The Report Committee for Shobha Shankar

Certifies that this is the approved version of the following report:

The Contribution of Teacher Beliefs and Student Motivation on the

Academic Lives of Different Learners

APPROVED BY

SUPERVISING COMMITTEE:

Supervisor:

Diane Schallert

Marilla Svinicki

The Contribution of Teacher Beliefs and Student Motivation on the

Academic Lives of Different Learners

by

Shobha Shankar, B.A.

Report

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Austin

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Master of Education

The University of Texas at Austin
December 2010

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Diane Schallert and all my Professors who have guided me

in my journey to discover what truly interests and excites me

December 2010

Abstract

The Contribution of Teacher Beliefs and Student Motivation on the

Academic Lives of Different Learners

Shobha Shankar, M.Ed

The University of Texas at Austin, 2010

Supervisor: Diane Schallert

Abstract: Today's classrooms have a significant diversity of learners who are expected to engage in similar academic activities and meet common standards of academic competency irrespective of their individual differences. As a result, for many students, school is a challenging endeavor that elicits emotional responses ranging from low self-efficacy to frustration, stress and anxiety. Research has shown that factors such as students' motivation and teachers' beliefs are important influencers of classroom achievement. These factors determine students' persistence towards their academic goals as well as the standards teachers set. This report reviews the literature on major constructs of motivation and teacher beliefs specifically with different learners, that is second language learners and students with learning disabilities. A proposal of a synthesis model is offered, with the primary objective of depicting the influence of teacher beliefs and student motivation on learning process and performance outcomes among different learners.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

No two classrooms are the same, nor are the teaching challenges comparable at various grade level and among different learners. Since the mid 1970's, there has been a gradual increase in the number of students with specific needs in the regular classroom. Children who spoke a second language at home increased from 9 to 21 % and children with Learning Disability (LD) in general classes rose from 32% to 57 %. In terms of poverty status, 10 % of poor and 8 % near-poor 5- to 17-year-olds spoke a non-English language at home and spoke English with difficulty in comparison to 3% of non poor 5- to 17-year-olds (Aud et al., 2010). The academic lives of these children are challenging and complex. Children are expected to engage in academic activities, learn from instruction, and meet standards of intellectual competency established by others. There is a need for the students to fit into the regular education system. The difficulty of this task was brought into sharp focus by local and state reports that showed that schools and districts, especially those in impoverished neighborhood, may have more than half of all students who score less than proficient on some measures. Academically and socially, students' proficiency begins to decline with grade and schooling level. In turn, these declines in achievement and learning result or are associated with loss of interest and motivation for schooling (Glazek, & Sarason, 2006; Wentzel &Wigfield, 2007b & 2009)

Students' motivation and teachers' beliefs are among the important influences on students' success and teachers' involvement. They in turn determine which tasks students pursue and their persistence in achieving them and the standards teacher set to determine when these tasks are accomplished (Saha & Dworkin, 2009). The purpose of this report is to review the work on major constructs of motivation and teacher beliefs having to do

with what I am calling *different learners*, that is second language learners and students with learning disability.

DIFFERENT LEARNERS

Second Language Learners

Second language learning is the process by which individuals can learn a second language in addition to their native language. Horwitz (2008) reported that, in the United States, English language learners are classified as second language learners (SLL) because they are surrounded by English in school, the media, and the community. In spite of many ways of organizing instruction to SLL (English as a second language class, bilingual classroom, pull-out programs), they receive little special instruction in schools. Some states have English only instruction for SLLs, whereas others have moved to requiring all teachers to have some ESL training. This approach makes regular classroom teachers rather than specialists responsible for providing to the needs of the SLLs. Too often, the students are left to their own devices to "sink or swim" in classes designed for native speakers. Language educators call it *submersion* when learners are placed in regular classrooms with native English-speaking peers and given no extra support while they are learning English. Second language learning for the purpose of this report is used to include learning of languages other than the native language.

Students with Learning Disability

In the last decade, there have been an increasing number of students attending regular classrooms who face various learning difficulties. According to National Joint Committee on Learning Disabilities (NJCLD, 1990), *learning disabilities* (LD) is a general term that refers to a heterogeneous group of disorders manifested by significant difficulties in the acquisition and use of listening, speaking, reading, writing, reasoning,

or mathematical abilities. These disorders are intrinsic to the individual, presumed to be due to central nervous system dysfunction, and may occur across the life span. Problems in self-regulatory behaviors, social perception, and social interaction may exist with learning disabilities but do not by themselves constitute a learning disability. Although learning disabilities may occur concomitantly with other handicapping conditions (for example, sensory impairment, mental retardation, serious emotional disturbance), or with extrinsic influences (such as cultural differences, insufficient or inappropriate instruction), they are not the result of those conditions or influences.

Public Law 94-142 (special education law), for all intents and purposes, changed the lives of children with learning disabilities and their teachers. The policy opened school doors to all children, regardless of the type or degree of their disability. With the recent reauthorization of No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), state policies such as the California High School Exit Exam are further pushing against special education policy by requiring the same graduation standards for students with and without disabilities. This makes it necessary to study how general educators can help achieve high standards for students with disabilities. Children who find school learning difficult would benefit from more high-quality instruction. All prospective teachers should be taught how to individualize instruction and how to determine when and how to make accommodations and modifications (Itkonen, 2007; NJCLD, 1990).

MOTIVATION AND TEACHER BELIEFS

Ms.A, in a conference with a parent, stated that her child had difficulty following directions, and learning math and writing. When asked about the steps taken to solve the problem in class, Ms.A responded that the student did not listen to reminders and is showing no interest in learning. In my years of working in a school with a large

3

population of SLL and students with LD, this was an oft-repeated conversation that some teachers (like Ms.A) had with parents of different learners. On the other hand, there were successful teachers (like Ms.B) who called parents to report the progress that the students were making and the strategies that were being used to support them. Consequently, students with teacher A would likely continue to have difficulties and need more support in order to cope with the regular classroom. They continued to be different learners, partly because of the limitation of their classroom culture, which did not allow them to aspire for higher goals. Students with teacher B tended to make a successful transition and become a part of the regular classroom, with some support.

This report focuses on teacher-student relationship for different learners in regular classrooms. I explore teacher beliefs and student motivation and the influence they might have on each other. Among the many variables that can be studied regarding different learners, student motivation is crucial for engagement and performance in class. It is important to understand what influences student motivation in class and why it changes. Motivational research has provided rich theoretical constructs and identified important factors related to learning and classrooms. There is a well researched knowledge base of motivational constructs and the values, goals, or beliefs, that students adopt for learning (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Pintrich, 2000; Ryan, & Deci, 2000, 2009, Schunk, Pintrich, & Meese, 2008; Weiner, 1985). In today's regular classroom, it is equally important to know how students with different learning styles develop competence and values and goals, why they may fluctuate, and the outcomes that evolve from it. It is important to study motivation of different learners and their contexts and highlight the dynamic and situational nature of motivation. These studies provide explanations of development and change in SLL and students' with LDs motivation to learn and succeed (Turner and Patrick, 2008).

Maehr (1974) observed that "complex human behavior is seldom if ever solely a function of the person.. . . Situations and contexts are critical in eliciting or maximizing any predisposition to achieve" (p. 64). Students' are evaluated at every level of their academic experiences. From decisions on classroom placement to special needs, academic achievement, and social development. The ascription made on each of these performances determines how the school system treats them. The causal interpretations and explanations that are communicated through beliefs and expectations can influence the way students are treated. To meet the educational needs of diverse learners, it is important to, look not only at the learner but also at the context in which students are learning. Are the students being educated in the most favorable environments? What are the teacher beliefs and assumptions that drive instructions and standards in the class? (Williams, 2001). Gee (1996) pointed out, "Literacy instruction also involves talking, interacting, valuing, and believing" (p.40).

Students' academic outcomes are strongly influenced by teacher perceptions. It has been documented that, with diverse learners, teacher beliefs and expectations influence students' learning outcomes. Brown (2006) in his review reported that children's self-perception and motivation are influenced by teachers' perception. Teachers' expectation can have a critical effect on the motivation to learn and actual achievement (Sirota & Bailey, 2009). Gutierrez and Rogoff (2003) reminded educators that students' circumstances should not be viewed as "traits." Rather, educators should help students build on what they know. This requires a broader view of what counts as knowledge (Rubinstein-Avila, 2007).

Motivation

Among the many factors forming the underpinning for academic success an important one is motivation. It can influence students to attend, engage in activities, make the effort to understand and solicit teacher support if needed (Schunk,Pintrich,& Meese, 2008). Teachers and students use the term *motivation* to understand and explain success or failure in the classroom. Motivation is capable of influencing learning as well as the demonstration of skills learned previously, and of fostering strategy use and particular behaviors in the classroom. It can influence what, when, and how we learn. In a review of correlational and experimental research in motivation by Schunk, Pintrich and Meese (2008), it was shown that studies have explored the relationship among motivation, cognitive, and achievement factors. There are now large bodies of work on the nature of motivation that provides the field with a much clearer understanding of critical motivation-related constructs. More comprehensive dynamic research needs to be developed to understand how motivation interacts with teacher variables in a classroom environment and how manipulation of the variables influences and changes student achievement (NJCLD, 1990; Schunk,Pintrich,& Meese, 2008;Wentzel, &Wigfield, 2009).

Teacher Beliefs

"Teachers' beliefs lie at the very heart of teaching" (Kagan, 1992, p. 85). Pajares, (1992) stated that

> …. beliefs teachers hold influence their perceptions and judgment, which in turn affect their behavior in the classroom, or that understanding the belief structures of teachers and teacher candidates is essential to improving professional preparation and teaching practices. When clusters of beliefs are organized around an object or situation and predisposed to action, this holistic organization becomes an attitude. Beliefs may also become values, which house the evaluative, comparative, and judgmental functions of beliefs and replace predisposition with

an imperative to action. Beliefs, attitudes, and values form an individual's belief system (p.307, p.314).

Pintrich (1990) suggested that beliefs will become a valuable psychological construct to teacher education. Beliefs influence and color teachers' abilities when making instructional and curricular decisions and when enhancing students' learning by encouraging the teacher to adopt new methods of teaching and to apply innovations (Pajares 1992). Quality of knowledge, attitudes and values are important factors that affect teacher behavior and performance in today's world of education. Research on beliefs show that teachers play a crucial role leading the way to education reform and that teacher beliefs are precursors to change. Teaching practices can be enhanced by understanding beliefs and changing attitudes and values (Kagan, 1992; Pajares,1992).

OVERVIEW

Chapter 1 - Introduction

This chapter provides information on the complexities and challenges of today's classroom. It provides an overview of the constructs used , an introduction and definitions.

Chapter2- Motivation

The focus of the second chapter is on the constructs related to human motivation that are relevant to understanding learners and different learners. Among a host of motivational models, this chapter focuses on four social–cognitive constructs that have been the center of most recent research on student motivation in classroom contexts: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, attributions and control beliefs, efficacy and competence beliefs, and achievement goal orientations. Literature on the latest research in the four chosen areas of motivation is reviewed in the context of academic and classroom experiences.

Chapter 3- Motivation and Different Learners

Definition of motivation for different learners and the theoretical constructs in the area of second language learning and learning disability are the focus of the third chapter. The two groups of different learners are highlighted in separate sections, and research regarding current position and view of motivation for these learners is reviewed. The analysis in this section represents an attempt to outline clearly the state and direction of current research trends and future needs in the area of motivation among SLL and LD population.

Chapter 4- Teacher Beliefs, Motivation, and Different Learners

The construct of teacher beliefs, specifically as it pertains to motivation, is described in chapter 4. Studies focusing on teacher beliefs, especially those co-constructed with motivation and different learners are reviewed. Research on the ability to change teacher beliefs and their impact is also reviewed. A proposal of a synthesis model is offered, with the primary objective of depicting the influence of teacher beliefs on student motivation and the impact on learning process and performance outcomes among different learners. The model is described as a dynamic process situated in the classroom where learning is seen as taking place in an interpersonal context.

Chapter 5 - Conclusion

The last chapter provides a summary of the various constructs reviewed in the report. Implications for teachers in the classroom are discussed in detail from the perspective of teacher beliefs and its impact in motivating different learners.

Motivation in education is a vast field and is continuously developing even as the classroom evolves. In the era of assessments and accountability, a teacher's own beliefs about students and other behaviors are being scrutinized. Hence, aspects of teachers'

attitude, values and the total belief system and impact on students need to be studied. New directions in research are needed to address complex conditions that are emerging and radically altering teachers and teaching. This report represents the beginning of a review of possibilities rather than a comprehensive compilation of a body of knowledge.

Chapter 2: Motivation

Student motivation has been among one of the most highly researched aspect of learning and teaching contexts in recent years, partly because it is recognized as an important quality that is needed to be successful in learning. Researchers, wanting to investigate why some learners are invested in the learning process and do well, whereas other students seem to have difficulty in developing knowledge and using cognitive skills to succeed in school, have looked at motivation as a possible source of variation (Pintrich, 2003a). Research on motivation among learners has many rich theoretical traditions encompassing a range of constructs. Over the past several decades, theorists have focused on self efficacy, expectancy, self regulation, as well as attribution and beliefs. There has also been a focus on goals, values, interests, and orientation towards learning and performance (Wentzel &Wigfield, 2009). The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of theories and definitions of motivation constructs and of the current research in constructs on motivation that pertains to learners as well as to second language learners and students with learning disability.

Motivation has been defined as "the process whereby goal directed activity is instigated and sustained" (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008, p. 4). Motivation is a process rather than a product. It is inferred from action like choice of tasks, effort, persistence, and verbalizations (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008). Among a host of motivational models, Pintrich (2003a, 2003b) described four basic social–cognitive constructs that have been the focus of most recent research on student motivation in classroom contexts: intrinsic motivation, attributions beliefs, efficacy and competence beliefs, and goal orientation. These four constructs organize the rest of this chapter.

INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Individuals are continuously trying to develop and learn as they engage with their outer environment and with their inner world of drives, needs, and experiences. In Self-Determination Theory, Ryan and Deci (2000) proposed that the three innate needs that, if satisfied, allow optimal function and growth: *autonomy, competence,* and *relatedness.* When these needs are supported and satisfied within a social context, individuals experience more motivation and well being (Ryan &Deci, 2000)

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) perceives people as being active and inquisitive and inherently motivated by interests and curiosity, which in turn uphold creativity and effort. Ryan and Deci stated, "this natural motivational tendency is a critical element in cognitive, social, and physical development because it is through acting on one's inherent interests that one grows in knowledge and skills" (Ryan & Deci, 2000 p. 56). Their theory distinguishes between different types of motivation based on the different reasons or goals that give rise to an action. In SDT motivation was conceptualized from a multidimensional perspective, and showed different motivations on a continuum. These constructs range from Amotivational to Extrinsic motivation to Intrinsic motivation. An unmotivated individual does not feel competent (low self-efficacy, low capacity beliefs), has a sense of learned helplessness as well as low value for the task and perception of irrelevance of the task. Students with this motivational style would be unmotivated for school due to low value, low self efficacy, and external control they feel for school activities. A student who is daydreaming or paying no attention to a lesson would be amotivated for that class, at least at that time (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008).

Extrinsic motivation refers to ''doing something because it leads to a separable outcome''(Ryan &Deci, 2000, p. 55). Here the motivation is from an outside or external

source. In schools there are external structures, control, and rewards that are in place to regulate and produce good behavior and academic and social functioning. Eventually these extrinsic motivators may become internalized and part of the self-regulation process. This process is described within SDT in terms of fostering the *internalization and integration* of values. Ryan and Deci have postulated four levels of extrinsic motivation.

In extrinsic motivation, the first level is *external regulation.* These students perform for external rewards or punishment and are not intrinsically motivated or have high interest. They work on their assignments to avoid failure and feelings of guilt and shame and to obtain good grades and a feeling pride or worth. There is no self-determination on the part of the learners. The next level after that is *introjected regulation* where the learners feel they should do an activity because they will feel approved of for doing it, or guilty and unworthy for not engaging in the task. The source of motivation is internal but not self determined. The regulation is partially internalized by the individual but not accepted as one's own. The third level is *identified regulation* where learners engage in an activity because it is personally important to them. They internalize the value of the activity and fully incorporate it as their own. The goals are chosen consciously by the student and locus of control is internal. They may study hard in order to get good grades or be accepted in a college. If a regulation or goal is personally valued by the individual, and is consciously accepted as one's own goal, the regulation is identified. The fourth level is *integrated regulation* where learners integrate various internal and external sources of information, and the regulations are fully assimilated and included in self evaluations and beliefs on personal needs. Students engage in behavior because of its importance to their sense of self. It is a well internalized form of extrinsic motivation and involves doing the task because it feels

valued. Here the activities are viewed as freely chosen, volitional, and engaging because they are personally important or relevant to attaining self selected goals. A student may work hard in biology because he is deeply committed to becoming a doctor. It does not only involve identifying with the importance of the behavior, but the regulation is evaluated and brought into harmony with the individuals own personally values, goals, and needs that are already a part of the self.(Ryan &Deci, 2000, 2009; Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008).

Intrinsically motivated behaviors are the prototype of autonomous or self-determined behavior, because these behaviors are interesting and fascinating and are performed volitionally. It refers to ''doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable'' (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 55). *Intrinsic motivation* and *integrated regulation* result in more cognitive engagement and learning than do *external* or *introjected regulation*. Students engage in an activity with eagerness and volition, with a sense of choice and willingness (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Individuals who are engaged in intrinsically motivation activities found that their experiences reflected complete involvement with the activity (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008). Csikszentmihalyi (1999) summarized that behavior is governed by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Extrinsic forces are biological (food, sleep) or sociological by nature (creating music for money or to be famous). Intrinsic forces grow out of an individual's belief that an activity is worthy of pursuit for its own sake (enjoy music for its own sake).

Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation and academic experience

Within the literature on self determination theory, many studies have investigated the relevance of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in the classroom. Ryan and Deci (2009) reviewed literature on intrinsic motivation and concluded that students tend to

learn better when they are intrinsically motivated, especially those requiring conceptual development and understanding. Lepper, Corpus, Hedderlong and Iyengar (2005) examined the age differences in intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the relationships of each to academic outcomes. Consistent with other research, Lepper et al. found there was a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and performance both in class and on standardized tests at all grade levels. Extrinsic motivation showed few differences across grade levels and proved negatively correlated with academic outcomes. That is, the children who reported that their aim was to please their teachers performed worse both on standardized tests and in regular classroom assessments. Intrinsic motivation showed a significant linear decrease from 3rd grade through 8th grade. Grade differences in students' reading motivation, including self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and social motivation, was also seen by Lau (2009) in a Chinese educational context. Significant grade differences were found in all reading motivation constructs, with students in higher grade levels having poorer reading motivation than students in lower grade levels.

Gottfried, Fleming, and Gottfried (2001) reported on a longitudinal study proposing that academic intrinsic motivation is a stable construct from childhood through late adolescence that becomes increasingly stable for both the general-verbal and math areas. These researchers also found that the mean level of academic intrinsic motivation declines from childhood through late adolescence. The decline was seen for math, science, and reading, and the absence of decline for Social Studies, indicating that academic intrinsic motivation is related to school curriculum. Burton, Lydon, D'Allessandro, and Koestner (2006) showed that intrinsic and identified self-regulations differ in their relative influence on psychological well-being and goal performance. The

more that students had an intrinsic academic self-regulation, the greater were the increases in their well-being, regardless of their performance.

Studies in schools and homes have examined factors that influence the internalization of school-related motivation. Supports for autonomy, competence and relatedness from teachers and parents facilitate internalization of motivation and students' engagement and achievement. One of the earlier studies by Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, and Ryan (1981) found that in classrooms where teachers were autonomy supportive and perceived as such, students tended to become more intrinsically motivated, perceived themselves to be more competent and felt better about themselves. In classroom where teachers were more controlling and so perceived, students tended to lose intrinsic motivation, perceived competence, and self –esteem. Students' perceptions of autonomy support and control in the classroom have been confirmed in some recent studies. Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2005) found that both parents and teachers contribute to the development of self-determined behaviors in adolescents. In a study with children from Taiwan, Shih (2008) supported the notion that students who perceived higher levels of autonomy support provided by teachers showed more adaptive patterns of learning. They reported higher involvement and participation and experienced higher levels of curiosity and enjoyment while studying

ATTRIBUTION DIMENSIONS OF MOTIVATION

In addressing the four motivation constructs, we are now ready for attributonal dimensions of motivation. Attribution theory makes the assumption that individuals endeavor to understand their environments and strive to comprehend why things happen and why people say or do things. In class, if students fail a test, they may seek to understand why they failed the exam and will probably attribute that failure to a specific

cause (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008).The models of Attributions developed by Weiner (1985) states that success and failure is attributed either to an ability factor that includes aptitude and acquired skills, an effort factor that can be temporary or sustained, task difficulty, or luck. Among these causal ascriptions, ability and effort are the most dominant perceived causes of success or failure on academic tasks. When a student fails a test he or she will try to understand why, formulating attributions to explain the performance and then experience further affect and expectancy changes dependent on the nature of these attributions. What learners perceive as being the cause of the event will affect their future motivation toward engagement with similar tasks. Pintrich (2003b) proposed that the causal attributions an individual makes for success or failure—not the actual success or failure event—mediates future expectancies. For example, suppose a group of students performs poorly on an examination because of poor instruction. Those individuals who attribute their failure to poor teaching will have a different level of motivation in subsequent examinations than those who attribute their failure to their own lack of innate ability.

When elucidating achievement outcomes, individuals engage in causal thinking, and the characteristics of the attribution are classified along three dimensions (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008; Weiner, 1985, 2010):

- *Locus:* cause is internal or external to the individual. If a learner believes that he or she failed an exam because of lack of ability, he or she is choosing an internal cause. In contrast, if a learner believes that he or she has failed an exam because the teacher is incompetent, he or she is choosing an external cause.

- *Stability*: designates a cause as constant or varying over time. If a learner believes that he failed a science exam because he lacks ability in science, then his cause is

16

stable. In contrast, if a learner believes that she failed the exam because she was ill at the time of the exam, then the cause is unstable.

- *Controllability* – whether a cause is subject to volitional influence.

All causes are locatable within these dimensions. For example ability is internal, stable, and uncontrollable; effort is internal, unstable, and controllable; objective task difficulty is external, stable, and controllable (by the teacher); and luck is external, unstable, and uncontrollable. Individuals who ascribe their success to internal and stable causes (i.e., ability or aptitude) will expect to succeed in the future. In contrast, learners who attribute their success to external or unstable causes (i.e., ease of the task, luck) will not expect to do well in the future. For failure situations, the positive motivational pattern consists of not an internal locus of control, but rather attribution of failure to external and unstable causes (difficult task, lack of effort, bad luck), and the negative motivational pattern consists of attributing failure to internal and stable causes (e.g., ability, skill). Weiner (1985) theorized that the causal dimensions (ability, effort, luck, task difficulty) have the ability to influence expectancies for success, self-efficacy beliefs, affects, and actual behavior. Individuals use various information sources as data to make inference or attribution about the causal determinants of behavior. They use external cues or environmental factors like specific information, social norms, or situational features, and personal factors like prior knowledge, individual differences, and schemas. Successful outcomes ascribed to self results in greater self esteem and pride than does success that is attributed externally (task ease or good luck). Similarly, failure attributed to internal causes evokes lower self esteem than when the outcomes are attributed to external causes. (Graham & Williams, 2009; Pintrich, 2003a, 2003b; Weiner, 1985, 2010)

Attribution dimensions and achievement

Gilman and Anderman (2006) found that youth with lower adaptive motivation (i.e., comparatively lower intrinsic motivation and self-adequacy and higher external locus of control) appeared to display pervasive adjustment problems that were not found among youth reporting higher adaptive motivation. Also students in the high adaptive motivation group reported higher scores on measures of self-esteem, global satisfaction, family satisfaction, school belongingness, and GPA, and significantly lower scores on measures of depression, anxiety, and social stress relative to students in the average motivation group. A study by Boyer (2006) showed that there is a significant relationship between composite positive explanatory style (explanations of good events in the context of attribution dimensions) and final exam performance. A more optimistic explanatory style for positive events was positively related to academic performance. There was no relationship between composite negative explanatory styles (explanations of bad events in the context of attribution dimensions) and either measure of academic achievement. As a part of a longitudinal study, Obach (2003) looked at changes in academic self-perceived competence associated with attributional beliefs, goal orientation, and reported strategy use. Grade differences were evident for attributional beliefs, such that, fifth graders who believed that successful outcomes were caused by their own ability tended to perceive themselves as more academically competent. Among sixth graders, those who did not believe that failed outcomes were caused by their ability were likely to perceive themselves to be more academically competent.

One of the well documented finding is that the stability dimension is closely linked to future expectancies for success/failure. Weiner (1985) reviewed investigations from 1973 -1983 and reported that stable, relative to unstable, attributions are related to high expectancies of success after goal attainment and to low expectancies of success

following a failure. Cortes-Suarez and Sandiford (2008) examined the difference in the attributions that passing and failing students gave for their performance in Algebra. Students in the passing group attributed their performance in the direction of internal locus of causality, stability, and controllability. Students in the failing group attributed their performance in the direction of external locus of causality, instability, and external controllability. In the passing group, effort and ability were the most frequently used attributions for performance, and in the failing group, effort, ability, and task difficulty were the most frequently used attributions for their performance

Attribution research on perceived controllability has also addressed the dimension of interpersonal theory. Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981) found that students exhibiting student owned problems (low achiever) were seen by teachers as unable to control their behavior and thus as victims. Students presenting teacher-owned problem (making paper planes instead of working) were seen as being able to control their behavior and blameworthy. Caprara, Pastorelli and Weiner (1997) conducted a study in Italy, where the children were asked to infer whether the teacher ascribed failure to a lack of ability or effort. Communication of anger served as a cue that the inferred cause is that the child did not try, a lack of effort. On the other hand, expressions of sympathy were seen as an indication that the inferred cause is lack of ability rather than poor effort. Greater anger and less sympathy were elicited by the controllable rather than the uncontrollable cause of the aversive outcome. Helping was more likely to be reported when the cause of the negative event was uncontrollable than controllable. More recently, Reyna and Weiner (2001) found that teachers perceiving the causes of failure in students as controllable (low effort) produced feelings of anger and lack of sympathy towards the student and attributions of no control (low ability) to result in more sympathy toward the student and a greater willingness to use positive reinforcements and utilitarian interventions. Schunk

et al (2008) summarized other studies of helping behavior and concluded that peer help and controllability dimensions showed the same pattern as studies involving teachers Students were more likely to offer their class notes to a student who missed class due to illness (uncontrollable) than to those who missed class to go to the beach (controllable).

SELF- EFFICACY AND SELF- PERCEPTIONS OF COMPETENCE

The third motivation construct that has been the focus of research in classrooms is self-efficacy and self- perceptions.

Self- Efficacy

Social cognitive theory postulates that motivational processes influence both learning and performance. A key variable in this theory is *self efficacy,* defined as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura 1986, p.31). Self efficacy contributes to motivation in several ways. It determines the goals people set for themselves, how much effort they expend, how long they persevere in the face of difficulties, and their resilience to failure (Schunk,1996).

Academic self-efficacy beliefs represent individuals' expectations and faith about their competence, an attempt to answer questions about what they can accomplish in academic domains (Lorsbach & Jinks, 1999). Students' beliefs about their capability and achievement influence their perceptions about themselves, their achievement, their choice of courses of action, and their coping style when it comes to challenges. Students' beliefs in their ability to master academic subjects predict their subsequent attainments (Lackaye & Margalit, 2009; Schunk,1996). Those who hold a low self-efficacy for a task may avoid it, whereas those who believe themselves capable will participate more readily, especially when they encounter difficulties. Learners who believe they can perform well

tend to work harder and persist longer. Perceived self-efficacy can be considered a measure of confidence regarding the performance of specific tasks (Bandura, 1977; Schunk 1996). It has been conceptualized that the sources of self efficacy are (a) one's performance; (b) vicarious experience; (c) social persuasion; and (d) physiological state.

- *Performance:* Learners' performance can be a reliable barometer for judging their self efficacy. Although success and failure will have an impact on self-efficacy, an established belief cannot be changed by one failure.

- *Vicarious experience*: Individuals can acquire information about their capabilities through knowledge of how others perform. Others' performance is a cue for gauging one's self-efficacy. Observing similar others succeed can raise one's self efficacy and motivation, and watching peers fail can lower one's self-efficacy.

