness, and engagement in school as contributors to adolescent psychological well-being. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 38(1), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-007-9257-4>
- Westberg, K. L. (1999). *What happens to young, creative producers* (pp. 3, 13–16)? NAGC: Creativity and Curriculum Divisions' Newsletter.
- Wlodkowski, R. J., & Ginsberg, M. B. (1995). A framework for culturally responsive teaching. *Educational Leadership*, 1, 17–21.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Schunk, D. H. (2008). Motivation: An essential dimension of self-regulated learning. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Motivation and self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and applications* (pp. 1–30). New York, NY: Routledge.

### Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author, with first publication rights granted to the journal.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).