- *Social persuasion*: Individuals can also develop and create self efficacy because of social persuasion. Effective persuaders can cultivate people's beliefs in their capabilities.

- *Physiological State*: Self-efficacy information can also be acquired through physiological states. Strong emotional reactions to tasks provide cues about anticipated failures and success. Negative emotions can lower self efficacy and trigger additional stress and anxiety.

These sources of efficacy information interact during developmental processes. However the impact of this information on efficacy expectations will depend on how it is cognitively appraised. In addition, an individual's self-efficacy may fluctuate due to physical, social and affective factors (Bandura, 1977; Schunk 2006; Schunk & Pajares, 2009' Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008).

Self-efficacy and academic performance

A meta analytic study by Multon, Brown, and Lent (1991) revealed that there were significant relationships between self-efficacy beliefs and academic performance and persistence outcomes. The relationship of self-efficacy to performance varied by students' achievement status, with stronger relations among low-achieving students than among students with normative academic progress. Williams and Williams (2010) showed that reciprocal determinism of mathematics self efficacy and achievement was supported across 26 nations. There was empirical support for the proposal that self-beliefs and performance repeatedly modify each other until the individual comes to a realistic appraisal of his or her self-worth or competence relative to the (mathematics) tasks at hand. Reciprocal determinism of self-efficacy and performance may well be a fundamental psychological process that transcends national and cultural boundaries. The effects of self-efficacy on performance and of performance on self-efficacy varied among nations. Paunonen and Hong (2010) looked at the relationship between self-efficacy and a range of ability domains (numerical, verbal, spatial, and mechanical). Self-efficacy beliefs about verbal and numerical abilities were significantly correlated with performance on verbal and numerical abilities tests. That is, participants were able to estimate, to some extent, how they would do on such performance measures. Self-efficacy beliefs about spatial abilities were relatively accurate. There was no significant relationship between self efficacy beliefs about mechanical abilities and mechanical test performance.

Self- Perceptions of Competence

Along with self-efficacy, students' self-perception of their competence is an important factor for success in the classroom. Expectancy-value theory reflects a general cognitive perspective on motivation. According to Pintrich and de Groot (1990), such a

model includes an expectancy component that describes students' developing beliefs about their own capacities to accomplish the task (self-perceived competence) and their judgments concerning the causes of their success or failure (attributions), and a value component that encompasses students' perceptions of the purpose of their learning (goal orientation) as well as their beliefs about the importance or value of the task.

Self perception of competence (self evaluative judgments about abilities) influence achievement, cognitive engagement, effort and persistence. Students who believe they are able and that they can and will do well are more motivated in terms of effort and persistence than students who believe they are less able and do not expect to succeed. It is important that these self-efficacy and competence beliefs are adaptive and represent a fairly accurate perception of one's capabilities. There are dangers associated with overly optimistic or pessimistic perceptions of efficacy or competence. Inaccuracy of self-perception of competence can result in overestimation of competence (Bandura, 1977; Obach, 2003; Pintrich, 2003b; Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008)

Eccles and her colleagues (1983) defined and measured expectancies for success as children's beliefs about how well they will do on upcoming tasks, either in the immediate or longer term future. Ability beliefs are defined as the individual's perception of his or her current competence at a given activity. These beliefs are distinguished conceptually from expectancies for success, with ability beliefs focused on present ability and expectancies focused on the future. Expectancies and values are assumed to be influenced by task-specific beliefs such as ability beliefs, the perceived difficulty of different tasks, and individuals' goals, self-schema, and affective memories. These social cognitive variables, in turn, are influenced by individuals' perceptions of their own previous experiences and a variety of socialization influences. They defined expectancies for success as children's beliefs about how well they will do in a task and have measured

individuals' own expectations for success, rather than their outcome expectations (Eccles et al., 1983; Wigfeild, Tonks, & Klauda,2009).

Self-perceptions and learning

There are several studies that have established the connection between self-perception and learning. Fredrick and Eccles (2002) looked at development of competence and value beliefs, gender differences, and parent socialization. These researchers reported a significant decline in children's perceptions of their math competencies from 1st grade to 12th grade. Also gender was a predictor of changes in children's competencies over time, with boys believing that they were competent in math more than girls. However, girls' perceptions of their math ability declined at a slower rate than that of boys, and the gender gap decreased over time. Sports competence beliefs declined over the course of schooling, with boys reporting a higher perception of their competence than did girls. Children who had parents with high initial perceptions of their children's sports ability had higher perceptions of their competence in the early years than did children who had parents with low perceptions of their sports ability. A longitudinal sequential study was conducted by Obach (2003) about perceived academic competence and motivational beliefs in middle school children. Higher achievers rated themselves as more academically competent than lower achievers. Initial self-perception of academic competence was strongly related to self-perceived competence one year later. This relation varied in magnitude for each grade transition and different variables related to these longitudinal changes in self-perceptions of academic competence. Among fifth graders, those who attributed success and failure outcomes to effort tended to perceive themselves to be more academically competent one year later. Among sixth graders, however, those who reported monitoring their study, were persistent, and did not

adopt performance goals were likely to perceive themselves more academically competent one year later.

Wigfield and Cambria (2010) reviewed the research on children's', adolescents', and adults' self-perceptions in different areas. They summarized that competence in valued areas of the self was the most important correlate of self-esteem. When children's perception of their competence was lower than their importance rating of a task then their self-esteem was lower. In contrast, believing one is competent in areas deemed unimportant did not impact self-esteem. Thus it was not competence alone but value and competence that related to self-esteem. In a study on self-concept of ability in different areas (Marsh, Trautwein, Lüdtke, Köller, & Baumert, 2005), the major focus was on the effects of academic self-concept on a variety of academic outcomes. Marsh et al. juxtaposed self-concept with academic interest along with achievement, to examine reciprocal relations across all three measures in math. The major findings of this work were that math self-concept and interest were both positively correlated with math grades and test scores. Correlations of self-concept with achievement were more positive than the correlations between interest and achievement. Math self-concept and achievement were related reciprocally over time, whereas there was no such relationship between math interest and achievement. There was stronger evidence for the prediction of math interest from math self-concept than the reverse.

Chamorro-Premuzic, Harlaar, Greven and Plomin (2010) examined the longitudinal causal relationship between self-perceived abilities and academic achievement while controlling for cognitive ability. Findings showed that the effects of previous achievement on subsequent self-perceived abilities were of similar magnitude to the effects of prior self-perceived abilities on subsequent achievement. The link between self-perceived abilities and achievement independent of cognitive ability is

reflective of both "insight" (children's accounts of their previous performance) and self efficacy. Thus "feeling competent" on different ability domains appears to be partially due to children's previous achievement levels at school. High-performing children adjust their self-perceived abilities upwards, and low-performing children adjust them downwards. Likewise, some children may improve their academic performance because they rate their abilities highly; and others may worsen their academic performance because they have no confidence in their abilities.

GOAL ORIENTATION

The fourth motivation construct to be studied is goal orientation. Achievement goal theory posits that students' motivation and achievement-related behaviors make more meaningful sense when one takes into consideration the reasons or purposes they adopt while engaged in academic work. This theory specifies the kinds of goals and purposes or reasons that direct achievement related behavior. One focus is on goal content and the multiple goals that students can pursue in school settings, and the other focus is on the nature of achievement goals or goal orientations. The goal content approach is concerned with human behavior in a broad manner, including the influence of social goals, *The goal orientation* approach looks at motivation, learning, and achievement, which are the focus of this chapter. The purpose in this line of work is to understand why learners want to achieve certain goals and how they approach and engage in this task (Pintrich, 2000; Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008; Wolters, 2004).

Goal orientation models began by proposing two general goal orientations that concern the reasons or purposes individuals are pursuing when approaching and engaging in a task. Dweck (1986) proposed a model of goal orientations stemming from individuals underlying theories of intelligence. The first goal is *learning goals,* in which

individuals seek to increase competence and understand and master something new. The second goal is *performance goals*, where individuals look to gain favorable judgments of their competence or to avoid negative judgment of their competence.

Ames's (1988) model on the other hand, focuses primarily on classroom antecedents of these goal orientations, rather than on characteristics of children and saw them as more of a product of context rather than the person (Wigfield &Cambria, 2010). In this model, in *mastery goals*, importance is attached to developing new skills. The process of learning itself is valued, and the attainment of mastery is seen as dependent on effort. The learners try to understand their work, improving their level of competence, or achieving a sense of mastery based on self-referenced standards. In *performance goals*, there is a concern with being judged as able, and one shows evidence of ability by being successful, by outperforming others, or by achieving success with little effort. A performance goal reflects a valuing of ability and normatively high in reference to besting other students in competitions, surpassing others in achievements or grades, and receiving public recognition for their superior performance.

Pintrich (2000) theorized that there may be multiple "pathways," or developmental trajectories, that are fostered by different goal orientations. Mastery and performance goals could promote different patterns of motivation, affect, strategy use, and performance over time. In this sense, students who adopt different goals might follow different pathways, or trajectories, over time, with some of them ending up in the "same" place in terms of actual achievement or performance but having a very different experience on the way to this overall outcome. In current view of goal orientation four principal goal orientations have been delineated.

- Students who express a *mastery-approach* goal orientation are focused on such goals as learning as much as possible, overcoming a challenge, or increasing their level of competence.

- A *mastery avoidance o*rientation describes students who work in order to avoid a lack of mastery or a failure to learn as much as possible.

- Students with a *performance-approach* goal orientation want to demonstrate their ability relative to others or want to prove their self-worth publicly.

Overall when operating under mastery goal orientations, students are concerned with task mastery and increasing their competence. This orientation leads them to interpret outcome feedback differently than those students with performance goal orientations where the goal is maintaining and enhancing perceptions of ability relative to others. Under mastery goal orientations, students are more likely to see a strong link between effort and outcome and make more effort attribution to success and failure. Performance goals lead to ability attributions for success or failure and ability attribution to failure leads to learned helplessness. In addition, these categories of students see effort and ability as inversely related; That is, harder one has to work, the less ability one has (Boekaerts, 2009; Dweck, 1988; Harackiewicz & Linnenbrink, 2005; Pintrich, 2000; Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008; Wolters,2004). Focus of this review of literature will be on Ames's (1988) model of mastery and performance goal orientation.

Goal orientation and classroom achievement

Elliot and Murayama (2008) provided empirical support for the mastery-performance avoidance and approach construct. Mastery-approach and performance-avoidance goals were shown to emerge from a single antecedent, the need for achievement and fear of failure respectively. Performance-approach and mastery-

avoidance goals were shown to emerge from both motives (need for achievement/fear of failure). Mastery approach goals were positive predictors and performance avoidance goals were negative predictors of intrinsic motivation. Performance-approach goals were positive predictors and performance-avoidance goals were negative predictors of exam performance. Schunk et al (2008) summarized data from multiple studies of student goal orientation and use of strategies. Most results are consistent in reporting that students who endorse mastery goals are more likely to report attempts to self monitor their cognition, become aware of their understanding and learning, and perform comprehension monitoring. In addition, mastery goal oriented students reported use of deeper processing strategies such as elaboration and organization. Research on performance goals indicated that they were negatively related to use of deeper cognitive strategies.

Linnenbrink (2005) looked at the most adaptive classroom goal context (mastery, performance-approach, or combined mastery/performance-approach) for promoting motivation, emotional well-being, cognitive engagement, and achievement. She also studied how personal goal orientations interact with classroom goal structures to influence students' motivation, emotional well-being, help seeking, cognitive engagement, and achievement outcomes. Different patterns of outcomes were observed for personal goals, which supported the mastery goal perspective, versus the classroom goal condition, which supported the multiple goal perspective. Regarding classroom goal structures, performance-approach and combined mastery–performance classroom goal contexts were most beneficial, whereas the findings for personal goals suggested that mastery goals are beneficial and performance-approach goals are detrimental.

Ciani, Middleton, Summers and Sheldon (2010) reported that as perceptions of a performance-oriented classroom rises, students report less motivation to learn. Autonomy

support had a significant moderating effect on the relationship between a performance goal structure and mastery goals classrooms. High ratings of teacher autonomy support eliminated the significant effect of a perceived performance-oriented context. Also, perceived performance-oriented classroom goal structures were negatively related to high school students' mastery goals. However, the negative effect of students' perceptions of performance-oriented classrooms was significantly buffered by a concurrent perceived emphasis on classroom community, teacher autonomy support, and to a lesser extent, a mastery classroom goal structure. In a longitudinal analysis, Daniels et al (2008) classified undergraduate students according to their mastery and performance-approach goals. Mastery and performance goals were correlated, suggesting that many college students may simultaneously endorse both goals. The relationships between mastery and performance goals and each of the academic outcomes were similar in many instances. Two exceptions were that mastery correlated with perceived success and mastery goals was negatively related to anxiety, whereas performance goals were positively related. Regarding achievement-related emotions, performance students displayed less enjoyment and more boredom than the multiple-goals and mastery clusters, and more anxiety than the mastery and low-motivation clusters.

A vast array of research had been conducted in schools to test the theory and principles of motivation. Research on self-determination constructs emphasized intrinsic resources in students that can be facilitated by home and school environment leading to better learning and performance. In exploring the implications of attribution theory in relationship to achievement, findings for stability dimension was consistent and was linked to future expectancies for success/failure. Studies looking at effects of attributional feed back, associated achievement outcomes to attributions. Current research linked self-

efficacy, perception of competence, and goal orientations to effort, interest, achievement or cognitive engagement in the classroom.

There is rich evidence to support the assumption that students' beliefs, values, goals and needs can influence different aspects of their academic lives. Understanding student motivation helps design better instruction in classrooms and schools that will then facilitate learning and achievement. The current chapter gave an overview of the motivational constructs that have been the focus of research in educational setting. However, an important contextual factor that needs to be taken into consideration is the population under study. Specifically, do these motivational constructs apply equally well across students who are different learners? The next chapter will look at some of these issues.

Chapter 3: Motivation and Different Learners

There are differences in achievement among learners. In the last decade, there have been increasing numbers of students attending school who face various learning challenges. The question of why particular groups of students achieve or fail to achieve is one that motivational researcher have attempted to address (Guilloteaux, & Dornyei, 2008). The special population in whom I am interested as I review the theoretical and empirical literature on motivation is comprised of second language learners (SLL) and students with learning disabilities (LD).

IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION FOR SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN SCHOOLS

According to the U. S. Department of Education (USDOE) and the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD), 20% of people speak a language other than English at home, and it is estimated that by the year 2030, about 40% of the school population will speak English as a second language (USDOE, & NICHD, 2003). Increasing number of second language learners are enrolling in schools and are part of the regular classrooms. In addition to the demands of learning through a second language, these students' also have to learn to adapt to a different system that may lead to patterns of underachievement and difficulty with learning. Scholars from educational psychology and the second language field have used the lens of motivation theories to explore the achievement outcome and understand the factors influencing engagement for this diverse population of children. In this section of the chapter, I summarize the theories of motivation in second language learning and review literature on motivation of SLL in the classroom.

Theories of motivation in second language learning

Among the important perspectives regarding motivation, I am going to review three influential theories in second language learning. The first theory is Gardner's (1972) socioeducational model, second is theories from a cognitive perspective and the last is the process model proposed by Dornyei and Otto (1998)

Gardner and Lambert (1972) are among the major contributors to the concept of motivation in second language. Gardner's (1972, 2001) socioeducational model of second language acquisition focuses on language learning taking place in the classroom and stresses that motivation is one variable important in second language acquisition. It further proposes that motivation is supported by two other affective components, integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation, and that the complex combination of such attitudes and motivation reflects an integrative motive that promotes language learning. The model describes the relationship of motivation to integrativeness, attitude toward learning, and language achievement. Integrative motivation is seen as a complex combination of attitudinal, goal-directed, and motivational attributes. *Integrativeness* reflects a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer to the other language community. *Attitude* towards the learning situation involves attitude towards any aspect of a situation in which language is learned, that is attitude toward teachers, course, and classmates (Gardner, 2001;Gardner et al, 2004; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003).

Cognitive perspectives have influenced motivation research in second/foreign language learning. The influential cognitive approaches are self-determination theory, attribution theory, and goal orientation. Several attempts have been made to integrate self-determination theory, especially intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, to explain second language learning motivation (Dornyei, 2003, 2005). Research by Noels and her

colleagues (2001, 2003) provided insight into how self-determination theory concepts fit into second/foreign language learning motivation. Goal theories have been an important influence in second language motivation. Goal theories may have been veiled by the fact that language learning "goals" could be referred to as "orientations" (Dornyei, 2003). Tremblay and Gardner (1995) looked at the variables that mediate the relationship between language attitudes and motivational behavior. The results suggested that specific goals and frequent reference to these goals lead to increased levels of motivational behavior. Goal salience is influenced by language attitudes where positive language attitudes orient students to develop specific language learning goals.

Process model by Dornyei and Otto (1998) organized motivational influences of second language learning along a series of separate events within the state of initiating and enacting motivated behavior. Among the two dimensions of Process Model, *Action Sequence* was where initial wishes, hopes and desires were transformed into goals, then into intentions and then into actions and accomplishment of the goals. The second dimension was *Motivational Influence* which included the energy sources and motivational forces that underlie and fuel behavioral process. Dornyei and Otto's model go through three stages; the first stage is *Preactional* stage where choice motivation is being generated. The motivational influences at this stage are goal properties, attitude towards the second language, expectancy for success and learner's belief and strategies. In the *Actional* stage the generated motivation is maintained and protected (executive motivation) while the action lasts and it is relevant to second language learning. Motivational influences include sense of autonomy, classroom reward and goal structure, knowledge and use of strategies like goal setting and other motivating strategies. The third phase, *Postactional* stage, concerns the retrospective evaluation of how things went (motivation retrospection). The way past experiences are processed will determine the

34

kind of activities that will pursued in the future. Attributional factors like style and biases as well as self concept beliefs and feedback/grades play and influencing factor in a learner's motivation.

Motivation of second language learners in the classroom

Research regarding motivation among SLL can be grouped into two types. One, which is of primary importance to the study, is the motivation of students who are situated as SLL in a regular classroom, surrounded by English in school and the larger community. The second strand of research is the motivation that students need in order to learn a second language.

Research on the motivation of second language learners to learn Students with limited English proficiency could lack implicit knowledge about what it is like to learn in English only classrooms, yet must become part of the classroom in order to learn to read, write, and compute. Part of the consequence could be frustration; how students harness their motivation to cope with frustration becomes part of the blueprint of success. Many students work hard and take schooling as a serious endeavor, but experience anxiety because challenges faced in a regular classroom can serve as barriers rather than ladders to accomplishment. Student motivation along with readiness and engagement can lead to achievement and success (McCaslin, 2003, 2006; Rubinstein-Avila, 2006**).**

Ivey and Broaddus (2007) studied how to facilitate learning among second language learners in middle school. Social practices of the students' present and future lives had major implications for engagement. For some students, this meant an emphasis on popular singers and musicians and writing rap songs, and for others it meant reading and writing about popular sports celebrities. For other students who were highly motivated to read and write in English, their purpose was primarily to develop the skill to

do so. In a quantitative analysis, Rubinstein-Avila (2004, 2007) interviewed and analyzed the responses of learners with Limited English Proficiency. Analysis revealed that a quiet demeanor in class could be seen as disinterest in learning English. However, such quiet students may be motivated and eager to develop English competencies but felt anxiety and feared being teased by peers. Also, shifts between feelings of competence in a known environment and confusion towards the complex demands in the new environment could lead to frustration among SLL students. Acquiring strategies from supportive teachers provided confidence and motivation in these students. Students possessed awareness and motivation to develop skills and despite their feelings of lack of competence, valued independent skills, and had specific criteria and motivations to develop the required skills.

Researchers studied the motivational dynamics in elementary schools with larger concentrations of English language learners and a higher number of students in poverty. McCaslin (2008) noted that students' understanding of reading was strongly correlated with their understanding of school. Student perceptions of social supports (teacher and peers) likely were core to students' disposition toward school and motivation to learn. McCaslin and Burross's (2008) analyses revealed that interpersonal validation is more central to students' implicit dispositions toward school than are reading and math areas. Central motivational process for the students resided in a need for participation and validation. Interpersonal validation was basic to these students' achievement and affiliation motivation. Results also suggested that differences in students' understanding of, and dispositions toward, school tend to influence their motivation to learn. Wiley, Good, & McCaslin (2008) in looking at the achievement effects posited that students were actively and productively engaged in assigned tasks in classrooms in which teachers were pleasant and supportive.

Influence and impact of motivation on learning a second language Motivation is

important in second language learning. According to Dornyei (2005)
motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate second or foreign
language learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often
tedious learning process. Without sufficient motivation, individuals with
the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long term goals.
Similarly, appropriate curricula and good teaching are not enough on their
own to ensure student achievement—students also need to have a
modicum of motivation (p.65).

Gardner et al (2004) noted that successful students maintained their attitudes and

motivation towards learning a second language. However, unsuccessful students started

with low motivation and high anxiety, and as the year progressed they showed deficits in

all motivational indices (intensity, desire to learn and attitudes toward learning). A

longitudinal study by Lamb (2007) showed that motivated learners had developed more

specific goals over the course of studying English as a foreign language. As the learners

spent more time in classrooms, the process of learning assumed greater weight in their

motivational thinking.

Williams and Burden's (1999) small scale qualitative research revealed that

younger and older language learners invoked different attributions to account for success.

Younger students emphasized listening and concentrating as reasons for success along

with interest and enjoyment. Among older students, effort was the most significant reason

attributed for success and task difficulty and distraction was seen as reasons for failure. In

understanding how adolescents perceived foreign language learning Graham (2004)

found that younger students saw ability and, to a slight degree, effort as the most

important factor for success and low ability as reason for failure. This maladaptive

attribution can adversely affect motivation to persevere in the face of difficulty.

Hseih and Schallert (2008) looked at undergraduates' motivation in a foreign

language course by connecting two constructs: self-efficacy and attribution. Results

indicated that students who believed themselves to be unsuccessful due to lack of effort reported having higher self-efficacy than those who did not endorse an effort attribution. Self-efficacy can be sustained at a high level even for unsuccessful students when failure is attributed to internal, controllable, and unstable factors. Lamb (2004) noted that changes in individuals' motivation to learn the language may be partly explained by the ongoing processes of identification, especially during adolescence. Learners may aspire towards a 'bicultural' identity which incorporates an English-speaking version of themselves in addition to their local language speaking self.

IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION FOR STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITY IN SCHOOLS

The passing of U.S public law 94-142, which stated that students with any form of learning disability, should be educated in the least restrictive environment, led to concepts of inclusion, integration, and mainstreaming of students with disabilities into general education settings. Since then, schools and teachers have faced the task of making sure that their students, including students with learning disabilities, meet stringent academic standards. Being part of a general classroom milieu requires students with learning disability to be motivated and achieving learners (Sideridis, 2009) For the purpose of this chapter, I am focusing on students with learning disabilities who have difficulty with academic skills despite having average to above average cognitive capabilities. My goal, in this section, is to review the literature with regard to motivation and learning disabilities across various motivational theoretical constructs.

The reauthorization of *Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA)* in 2004 established the following criteria for determining the existence of a specific learning disability. The child has not achieved adequately for the child's age or meet State-approved, grade-level standards when provided with learning experiences and instruction

appropriate for the child's age for State-approved grade–level standards in one or more of the following areas: Oral expression, listening comprehension, written expression, basic reading skills, reading fluency skills, reading comprehension, mathematics calculation, mathematics problem solving. The restrictions include that findings not be primarily the result of a visual, hearing, or motor disability, mental retardation, emotional disturbance, cultural factors, environmental or economic disadvantage, or limited English proficiency (IDEA, 2004)**.**

Researchers have documented the importance of motivation and how it predicts achievement in students with and without learning disability. Sideridis, Morgan, Botsas, Padeliadu, and Fuchs (2006) examined how strongly motivation acted as a predictor of learning disabilities for students in grades 4 to 6. Results showed that motivation was a strong predictor of learning disability and among the variables; self efficacy was a strong predictor of learning disability or at-risk status for learning disability.

Studies of *locus of control* among students with learning disability and their causal attributions have reported consistent findings. For example, Tabassam and Granger (2002) reported that students with learning disability and combined learning disability\attention deficit hyperactivity disorder showed significantly lower positive and higher negative attributional styles when compared to typically achieving peers for academic success and failures. In their meta-analytic study, Mamlin, Harris and Case (2001) reviewed 22 studies (1980-1996) and concluded that in all but four studies, students with LD were characterized as having more external locus of control. However variations within the group was noticed but not investigated.

Nunez et al. (2005) investigated between group and within group variations and saw significant differences in attributional patterns between students with and without learning disabilities and within group variations for both success and failure. Students

without LD attributed their academic successes significantly more to internal factors such as ability or their own effort, and their failures significantly less to lack of ability or to lack of effort than did their classmates with LD. Among the students with LD, there were two groups of students with different attributional profiles. One attributed their success chiefly to external causes and their failures chiefly to internal causes. The other attributed their success chiefly to internal causes (ability and effort) and their failure to external causes. Ring and Reetz (2002) reported that some students with learning disability attributed their high grades to internal causes like effort, ability, or interest, and some chose external attributions like task difficulty, teacher liking the student, and luck. Findings indicated that a combination of factors contributed to their success. Hall, Spruill and Webster (2002) also, in their results, reported that college students with learning disability did not differ in their locus of control from the non learning disabled peers. Both groups evaluated situations from a realistic perspective while understanding that they had more control in some and less in the others.

In studying *intrinsic motivation* among students with and without learning disability, Wiest, Wang, Cervantes, Craik, & Kriel(2001) compared intrinsic motivation among regular, special, and alternative education high school students. Regular education students' academic success was associated with intrinsically motivating variables such as higher self perception of academic competence than students in special education (learning disability students). Global competence was the same among the three groups. Students with chronic difficulties assessed themselves as having low academic competence but had a good sense of self-esteem. In a qualitative study by Trainor (2007), interview data demonstrated that adolescent girls with LD who were from low SES backgrounds perceived themselves as self-determining even though their practice of effective self-determination was inhibited by underdeveloped attitudes, skills, and self -

knowledge. Zisimopoulos and Galanaki (2009) posited that Greek students with LD differed when compared to their typically achieving peers regarding intrinsic motivation and perceived academic competence. Absence of difference between students with and without LD as to the curiosity/interest subscale were interpreted indicating that while students with LD face enormous academic difficulties during their school life, they still maintain their curiosity and interest in classroom learning.

Regarding *self-efficacy and self-concept*, studies have shown that students with learning disability tend to overestimate their abilities. Klassen (2002) conducted a meta analysis to analyze the calibration between perceived self-efficacy and task outcome. Results from this review suggested that in some cases (8 out of 22), students with learning disability tend to overestimate their self efficacy for criterion task. However this overestimation of their capabilities is not consistent in all subjects, (e.g., more accurate estimation in math). Stone and May (2002) in looking at accuracy of academic self-evaluation among adolescents indicated that students with learning disability have a positive perception of their academic skills, while performing significantly below students without learning disability. Students with learning disability are susceptible to overestimating their performance.

Researchers have attempted to modify self-perceptions of students with learning disability. Meltzer, Katzir, Miller, Reddy,& Roditi (2004) studied changes in students' perceptions of effort, strategy use, and academic difficulties when strategy instruction was infused into the classroom curriculum. They confirmed that students with learning disabilities often have inflated views of their performance, and they show greater overestimation than do their peers. In this study, students who perceived themselves as struggling in the academic domains of reading, writing, and spelling reported less effort and less consistent use of strategies with their schoolwork. However, their self-ratings of

their effort and strategy use were higher than the ratings of their teachers. After six months of classroom-based strategy instruction, students with learning disabilities reported more consistent use of strategies with their schoolwork and perceived themselves as struggling less in reading, writing, and spelling. Garcia and deCaso (2006) aimed at verifying whether a specific program on writing self-efficacy could improve not only productivity and quality but also the writing self-efficacy beliefs and other motivational constructs. There was, for students with LD, significant impact of self-efficacy training in the written product (structure and coherence) and improvement of the writing process (growth in thinking, writing, and checking tasks). Training had only a moderate influence on the self-efficacy beliefs of students with LD.

In researching *goal orientations* in students with learning disability, studies have endorsed a combination of goals. Barron and Harackiewicz (2001) debated which types of achievement goals promote optimal motivation. Results indicated that when goals were self set, mastery goals were a predictor of interest, and performance goals a predictor of achievement. Both types of achievement goals can be advantageous, and results supported a multiple goal perspective. Participants who adopted both types of goals were more likely to become interested *and* perform well in the learning session. When participants were assigned to a group, mastery goals promoted the highest levels of interest in the math activity for low achievement motivation students, and performance goal promoted the highest levels of interest in high achievement motivated students. A combination of mastery and performance goals was best for students who did not fall in the category of either high or low achievers.

Sideridis (2005) conducted two studies to evaluate the contribution of goal orientation from a planned theory perspective. For both groups (students with and without LD), intentions were a function of performance-approach and mastery

orientations, although the effects were stronger for the LD group. However, as to the effects on math achievement, the effects of both mastery and performance-approach orientations were much stronger for the students with LD, suggesting that motivation may play a more .prominent role for them. Baird, Scott, Dearing and Hamill (2007) examined whether youth with learning disabilities reported more maladaptive self-regulatory characteristics and what influence such characteristics would have on learning, motivation, and performance. Results showed that compared with students without LD, students with LD were more likely to prefer more performance goals, have low academic self-efficacy, and make more maladaptive effort attributions. Youth with LD had more performance-oriented goals relative to their peers, in large part, because they had lower levels of academic self-efficacy and more entity-based theories of intelligence (belief of fixed limited intelligence). Sideridis (2006) also explored goal oriented classroom environments and their effects on student motivation and achievement. A performance goal structure was associated with less positive affect and less engagement for students with LD. A mastery goal structure was associated with significant and positive effects on students' perceptions of being reinforced by their teachers for both groups (students with and without LD).

In second language learning, motivation construct has been studied from two different perspectives. One that emphasized the motivation needed to learn and acquire a second language, and the other that focused on the motivation of second language learners in regular classroom. In studying different learners, research on motivation has started to move away from a deficit perspective and is beginning to focus on characteristics that lead to success. Researchers and practitioners, both, need to comprehend the underlying assumptions about motivation and learning, among different learners, so that instructional practices can engage all learners in today's classroom. To

improve students' achievement, it is important to incorporate motivation theory perspectives into research at the classroom level analysis through the teachers' approaches. The next chapter will address the contribution of teacher beliefs and student motivation among different learners.

Chapter 4: Teacher Beliefs, Motivation, and Different Learners

Learning in the classroom encompasses various interactions between teachers and students. The interrelated network between teacher beliefs and motivation should be explored so that their interaction and mutual reciprocal influence can be recognized and taken into consideration. Teachers' and students' beliefs and motivation shape conceptions about what is necessary to perform well on academic tasks and form the basis for evaluation of self and others. Judgments about one's own capabilities to perform as well as how to guide the learning of others are formed through beliefs (Buehl, & Alexander, 2009).

In this chapter, I review the literature and trends in teacher beliefs among learners and different learners. I present the literature about how beliefs are co-constructed and related to motivation among students and review studies on changing teacher beliefs. I then propose a synthesized model encompassing student motivation, teacher beliefs, student effort, and achievement.

TEACHER BELIEFS

Beliefs are viewed as "psychologically held understandings, premises and propositions about the world that are felt to be true (Richardson, 1996, p.103). Teacher beliefs have been defined as "tacit, often unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms, and the academic material to be taught" (Kagan, 1992, p. 65). Acting as lenses through which teachers make instructional and curricular decisions, beliefs affect teachers' perceptions and judgments, and have an impact on their behavior in the classroom. Understanding the belief structures of teachers is important for improving teaching practices (Pajares, 1992). Beliefs about teaching and learning guide decisions made about the learning process and selection of content (Smith, 2005). These beliefs

also drive planning and decisions about teaching strategies, relationship with students, classroom practices, and assessment. A mismatch between teachers' beliefs and their actual behaviors in a classroom can lead to learners receiving confounding messages about learning (Hoy, Hoy, & Davis, 2009; Maxwell et al., 2001).

Pajares (1992) claimed that attitudes, values, perceptions, theories, and images are simply beliefs in disguise and that beliefs are developed through enculturation (including exposure to family and cultural influences), social interactions during one's formal education, and schooling that takes place outside the home. Pintrich (1990) argued that both "knowledge and beliefs . . . influence a wide variety of cognitive processes including memory, comprehension, deduction and induction, problem representation, and problem solution" (p. 836). In one of Horwitz's (1988) study of language learning beliefs, she suggested that because language teachers are often viewed as "experts" by their students, their views "could have a strong influence on the students' own beliefs" (p. 291). Such influence could result from a teacher's explicit expression of beliefs, or implicitly through a teacher's methods and choice of activities employed in the classroom.

The construct of *teacher beliefs* is in itself broad and encompassing. In reviewing the literature, Kagan (1992) summarized research as alluding to two forms of teacher beliefs, teachers' sense of self-efficacy and content-specific beliefs. Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977) refers to teachers' generalized expectancy concerning their ability to influence students, as well as the teachers' beliefs concerning their own ability to perform certain professional tasks. Teachers' sense of self-efficacy has been positively related to a number of specific classroom behaviors, including the tendency to use praise rather than criticism; to persevere with low achievers, to be task oriented, enthusiastic, accepting of student opinion, and to raise student's levels of achievement in reading and mathematics. Teachers who believe they can make a difference in students' performance appear to

accept responsibility for student failure as well as success. Content specific beliefs, on the other hand, include teachers' epistemological conceptions of the subject being taught as well as judgments about appropriate instructional activities, goals, forms of evaluation, and nature of student learning. Pajares (1996) posited that teacher beliefs in education include beliefs about confidence to affect students' performance (teacher efficacy), the nature of knowledge (epistemological beliefs), causes of teachers' or students' performance (attributions, locus of control, motivation, writing apprehension, math anxiety), perceptions of self and feelings of self-worth (self-concept, self-esteem), and about confidence to perform specific tasks (self-efficacy).

Davison (2004) noted that teachers' beliefs ranged from being bound by criteria and being procedural and text focused, to taking into account learning constructs, learner and the context. Yadav and Koehler (2007) found that preservice teachers who viewed knowledge as simplistic preferred practices in which they maintained control. When their belief was that knowledge is complex, teachers favored practices that involved discussions and integration of concepts. Butler's (2009) study found that there was substantial variability among the teachers in their judgments and attitudes, both in interpreting traits (confidence and motivation) and in their evaluations of students. Mansfield and Volet's (2010) analyses revealed that four key themes influence participants' development of understandings about classroom motivation. Participants' prior beliefs, alignment or conflict between beliefs and experiences, the significance of self-motivating factors, and the power of emotion influenced understanding of motivation. Initial beliefs of pre service teachers' learning either led to gradual enlightenment or alternatively impeded further development.

In the following section, I review studies addressing teacher beliefs and expectation, especially academic beliefs, and how they influence or relate to student motivation and outcomes like effort and achievement among different learners.

Teacher beliefs and relationship to motivation among second language learners

A review of the literature identified studies on teacher expectations and beliefs of SLL who are situated in mainstream English dominant classroom. However, because in the United States, a large number of Hispanic/Latino students are English language learners, it was important to review teacher beliefs and expectation towards minority children as well (Rubinstein-Avila, 2006).

Terrill and Mark (2000) noted that pre service teachers did hold significantly different expectations for learners from different racial and linguistic background. Teachers also expected fewer gifted and talented students, and lower levels of motivations in schools with children of color. Hassinger and Plourde (2005) explored external factors, such as support systems, that increased the chances of student success. The students' were more successful because the teachers believed in them and relayed their willingness to create a positive relationship. The teachers gave effective feedback and adequate use of praise as well. Edl, Jones, and Estel's (2008) study revealed that bilingual Latino students were consistently rated lower by teachers in academic and interpersonal competence. Saft and Pianta (2001) noted that children whose ethnicity matched their teacher's tended to be rated more positively. Child age, gender and ethnicity played a significant role in teachers' perceptions of their relationships with students. McKown and Weinstein's (2008) study showed that teacher ethnic bias was such that in classrooms characterized by high ethnic diversity, high differential teacher treatment towards high- and low-achievers were noted. In a case study by Marx (2008),

responses by teachers showed a negative assessment of Latino achievement and the belief system that Latino should blend in with the dominant culture by discarding their culture. Ethnic minority children in American schools experience alienation and social rejection from teachers and peers that can impact their interest in learning and willingness to engage in academic activities negatively (Okagaki, 1996). Valenzuela (1999) in an ethnographic study of immigrant and linguistic minority students also confirmed that lack of respect and understanding from teachers can lead to feelings of alienation and isolation. Katz (1999) in an ethnographic research found that Latino high school students cited teacher discrimination against Latinos as the number one cause for their disengagement from school. In a review of studies, Callahan (2005) noted that, in classes with SLL, there was a low academic expectation from teachers and consequently low academic content was produced by students. Overall low academic performance of minority and linguistic minority students resulted in less than optimal learning environments and poor teacher-student relationships. Callahan, in her study, stated that the level of academic performance teachers expected was a better predictor of students' grade than language proficiency.

Bell (2005) studied teacher perceptions concerning teaching behaviors and attitudes that contribute to effective second language teaching and learning. There was consensus among teachers regarding small group work and negotiation of meaning. However, there were disagreements regarding effects of learning differences and how to accommodate learning needs.

Teacher beliefs and relationship to motivation among students with Learning Disability

Most of the existing literature about teachers' beliefs and student population are correlational. However, researchers are now moving towards empirical studies addressing

how teacher beliefs influence or relate to student motivation and outcomes, like effort and achievement, among students with LD.

Wood and Benton (2003) looked at teachers' attributions for learner difficulties in their schoolwork. Two mainstream teacher groups were found to use significantly lower controllability attributions for learners with low ability (with identified needs) than those with high ability. Clark and Artiles (2000) found that effort and ability of students with and without learning difficulty results in different attributional responses from teachers. Effort strongly influenced anger, pity, and evaluative feedback of teachers, and learning disability played a role in shaping teacher's response. Studies have also suggested that teachers expect students with learning difficulties to perform poorly in class, and believe this to be largely uncontrollable (Clark, & Artiles, 2000; Wood, & Benton, 2003).

Jordon, Glen, and McGhie-Richmond (2010) reviewed several studies to see if teachers were effective in including students with disabilities and those at risk in the activities of their general education classrooms. Teachers who believed that disability is an internal, fixed trait, and is not amenable to instruction tended to place the blame on the students themselves and/or on their families for inability to progress. Consequently, these teachers spent little time and effort working with their included students with disabilities and those who are at risk of academic failure, compared to the rest of the students in their classes. On the other hand, teachers who saw their responsibility as creating access to learning, by reducing barriers through accommodations, worked longer and at greater levels of intensity with their students with learning difficulties. Data did suggest that there is a link between how teachers interact with their students, both with and without disabilities and their beliefs about ability and disability and about their roles in fostering learning. Wood and Benton (2001) looked at teachers' attributions for learner difficulties in their schoolwork. Two mainstream teacher groups were found to use

significantly lower controllability attributions for learners with low ability (with identified needs) than those with high ability. Meltzer, Katzir-Cohen, Miller, and Roditi, (2001) posited that academic success overrode the negative perception that teachers had about students with learning disability. When students saw the link between use of strategies and academic success, their self esteem and their willingness to continue using strategies and work hard increased. Hard work and efficient use of strategies resulted in academic success and an increase in motivation.

Changing teacher beliefs

Research has shown that teachers' beliefs and knowledge can be changed through instruction and intervention. Qualitative analysis by Tanase and Wang (2010) revealed that pre-service teachers' epistemological beliefs about knowledge could impact their teaching. The transformation of their beliefs could further lead to a change in their teaching ideas and practice, and such conceptual change was possible during short-term intervention. Malmberg and Haggar (2009) investigated changes in student teachers' agency beliefs during a one year teacher education course, and related these to observed classroom quality. Results showed that supportive beliefs (quality of the teacher's involvement and interpersonal relationship with pupils) were high and stable across time. Instructional agency beliefs (ways in which teachers organize and structure the teaching–learning environment to be conducive to learning) increased over time. Levin and Nevo's (2009) study showed that after being involved in a long term curriculum project (3 years) teachers' educational beliefs changed substantially to demonstrate multiple views rather than simple beliefs. Buehl and Fives (2009) explored teachers' beliefs and change, reporting that some individuals viewed knowledge as more static or stable, whereas others viewed teaching knowledge as changing and evolving.

CONCEPTUAL SYNTHESIS

Based on empirical studies and reviews of the literature on motivation and teacher beliefs among learners and different learners, I have constructed a general organizational model. In my synthesized model, the primary objective is to examine the influence of teacher beliefs and student motivation on learning process and performance outcomes. The process of learning is seen as taking place in an interpersonal context between students and teacher. In this transactional process, both students and teachers are continuously learning about the content and how to understand one another. This personalization of the learning environment helps students be dynamic participants who engage more deeply by being motivated and building on their connections to their teachers (Felner, Seitsinger, Brand, Burns, & Bolton, 2007). Creation of a more personalized interpersonal context can "unlock student energy and motivation" and can give students "a sense of growth, of personal agency, of competence, of being someone whose individuality is recognized and fertilized" (Gtazek & Sarason, 2007, p. 14–15).

My synthesized model situates academic learning in the classroom and teachers' beliefs about knowledge, and learning are depicted as influencing student motivation. Student motivation in turn affects learning process and outcome. The circular arrows depict continuous and reciprocal relations between teacher beliefs and motivation. The role of outside forces in the classroom is also recognized, and includes teacher's education, prior experience, current attitude to learning and knowledge about different learners. Organizational resources and constraints also impact their beliefs. Similarly student motivation could be impacted by experiences outside of school (Buehl,& Alexander, 2009; Meltzer et. al,2004). Based on the synthesis the following are some of the research questions that would advance the field.

1. How do teachers' academic beliefs and judgments affect their students' motivation and consequently their learning process, and academic performance?

2. Does training teachers to assign appropriate instructional activities, goals, forms of evaluation and nature of student learning, in order to understand student motivation, change their perception and consequently change student motivation and outcome.

3. Does classroom teacher training help motivate students to become strategic/effortful learners and to maintain the need to succeed despite their learning differences?

4. Are there any changes in students' perceptions of their effort with schoolwork based on changes in teacher beliefs?

5. Do changes in students' perception lead to changes in teachers' beliefs?

More research and methodologies are needed to study the interconnection between student and teacher characteristics, learning process, and academic performance so as to orient classrooms towards a integrative and inclusive system, where all students attain academic success. Research should be kept simple but sophisticated based on current studies and proven theories so teachers can use the knowledge and develop to be responsive to needs of different learners. Implications for teaching will be addressed in the next chapter.

Figure 1: Synthesis model of influence of teacher beliefs and student motivation on learning process and performance
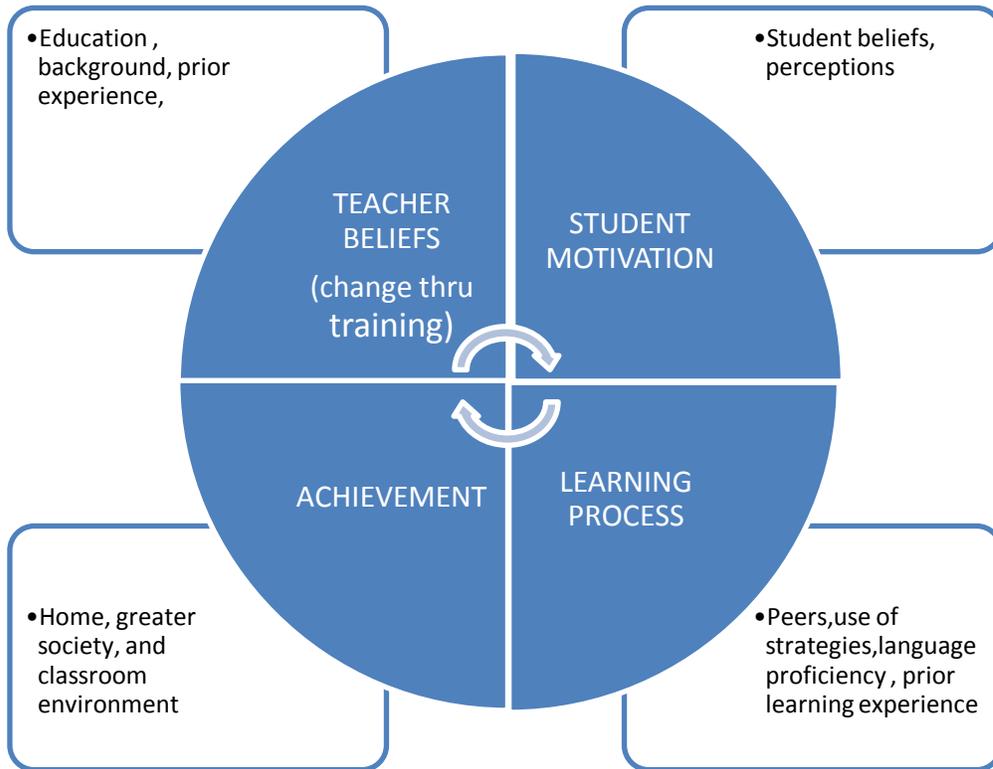
Chapter 5: Conclusion

Pioneers of research in motivation have laid a strong foundation of theories and constructs that can be applied to educational training and instruction. The theories have influenced both the field of second/foreign language learning as well as that of students with learning disability (Dornyei, 2001, 2003; Noels, 2003; Sideridis, 2009; Wentzel, & Wigfield, 2009). Among various motivational constructs, researchers have focused on beliefs, goals, and attributions as some of the important motivational underpinnings involved in learning. Researchers have continued to elucidate the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to report that when students' motivation is more intrinsic, they engage more deeply in learning activities (Ryan, & Deci, 2000, 2009) Attributions for success and failure, or students' understanding of why certain achievement outcomes happen, is seen as a major motivational factor in education (Weiner, 1985, 2010). When students attribute their success to their ability and effort, they remain more positively motivated. Beliefs also include students' self-efficacy, or their belief in their ability to accomplish different tasks (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Schunk & Pajares, 2009). Efficacious students undertake more academic challenges, persevere longer when problems arise, and believe they will succeed in the future. Researchers have also identified the factors to which students attribute successes and failures and how these result in different levels of motivation (Weiner, 1985; Schunk, Pintrich, & Meese, 2008). These include academically oriented goals to master material and to demonstrate one's competence by performing well (Pintrich, 2000; Wentzel, & Wigfield, 2007b).

Pioneers among second language learning researchers, Gardner and Lambert (1972, 2001) emphasized key points about motivation in a second language classroom. In their integrative view, motivation is a complex of attitudinal, goal directed, and

55

motivational variables. The concept of integrative motivation assumes that second language learning refers to the development of near native like language skills, and this takes time, effort, and persistence. Such level of language development may require identification with the second language community. The process model presented by Dornyei and Otto (1998) organizes motivational influences on second language learning along a series of separate events within the state of initiating and enacting motivated behavior. One of the two main dimensions of this process model is *Action Sequence,* with three phases concerned with the process of choosing a course of action, energizing the action, and being involved in critical retrospection. The second dimension is represented by *Motivational Influences*, which includes energy sources and motivational forces that underlie and fuel the behavioral process.

Many researchers have investigated motivation in second language learners and students with learning disability using many different measures (Gardner, 2001; Meltzer et al. 2001, 2004;, Pintrich, 2000; Sideridis et al., 2006; Weiner, 1985). In most studies they have found significant correlations between motivation and other indexes of learning (Graham, 2004; Lamb, 2007; Nunez et al. 2005; Tabassam & Granger, 2002; Wiest, Wang, Cervantes, Craik, & Kreil, 2001; Williams & Burden, 1999). Interpersonal validation, social practices, and perceptions of social supports (teacher and peers) are also seen as being core to students' disposition toward school and motivation (Ivey & Broaddus, 2007; McCaslin, 2008; McCaslin & Burross, 2008). However, critics have claimed that most researchers have paid too little attention to the importance of the teacher in the learning process and to the contributions of the teacher in the classroom (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008).

There has been an inundation of research on how teachers can influence students in both positive and negative ways. A review of literature shows that there is an essential

link between teacher beliefs and academic behavior (Buehl & Alexander, 2009). Teacher practices in the classroom influence how students experience a given academic domain. Studies have shown that many teachers expect students with difficulties to perform poorly in class, and believe this to be largely uncontrollable. On the other hand, teachers who see their responsibility as creating access to learning, by reducing barriers through accommodations, work longer and at greater levels of intensity with their students with difficulties. Teachers' beliefs regarding ability, their expectations and their own efficacy to teach affects teaching practices used, which, in turn, creates a climate that focuses children on being motivated or not (Clark, & Artiles, 2000; Hassinger & Plourde, 2005; Jordon, Glen, McGhie-Richmond ,2010**)**. Because teachers' beliefs play a significant role in shaping their instructional methods and what students learn, it is important to examine their characteristics and content. Pajares (1992) noted that teachers have been forming beliefs about teaching and learning for years, largely based on their experiences as students and filtering new information through their beliefs and maintain *status quo*. Research has examined teachers' ability to change their beliefs and have noted that change in practices does lead to change in beliefs (Malmberg & Haggar, 2009; Levin & Nevo, 2009; Tanase, & Wang, 2009)

Between 1979 and 2008, the number of school-age children (children ages 5–17) who spoke a language other than English at home increased from 3.8 to 10.9 million. At the present time 95% of children diagnosed with Learning Disability were enrolled in regular classes and spent most of their school day (more than 80 percent) in general classes (Aud et al., 2010). Over the past several years since the passing of the No Child Left Behind legislation, there has been an increasing focus on assessing children's achievement in school and finding ways to improve it. Various national reports, such as the report of the National Reading Panel (2000), have provided information about

programs and activities that are effective in improving children's achievement in areas such as reading. The persistent achievement gaps between "general" learners and different learners , especially second language learners who are from minority groups and students with learning disability, has been in the forefront of the national debate concerning best educational practices (Wentzel & Wigfield, 2007)

Most research among different learners involving motivation and teacher beliefs are descriptive and correlational. There now is a rich body of work on the nature of motivation that provides the field with a much clearer understanding of critical motivation-related constructs. By contrast, regarding teacher beliefs, Weinstein (2002) stated that "our system of education is largely built upon beliefs and practices on the negative side, about differences and limits in ability. Our expectations of ability are too low, too narrowly construed and too differentiated by factors that are irrelevant to the potential to learn" (p.1). Research on teacher beliefs, as a whole and among different learners, focused directly on outcome variables such as attitude towards students and achievement (Buehl & Alexander, 2009). We need to develop more comprehensive dynamic research to understand how beliefs evolve with respect to the classroom environment, how it can be modified, and how it influences and changes student motivation. We need specific interventions resulting from research regarding the classroom environment and student achievement (Turner, Christenson, & Meyer, 2009). A major challenge of future studies is to evaluate how to close the gap between different learners (second language learners and students with Learning Disabilities) and their peers to ensure that these different learners are able to attain academic success while maintaining positive academic motivation. There is a great need to inform practice by testing theories as a whole and even integrating them to enrich our understanding of

functional relationships between student, teacher, classroom environment, and achievement (Meltzer et. al, 2004).

Current endeavors in applied research have demonstrated the role of motivational concepts in improving students' participation in learning activities, their academic performance, and competencies. The focus of policy makers is in identifying effective strategies to improve performance in educational settings through school-based research. Research on motivation at school and teacher beliefs has much to offer to stakeholders who formulate educational policy, develop school-based interventions, and teach children on a daily basis. Pioneers of basic research and theories of motivation have begun a rich tradition that can be applied to educational training and instructions and laying a strong foundation for subsequent effort (Wentzel & Wigfield 2007).

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

Research-based knowledge on motivation and beliefs can lead to a number of individual child-based, classroom-based, and school based interventions. They also focus on enhancing student motivation as a way to boost their academic functioning in school. Dornyei (2001b) described motivation practices in the classroom, especially with second language learners, as following four different phases. The first phase is creating basic motivational conditions, the next phase generating initial motivation, the third phase is maintaining and protecting motivation and the last phase is encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. Teachers need to start with *creating* basic motivational conditions that involve a pleasant and supportive atmosphere and cohesive group appropriate norms. Dornyei and Cizer (1981) reported that participants considered their teacher's behavior as being an important motivation tool. Teacher expectation is part of

what drives teacher behavior in the classroom. Teachers should care about student progress and have sufficiently high expectations for what student can achieve.

Practices focused on enhancing students' expectations and faith about their competence is based in self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986). Students should be challenged and motivated, and the task should be set at a level of difficulty where it can be mastered with effort. Their sense of efficacy should be increased by providing them opportunities to be successful in completing achievement activities. Teacher should provide students extra help when needed, a strategy known to increase self-efficacy and a sense of mastery, and gives students opportunities to engage actively in different kinds of learning activities. However, teachers working with students with LD need to be sensitive to their self-consciousness about the provision of support in academic classrooms. The differences in teacher and student perceptions and understandings of self-efficacy may result in teachers' providing interventions that are not valued by students, and possibly even counterproductive to their academic performance. Students preferred asking for help that was discreetly provided—and offered to the whole class rather than only to the students with LD (Klassen, & Lynch, 2007). Students with LD tend to overestimate their skills and have optimistic efficacy beliefs (Buehl & Alexander, 2009; Klassen, 2002; Meltzer et al., 2004; Nunez et al. 2005; Stone & May2002). Attempting to lower overestimation of skills and efficacy is discouraged but promoting academic self-awareness can result in a realistic self-appraisal. Students with a goal and sense of efficacy are apt to engage in activities, attend to instruction, expend effort and persist. Teachers should set clear goals that are challenging and difficult but not too far beyond students' skill level (Klassen, 2002; Pajares, 1996; Schunk, Pintrich, &Meese 2008).

In *generating* initial motivation, teachers should enhance the learners' second language related values and attitude, their expectancy for success, goal orientedness, and creating realistic learner beliefs. Looking at purpose or reason for engaging in achievement behaviors is based in goal orientation theory (Pintrich, 2003b). Students tend to adopt goal orientations that match those of the classroom. Research has agreed that mixed goals orientation (mastery/performance) and mastery goal orientations are related to motivational and cognitive outcomes (Ames, 1988; Barron, & Harackiewicz, 2001; Elliot, & Murayama, 2008; Schunk et. al., 2008; Sideridis, 2006). It is important to focus on meaningful aspects of learning activities and design tasks for novelty, variety, diversity, and interest. Students should have some choice and control over their activities and should be challenged in terms of their capabilities. Creating environments by enhancing motivation and positive affect empowers students with LD to achieve positive academic outcomes (Siderides, 2006).

In the third phase, teachers should be *maintaining* the student motivation. They should be setting learner goals, helping student protect their self-esteem, allowing learners to have a positive image, creating autonomy in students and promoting strategies. Self-determination theorists' (Ryan, & Deci, 2000, 2009) view students has having the basic need to fulfill autonomy*, competence* and *relatedness*. Giving students a choice of tasks and activities helps them become autonomous learners who take control of their own learning. Encouraging students to satisfy their interests and curiosity and attempt mastering tasks independently rather than please the teacher helps in increasing mastery motivation in the classroom. Students, especially different learners, need enough guidance, strategy instruction, repetition, and practice to develop confidence that they are able to manage their own learning. Teachers can help guide students to process cognitively the self-efficacy sources by emphasizing students' successes, highlighting

61

examples of competent self-regulated practices, and offering encouragement (Klassen, 2010).

Teachers need to be *encouraging* and promoting motivational attributions, provide feedback, increase satisfaction, and offer grades in a motivating manner. Attribution theory (Weiner, 1985) explains individuals' causal reasoning, especially when elucidating achievement outcomes. Teacher feedback is crucial in influencing students' attributions. Students' perception of events is very important in a classroom, and a teacher should endeavor to give accurate feedback so as to help them make accurate attributions to their own behavior. Teachers' feedback during failure situations is very important because this is when the students need to be encouraged to make attributions of their failure to low effort. It will be more productive to point to skill or knowledge gaps and then teach those skills and knowledge, while communicating the expectancy that the material can be learned. Providing feedback dependent on performance provides efficacy information to the student and encouragement in pursuing goals. Teachers should make it clear that students are capable of learning the material taught. Teaching students learning strategies, tailoring content to individual differences in learning, and asking students to demonstrate their skills helps enhance self-efficacy and build motivation.   There can be a negative impact on academic motivation and achievement by encouraging academic competition and norm-referenced evaluations of achievement, resulting in social comparison among students. Such practices tend to result in students adopting orientations toward learning that focus on performance rather than mastery of subject matter and in lowered levels of academic efficacy and aspirations for achievement, especially among different/low-ability students (Butler, 2005; Dornyei, 2001; Schunk, Pintrich, & Meese 2008;Wentzel,& Wigfield, 2007b).

62

Synthesizing across various motivation approaches, Urdan and Turner (2005) developed the following list of suggested classroom practices:

1. Develop and assign appropriately challenging tasks and materials

2. Promote perceptions of control and autonomy by allowing students to make choices about classroom experience and the work in which they engage. Also encourage students to view intelligence, learning, and performance as personally controllable by attributing performance to controllable factors such as effort and strategy use.

3. Encourage students to focus on mastery skill development, and the process of learning rather than just focusing on outcomes such as test scores and relative performance.

4. Help students develop and pursue proximal, challenging and achieving goals.

5. Infuse the curriculum with fantasy, novelty, variety, and humor.

6. Provide accurate informational feedback focused on strategy use and competence feedback rather than comparative and evaluative feedback.

7. Assess students' confidence, attributional tendencies, and skill levels to help meet their preferences for challenge and to help students approach tasks with realistic expectations and cope with difficulties adaptively.

Recent developments in the areas of educational policy and accountability have increased the importance that researchers and schools pay to student motivation and teachers' beliefs. The study of motivation in schools continues to be vibrant; however, study on teacher beliefs and their effect on motivation is still an evolving area. To understand better how motivation can flourish in the classroom, we need to expand both our focus and methods, and to understand the reciprocal relationships between students

and teachers and context. Research needs to be conducted on teachers and students and their teaching and learning behavior in the classroom in order to allow us to discover what works and learn how it works (Urdan, & Turner, 2005; Wentzel, & Wigfield, 2009).

"The only disability in life is a bad attitude" – Scott Hamilton

References

Ames, C., & Archer, J. (1988). Achievement Goals in the Classroom - Students Learning-Strategies And Motivation Processes. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 80*(3), 260-267.

Aud, S., Hussar, W., Planty, M., Snyder, T., Bianco, K., Fox, M., Frohlich, L., Kemp, J., Drake, L. (2010). *The Condition of Education 2010*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved, October 10, 2010, from http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.

Baird, G. L., Scott, W. D., Dearing, E., & Hamill, S. K. (2009). Cognitive Self-Regulation in Youth with and without Learning Disabilities: Academic Self-Efficacy, Theories of Intelligence, Learning Vs. Performance Goal Preferences, and Effort Attributions. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 28*(7), 881-908.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. The Prentice-Hall series in Social Learning Theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84,* 2, 191-215.

Barron, K. E., & Harackiewicz, J. M. (2001). Achievement goals and optimal motivation: Testing multiple goal models. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 80*(5), 706-722.

Bell, T. R. (2005). Behaviors and attitudes of effective foreign language teachers: Results of a questionnaire study. *Foreign Language Annals, 38*(2), 259-270.

Bernaus, M., & Gardner, R. C. (2008). Teacher motivation strategies, student perceptions, student motivation, and English achievement. *Modern Language Journal, 92*(3), 387-401.

Boekaerts.M (2009). Goal-Directed Behavior in the Classroom. In Wentzel .K & Wigfield. A.(Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation at School* (pp.105 - 122). New York, NY: Taylor and Francis

Boyer, W. (2006). Accentuate the Positive: The Relationship between Positive Explanatory Style and Academic Achievement of Prospective Elementary Teachers. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education, 21*(1), 53.

Brophy, J. E., & Rohrkemper, M. M. (1981). The Influence Of Problem Ownership On Teachers Perceptions Of And Strategies For Coping With Problem Students. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 73*(3), 295-311.

Brown, C. S. (2006). Bias at school: Perceptions of racial/ethnic discrimination among Latino and European American children. *Cognitive Development, 21,* 4, 401.

Buehl, M. M., & Fives, H. (2009). Exploring Teachers' Beliefs About Teaching Knowledge: Where Does It Come From? Does It Change? *Journal of Experimental Education, 77*(4), 367-407.

Buehl. M.M, & Alexander.P.A (2009). Beliefs about Learning in academic domain. In Wentzel .K & Wigfield. A.(Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation at School* (pp.479 - 502). New York, NY: Taylor and Francis

Burton, K. D., Lydon, J. E., D'Alessandro, D. U., & Koestner, R. (2006). The differential effects of intrinsic and identified motivation on well-being and performance: Prospective, experimental, and implicit approaches to self-determination theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 91*(4), 750-762.

Butler, R. (2005). Competence assessment, competence, and motivation between early and middle childhood. In A. J. Elliott & C. S. Dweck (Eds.), *Handbook of competence and motivation* (pp. 202–221). New York: Guilford.

Butler, Y. G. (2009). How Do Teachers Observe and Evaluate Elementary School Students' Foreign Language Performance? A Case Study from South Korea. *Tesol Quarterly, 43*(3), 417-444.

Callahan, R. M. (2005). Tracking and high school English learners: Limiting opportunity to learn. *American Educational Research Journal, 42*(2), 305-328.

Caprara, G. V., Pastorelli, C., & Weiner, B. (1997). Linkages between causal ascriptions, emotion, and behaviour. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 20*(1), 153-162.

Chamorro-Premuzic, T., Harlaar, N., Greven, C. U., & Plomin, R. (2010). More than Just IQ: A Longitudinal Examination of Self-Perceived Abilities as Predictors of Academic Performance in a Large Sample of UK Twins. *Intelligence, 38,* 4, 385-392.

Ciani, K. D., Middleton, M. J., Summers, J. J., & Sheldon, K. M. (2010). Buffering against performance classroom goal structures: The importance of autonomy support and classroom community. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 35*(1), 88-99.

Clark, M., & Artiles, A. (2000). A Cross-National Study of Teachers' Attributional Patterns. *Journal of Special Education*, *34*(2), 77-89.

Cortes-Suarez, G., & Sandiford, J. (2008). Causal Attributions for Success or Failure of Students in College Algebra. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice, 32(4-6)*, 325-346

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1999). If We Are So Rich, Why Aren't We Happy? - Why are people in the wealthy countries becoming increasingly addicted to drugs for

falling asleep, for waking up, for staying slim, for escaping boredom and depression?. Is there an antidote?. *The American Psychologist, 54,* 10, 821- 827.

Daniels, L., Haynes, T., Stupnisky, R., Perry, R., Newall, N., & Pekrun, R. (2008). Individual Differences in Achievement Goals: A Longitudinal Study of Cognitive, Emotional, and Achievement Outcomes. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *33*(4), 584-608.

Davison, C. (2004). The Contradictory Culture of Teacher-Based Assessment: ESL Teacher Assessment Practices in Australian and Hong Kong Secondary Schools. *Language Testing, 21*(3), 305-334

Deci, E. L., Schwartz, A. J., Sheinman, L., & Ryan, R. M. (1981). An Instrument to Assess Adults Orientations Toward Control Versus Autonomy with Children - Reflections on Intrinsic Motivation and Perceived Competence. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 73*(5), 642-650.

Dornyei, Z. (2001). New Themes and Approaches in Second Language Motivation Research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *21*43-59.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001b). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom.* Cambridge ; New York : Cambridge University Press

Dornyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research, and applications. *Language Learning, 53*, 3-32.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner.* Mahwah, N.J. : L. Erlbaum

Dornyei, Z., & and Otto.I. (1998). Motivation in Action:.A Process model of L2 motivation*, Working Papers in Applied Linguistics,* Thames Valley University, London, Vol. 4, pp. 43-69

Dornyei, Z., & Csizer, K. (2002). Some dynamics of language attitudes and motivation: Results of a longitudinal nationwide survey. *Applied Linguistics, 23*(4), 421-462.

Dweck, C. S. (1986). Motivational Processes Affecting Learning. *American Psychologist, 41*(10), 1040-1048.

Eccles J. S., Adler, T. F., Futterman, R., Goff, S. B., Kaczala, C. M., Meece, J. L., & Midgley, C. (1983). Expectancies, values, and academic behaviors. In J. T. Spence (Ed.), *Achievement and achievement motivation* (pp. 75–146). San Francisco, CA: W. H. Freeman.

Edl, H. M., Jones, M. H., & Estell, D. B. (2008). Ethnicity and English proficiency: Teacher perceptions of academic and interpersonal competence in European American and Latino students. *School Psychology Review, 37*(1), 38-45.

Elliot, A. J., & Murayama, K. (2008). On the measurement of achievement goals: Critique, illustration, and application. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 100*(3), 613-628.

Felner, R. D., Seitsinger, A. M., Brand, S., Burns, A., & Bolton, N. (2007). Creating small learning communities: Lessons from the project on high-performing learning communities about "What Works" in creating productive, developmentally enhancing, learning contexts. *Educational Psychologist, 42*(4), 209-221.

Fredricks, J. A., & Eccles, J. S. (2002). Children's Competence and Value Beliefs from Childhood through Adolescence: Growth Trajectories in Two Male-Sex-Typed Domains. *Developmental Psychology, 38,* 4, 519-33.

Garcia, J., & de Caso, A. (2006). Changes in Writing Self-Efficacy and Writing Products and Processes through Specific Training in the Self-Efficacy Beliefs of Students with Learning Disabilities. *Learning Disabilities: A Contemporary Journal*, *4*(2), 1-27.

Gardner, R. C. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second-language learning*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Gardner, R. C. (2001). Integrative motivation and Second Language Acquisition. In Dörnyei, Z., & Schmidt. R. (Eds), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp.1 -20). Honolulu, HI : Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center, University of Hawaiʻi at Mānoa

Gardner, R. C., Masgoret, A. M., Tennant, J., & Mihic, L. (2004). Integrative motivation: Changes during a year-long intermediate-level language course. *Language Learning, 54*(1), 1-34.

Gee. J. (1996). *Social Linguistics and Literacies: Idealogy in Discourses*. London: Taylor & Francis

Gilman, R., & Anderman, E. M. (2006). The relationship between relative levels of motivation and intrapersonal, interpersonal, and academic functioning among older adolescents. *Journal of School Psychology, 44*(5), 375-391.

Glazek, S., & Sarason, S. (2006). Productive Learning: Science, Art, and Einstein's Relativity in Educational Reform. Corwin Press.

Gottfried, A. E., Fleming, J. S., & Gottfried, A. W. (2001). Continuity of academic intrinsic motivation from childhood through late adolescence: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 93*(1), 3-13.

Graham, S. J. (2004). Giving up on modern foreign languages? Students' perceptions of learning French. *Modern Language Journal, 88*(2), 171-191.

Graham.S & Williams.C (2009). An attributional approach to motivation in school. In Wentzel .K & Wigfield. A.(Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation at School* (pp.171-196). New York, NY: Taylor and Francis

Gtazek, S. D., & Sarason, S. B. (2007). Productive learning: *Science, Art, and Einstein's Relativity in Educational Reform*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Guilloteaux, M. J., & Dornyei, Z. (2008). Motivating language learners: A classroom-oriented investigation of the effects of motivational strategies on student motivation. *Tesol Quarterly, 42*(1), 55-77.

Gutierrez, K., & Rogoff, B. (2003). Cultural Ways of Learning: Individual Traits or Repertoires of Practice. *Educational Researcher*, *32*(5), 19-25.

Hall, C. W., Spruill, K. L., & Webster, R. E. (2002). Motivational and Attitudinal Factors in College Students with and without Learning Disabilities. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 25,* 2, 79-86.

Harackiewicz, J. M., & Linnenbrink, E. A. (2005). Multiple achievement goals and multiple pathways for learning: The agenda and impact of Paul R. Pintrich. *Educational Psychologist, 40*(2), 75-84.

Hassinger, M., & Plourde, L. (2005). "Beating the Odds": How Bi-Lingual Hispanic Youth Work through Adversity to Become High Achieving Students. *Education*, *126*(2), 316-327.

Horwitz, E. K. (2008). *Becoming a language teacher: A practical guide to second language learning and teaching*. Boston: Pearson/Allyn and Bacon.

Horwitz, E.K. (1988). The Beliefs about Language Learning of Beginning University Foreign Language Students. *Modern Language Journal*, *72*(3), 283-94.

Hoy, A.,Hoy, W.K., & Davis,H.A.(2009). Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs. In Wentzel .K & Wigfield. A.(Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation at School* (pp.627-654). New York, NY: Taylor and Francis

Hsieh, P. H. P., & Schallert, D. L. (2008). Implications from self-efficacy and attribution theories for an understanding of undergraduates' motivation in a foreign language course. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 33*(4), 513-532.

IDEA (2004) : Retrieved on October, 2010 from http://www.ldonline.org

Itkonen, T. (2007). PL 94-142: Policy, Evolution, and Landscape Shift. *Issues in Teacher Education*, *16*(2), 7-17

Ivey, G., & Broaddus, K. (2007). A formative experiment investigating literacy engagement among adolescent Latina/o students just beginning to read, write, and speak English. *Reading Research Quarterly, 42*(4), 512-545.

Jordan, A., Glenn, C., & McGhie-Richmond, D. (2010). The Supporting Effective Teaching (SET) project: The relationship of inclusive teaching practices to teachers' beliefs about disability and ability, and about their roles as teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 26*(2), 259-266.

Kagan, D. M. (1992). Implications of Research on Teacher Belief. *Educational Psychologist, 27*(1), 65-90.

Katz, S. (1999). Teaching in Tensions: Latino Immigrant Youth, Their Teachers, and the Structures of Schooling. *Teachers College Record*, *100*(4), 809-40

Klassen, R. (2002). A question of calibration: A review of the self-efficacy beliefs of students with learning disabilities. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 25*(2), 88-102.

Klassen, R. M. (2010). Confidence to Manage Learning: The Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulated Learning of Early Adolescents with Learning Disabilities. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 33*(1), 19-30.

Klassen, R. M., & Lynch, S. L. (2007). Self-efficacy from the perspective of adolescents with LD and their specialist teachers. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 40*(6), 494-507.

Lackaye, T. D., & Margalit, M. (2006). Comparisons of achievement, effort, and self-perceptions among students with learning disabilities and their peers from different achievement groups. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 39*(5), 432-446.

Lamb, M. (2007). The impact of school on EFL learning motivation: An Indonesian case study. *Tesol Quarterly, 41*(4), 757-780.

Lamb, M. (2004). Integrative motivation in a globalizing world. *System, 32,* 1, 3.

Lau, K. L. (2009). Grade differences in reading motivation among Hong Kong primary and secondary students. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 79*, 713-733.

Lepper, M. R., Corpus, J. H., & Iyengar, S. S. (2005). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations in the classroom: Age differences and academic correlates. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 97*(2), 184-196.

Levin, T., & Nevo, Y. (2009). Exploring teachers' views on learning and teaching in the context of a trans-disciplinary curriculum. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 41*(4), 439-465.

Linnenbrink, E. A. (2005). The dilemma of performance-approach goals: The use of multiple goal contexts to promote students' motivation and learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 97*(2), 197-213.

Lorsbach, A., & Jinks, J. (1999). Self-Efficacy Theory and Learning Environment Research. *Learning Environments Research*, *2*(2), 157-67.

Maehr, M. L. (1974). *Sociocultural origins of achievement*. Monterey, CA:Brooks/Cole

Malmberg, L. E., & Hagger, H. (2009). Changes in student teachers' agency beliefs during a teacher education year, and relationships with observed classroom quality, and day-to-day experiences. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 79*, 677-694.

Mamlin, N., Harris, K., & Case, L. (2001). A Methodological Analysis of Research on Locus of Control and Learning Disabilities: Rethinking a Common Assumption. *Journal of Special Education*, *34*(4), 214-25

70

Mansfield, C. F., & Volet, S. E. (2010). Developing beliefs about classroom motivation: Journeys of preservice teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 26*(7), 1404-1415.

Marsh, H. W., Trautwein, U., Ludtke, O., Koller, O., & Baumert, J. (2005). Academic self-concept, interest, grades, and standardized test scores: Reciprocal effects models of causal ordering. *Child Development, 76*(2), 397-416.

Marx, S. (2008). "Not Blending In": Latino Students in a Predominantly White School. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, *30*(1), 69-88

Masgoret, A. M., & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and Associates. *Language Learning, 53*, 167-210.

Maxwell, K., McWilliam, R., Hemmeter, M., Ault, M., & Schuster, J. (2001). Predictors of Developmentally Appropriate Classroom Practices in Kindergarten through Third Grade. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, *16*(4), 431-52.

McCaslin, M. (2003). New directions in motivation research: Implications for practice - Introduction. *Elementary School Journal, 103*(4), 313-316.

McCaslin, M. (2006). Student motivational dynamics in the era of school reform. *Elementary School Journal, 106*(5), 479-490.

McCaslin, M. (2008). Learning Motivation: The Role of Opportunity. *Teachers College Record, 110*(11), 2408-2422.

McCaslin, M., & Burross, H. L. (2008). Student Motivational Dynamics. *Teachers College Record, 110*(11), 2452-2463.

McKown, C., & Weinstein, R. S. (2008). Teacher expectations, classroom context, and the achievement gap. *Journal of School Psychology, 46*(3), 235-261.

Meltzer, L., Katzir, T., Miller, L., Reddy, R., & Roditi, B. (2004). Academic Self-Perceptions, Effort, and Strategy Use in Students with Learning Disabilities: Changes over Time. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, *19*(2), 99-108.

Meltzer, L., Katzir-Cohen, T., Miller, L., & Roditi, B. (2001). The impact of effort and strategy use on academic performance: Student and teacher perceptions. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 24*(2), 85-98.

Multon, K. D., Brown. S.D., Lent, R.W. (1991). Relation of Self-Efficacy Beliefs to Academic Outcomes: A Meta-Analytic Investigation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 38,* 1, 30-38.

NJCLD (1990) *Learning Disabilities: Issues on Definition.* Retrieved October 20, 2010, from http://www.ldonline.org/about/partners/njcld/archives

Noels, K. A. (2003). Learning Spanish as a second language: Learners' orientations and perceptions of their teachers' communication style. *Language Learning, 53*, 97-

136.

Noels, K. A., Pelletier, L. G., Clement, R., & Vallerand, R. J. (2003). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language Learning, 53*, 33-63.

Noels, K., Clement, R., & Pelletier, L. (2001). Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and Integrative Orientations of French Canadian Learners of English. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 57*(3), 424-42

Nunez, J., Gonzalez-Pienda, J., Gonzalez-Pumariega, S., Roces, C., Alvarez, L., Gonzalez, P., et al. (2005). Subgroups of Attributional Profiles in Students with Learning Difficulties and Their Relation to Self-Concept and Academic Goals. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice, 20*(2), 86-97.

Obach, M. (2003). A Longitudinal-Sequential Study of Perceived Academic Competence and Motivational Beliefs for Learning among Children in Middle School. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology, 23*(3), 323-38.

Okagaki, L. (1996). Mexican American Children's Perceptions of Self and School Achievement. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 18,* 4, 469-84.

Pajares, F. (1996). Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Academic Settings. *Review of Educational Research, 66*(4), 543-78

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teacher's beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research, 62*, 307-322.

Paunonen, S. V., & Hong, R. Y. (2010). Self-Efficacy and the Prediction of Domain-Specific Cognitive Abilities. *Journal of Personality, 78*(1), 339-359.

Pintrich, P. (2000). Multiple Goals, Multiple Pathways: The Role of Goal Orientation in Learning and Achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 92*(3), 544-55

Pintrich, P. R. (1990). Implications of psychological research on student learning and college teaching for teacher education. In W. R. Houston (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 826-857). New York: Macmillan

Pintrich, P.R. (2003a).Motivation and Classroom Learning. In Reynolds, W. M., Miller, G. E., & Weiner, I. B. (Eds.). *Handbook of psychology: Volume 7*(pp.103-121). Hoboken, N.J: John Wiley & Son.

Pintrich, P. R. (2003b). A motivational science perspective on the role of student motivation in learning and teaching contexts. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 95*(4), 667-686.

Pintrich, P.R., & de Groot, E.V. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*, 33–40.

Reyna, C., & Weiner, B. (2001). Justice and Utility in the Classroom: An Attributional Analysis of the Goals of Teachers' Punishment and Intervention Strategies. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *93*(2), 309-19.

Richardson.V. (1996). The role of attitude and beliefs in learning to teach. In J.Sikula (Ed.)Handbook of research on teacher education (pp.102-119) New York : Macmillian

Ring, M., & Reetz, L. (2000). Modification Effects on Attributions of Middle School Students with Learning Disabilities. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, *15*(1), 34-42.

Rubinstein-Avila, E. (2004). Conversing with Miguel: An adolescent English Language Learner struggling with later literacy development. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy, 47,* 290-303.

Rubinstein-Avila, E. (2006). Helping Struggling Students - Connecting With Latino Learners - Educating language learners requires encouraging them to make connections among languages and cultures. *Educational Leadership : Journal of the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, N.E.A, 63,* 5, 38.

Rubinstein-Avila, E. (2007). From the Dominican Republic to Drew High: What Counts as Literacy for Yanira Lara?. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *42*(4), 568-589

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25,* 54-67.

Ryan.R.M and Deci.E.L (2009).Promoting Self-Determined School Engagement : Motivation, Learning and Well-Being. In Wentzel .K & Wigfield. A.(Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation at School* (pp.171-196). New York, NY: Taylor and Francis.

Saft, E. W., & Pianta, R. C. (2001). Teachers' perceptions of their relationships with students: Effects of child age, gender, and ethnicity of teachers and children. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 16(2), 125−14

Saha, L.J. & Dworkin. A. G. (2009). Introduction: new perspectives on teachers and teaching. In L.J. Saha & A. G. Dworkin (Eds.), *The New International Handbook of Teachers and Teaching* (Vol.1). Berlin: Springer.

Schunk, D. (1996). Self-Efficacy for Learning and Performance. Paper presented at the *Annual Conference of the American Educational Research Association* . New York : New York

Schunk, D. H., Pintrich, P. R., Meece, J. L., & Pintrich, P. R. (2008). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications*. Upper Saddle River, N.J: Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall.

Schunk.D.H & Pajares.F. (2009). Self-Efficacy Theory. In Wentzel .K & Wigfield. A.(Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation at School* (pp.11 - 34). New York, NY: Taylor and Francis

Scott Hamilton. *Quotations.* Retrieved October, 2010, from http://quotations.about.com

Shih, S. (2008). The Relation of Self-Determination and Achievement Goals to Taiwanese Eighth Graders' Behavioral and Emotional Engagement in Schoolwork. *Elementary School Journal*, *108*(4), 313-334.

Sideridis . G (2009). Motivation and Learning Disabilities: Past, Present and Future. In Wentzel .K & Wigfield. A.(Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation at School* (pp.605-626). New York, NY: Taylor and Francis

Sideridis, G. D. (2006). Achievement goal orientations, "oughts," and self-regulation in students with and without learning disabilities. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 29*(1), 3-18.

Sideridis, G. D. (2005). Classroom Goal Structures and Hopelessness as Predictors of Day-to-Day Experience at School: Differences between Students with and without Learning Disabilities. *International Journal of Educational Research, 43,* 308-328.

Sideridis, G. D., Morgan, P. L., Botsas, G., Padeliadu, S., & Fuchs, D. (2006). Predicting LD on the basis of motivation, metacognition, and psychopathology: An ROC analysis. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 39,* 215–229.

Sirota, E., & Bailey, L. (2009). The Impact of Teachers' Expectations on Diverse Learners' Academic Outcomes. *Childhood Education, 85,* 4, 253.

Smith, L. (2005). The impact of early life history on teachers' beliefs: in-school and out-of-school experiences as learners and knowers of science. *Teachers & Teaching*, *11*(1), 5-36.

Soenens, B., & Vansteenkiste, M. (2005). Antecedents and Outcomes of Self-Determination in 3 Life Domains: The Role of Parents' and Teachers' Autonomy Support. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *34*(6), 589-604

Stone, C., & May, A. (2002). The Accuracy of Academic Self-Evaluations in Adolescents with Learning Disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, *35*(4), 370-83

Tabassam, W., & Grainger, J. (2002). Self-concept, attributional style and self-efficacy beliefs of students with learning disabilities with and without attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 25*(2), 141-151.

Tanase, M., & Wang, J. A. (2010). Initial epistemological beliefs transformation in one teacher education classroom: Case study of four preservice teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 26*(6), 1238-1248.

Terrill, M., & Mark, D. (2000). Preservice Teachers' Expectations for Schools With Children of Color and Second-Language Learners. *Journal of Teacher Education, 51,* 2, 149-155.

Trainor, A. (2007). Perceptions of Adolescent Girls with LD Regarding Self-Determination and Postsecondary Transition Planning. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, *30*(1), 31-45.

Tremblay, P. F., & Gardner, R. C. (1995). Expanding the Motivation Construct in Language-Learning. *Modern Language Journal, 79*(4), 505-518.

Turner, J., & Patrick, H. (2008). How Does Motivation Develop and Why Does It Change? Reframing Motivation Research. *Educational Psychologist*, *43*(3), 119-131.

Turner, J., Christensen, A., & Meyer.D.K. (2009) Teacher Beliefs about Student Learning and Motivation. In Saha, L. J., & Dworkin, A. G. (Eds). *International handbook of research on teachers and teaching* (pp.261-271). New York: Springer.

Urdan, T., & Turner, J. C. (2005). Competence motivation in the classroom. A. J. Elliot & C. S. Dweck (Eds.), *Handbook of Competence and Motivation* (pp. 297-317).New York: The Guilford Press

USDOE, & NICHD. (2003). *National symposium on learning disabilities in English language learners. Symposium summary.* Washington, DC: Authors

Valenzuela, A. (1999). *Subtractive schooling.* Albany: State University of New York Press

Weiner, B. (1985). An Attributional Theory of Achievement Motivation and Emotion. *Psychological Review*, *92*(4), 548-73

Weiner, B. (2010). The Development of an Attribution-Based Theory of Motivation: A History of Ideas. *Educational Psychologist*, *45*(1), 28-36

Weinstein, R. S. (2002). *Reaching higher: The power of expectations in schooling*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wentzel, K. R., & Wigfield, A. (2007). Introduction to motivation: Interventions that Work. *Educational Psychologist, 42,* 4, 261-271.

Wentzel, K. R., & Wigfield, A. (2007b). Motivational Interventions that Work: Themes and Remaining Issues. *Educational Psychologist, 42,* 4, 261-271.

Wentzel.K.R & Wigfield.A (2009) Introduction. In Wentzel .K & Wigfield. A.(Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation at School* (pp.1 - 8). New York, NY: Taylor and Francis

Wiest, D. J., Wang, E. H., Cervantes, J. M., Craik, L., & Kreil, D. A. (2001). Intrinsic motivation among regular, special and alternative education high school students. *Adolescence, 36,* 111–126.

Wigfeild.A,Tonks.S & Klauda.S.L (2009) Expectancy – Value Theory. In Wentzel .K & Wigfield. A.(Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation at School* (pp.55-76). New York, NY: Taylor and Francis

Wigfield, A., & Cambria, J. (2010). Students' Achievement Values, Goal Orientations, and Interest: Definitions, Development, and Relations to Achievement Outcomes. *Developmental Review, 30*(1), 1-35

Wiley, C. R. H., Good, T. L., & McCaslin, M. (2008). Comprehensive School Reform Instructional Practices Throughout a School Year: The Role of Subject Matter, Grade Level, and Time of Year. *Teachers College Record, 110*(11), 2361-2388.

Williams, J. A. (May 01, 2001). Classroom Conversations: Opportunities To Learn for ESL Students in Mainstream Classrooms. *Reading Teacher, 54,* 8, 750-57.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. (1999). Students' Developing Conceptions of Themselves as Language Learners. *Modern Language Journal, 83*(2), 193-201

Williams, T., & Williams, K. (2010). Self-Efficacy and Performance in Mathematics: Reciprocal Determinism in 33 Nations. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 102*(2), 453-466

Wood, J. G., & Benton, S. L. (2003). Teacher attributional responses to students with disabilities who fail. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.

Wolters, C. A. (2004). Advancing Achievement Goal Theory: Using Goal Structures and Goal Orientations to Predict Students' Motivation, Cognition, and Achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 96,* 2, 236-250.

Yadav, A., & Koehler, M. (2007). The Role of Epistemological Beliefs in Preservice Teachers' Interpretation of Video Cases of Early-Grade Literacy Instruction. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education, 15*(3), 335-361

Zisimopoulos, D., & Galanaki, E. (2009). Academic Intrinsic Motivation and Perceived Academic Competence in Greek Elementary Students with and without Learning Disabilities. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 24*(1), 33-43