



# New Trends and Issues Proceedings on Humanities and Social Sciences



Volume 4, Issue 1 (2017) 579-585

ISSN 2421-8030

[www.prosoc.eu](http://www.prosoc.eu)

Selected Papers of 9th World Conference on Educational Sciences (WCES-2017) 01-04 February 2017 Hotel Aston La Scala  
Convention Center, Nice, France

## Motivation: A new revision of motivational approaches in educational settings

**Hande Yilmaz**<sup>a\*</sup>, Turkan Soray İlkogretim Okulu, 34200, Istanbul, Turkey.

**Fatih Yavuz**<sup>b</sup>, Department of foreign language teaching, Faculty of Education, Balikesir University, 10100, Balikesir, Turkey.

### Suggested Citation:

Yilmaz, H. & Yavuz, F. (2017). Motivation: A new revision of motivational approaches in educational settings. *New Trends and Issues Proceedings on Humanities and Social Sciences*. [Online]. 4(1), pp 579-585. Available from: [www.prosoc.eu](http://www.prosoc.eu)

Selection and peer review under responsibility of Prof. Dr. Jesus Garcia Laborda, University of Alcala, Spain.

©2017 SciencePark Research, Organization & Counseling. All rights reserved.

### Abstract

Motivation is a driving force which takes individuals to the peaks of their goals. Its effect and prominence in educational psychology have been examined for years and are still in the area of interest for many researchers, teachers and learners. This paper firstly aims to have a look at the background of the term "motivation", and then explore the types of motivation. Lastly, the theories of motivation will be presented. Hopefully, it will shed light into classroom applications giving advices to teachers in terms of providing a convenient environment for learning.

Keywords: Motivation; theories of motivation; education; learning.

---

\* ADDRESS FOR CORRESPONDENCE: **Hande Yilmaz**, Turkan Soray İlkogretim Okulu, 34200, Istanbul, Turkey.

E-mail address: [handeyilmaz10@gmail.com](mailto:handeyilmaz10@gmail.com) / Tel.: +90 0212 263 69 83

## **1. Introduction**

### **1.1. What is motivation?**

Many descriptions have been made to describe motivation so far. Broadly, motivation can be expressed as a leading stimulus making us take an action or discover something. It can either be an urge to start a process or a process which enables us moving on the situation for a long time to manage. Motivation is an action done for the sake of learning. (Noels et al., 2000; Shaver, 2012). Moshinskie (2001) states that motivation includes both attention and effort to complete a task and then apply it in new concepts. According to Ames (1990) motivation is not just an urge which starts the action but also a commitment and involvement in learning. Deci and Ryan (2000) describe motivation as to be moved to take an action. They add that people not only have different amounts, but also different kinds of motivation. In educational settings, motivation serves as templates which are coded based on the experiences of learners in individuals' self-systems (Middleton & Tolum, 1999). According to Usher and Kober (2012), there are four major factors of motivation. These factors are competence, autonomy, interest/value and relatedness. Competence refers to individuals' self-capacities about their belief to manage. Autonomy means individuals' rights to engage in tasks, and seeing a direct link between their tasks and outcomes. Interest/value is the enjoyment which individuals experience during the task. Relatedness means a link that learners can connect the task and the outcome. If the outcome brings success or a feeling of social belonging, it means there is a relatedness in the process.

#### **1.1.1. Types of motivation**

There are different versions of motivation such as intrinsic, extrinsic, integrative, instrumental and adaptive motivation. Moreover, apart from being in the state of motivation, there are some other types of motivation titled as amotivation and demotivation, which can be described as being deprived of motivation in general.

#### **1.1.2. Amotivation**

Amotivation means the absence of motivation. While motivated individuals show passion and willingness to engage in action or task, amotivated individuals show no traces of that. Instead, they prefer to stay away from those activities. Barkoukis et.al. (2008) puts forward four reasons for amotivation. Firstly, individuals may lack the abilities to take part in the task. Second, they may feel that tasks will not lead them to the desired outcomes. Third, they may find the activity too hard to finish. Lastly, individuals may lack in their potentials to be successful in the activity. Similarly, Pelletier et al. (1999) and Ntoumanis et al. (2004), propose a model for amotivation. Helplessness beliefs are in the core of this model and they are based on capacity, strategy and effort beliefs. Capacity beliefs refer to individuals' own beliefs in their ability to reach the desired outcomes. Strategy beliefs are the expectations of the effectiveness of strategies in reaching the desired outcomes. Effort beliefs mean not being able to or being ready to give individuals' efforts to achieve the desired outcome.

#### **1.1.3. Demotivation**

Demotivation can be expressed as losing interest or willingness to complete a task or finish an activity. While amotivation refers to not having any motivation at all from the beginning to the end of the task, demotivation refers to losing some part or the whole motivation process. According to Sakai and Kikuchi there are five reasons causing demotivation. They are a) learning contents and materials, (b) teachers' competence and teaching styles, (c) inadequate school facilities, (d) lack of intrinsic motivation, and (e) test scores. Falout et al. (2009) group demotivation reasons in three categories as external conditions of the learning, internal conditions of the learner and reactive behaviors. External conditions reflect past experiences depending on the teacher. Internal conditions reflect individuals' inner processes such as loss of confidence and self-blame. Reactive behaviors reflect behaviors trying to avoid demotivation such as looking for help from others or self-learning strategies.

#### **1.1.4. Intrinsic motivation**

Vallerand (1997) makes a distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. If pleasure and satisfaction are inherent in the activity, it is called intrinsic motivation. Conversely, if one performs the behavior to reach a goal, receive rewards or avoid punishments, it is then called extrinsic motivation. A student who learns a language because he/she loves it, is intrinsic motivation. However, if he/she prefers to learn it to have a good job in the future, it is in the category of extrinsic motivation. Vallerand also divides intrinsic motivation in three types as intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation towards accomplishments, and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation. Intrinsic motivation to know deals with the pleasure of the activity done. Concepts like internal intellectuality, enjoying and discovering are represented here. Intrinsic motivation towards accomplishment emphasizes the process of the activity rather than the outcome. Creating and accomplishing something is examined in this category. Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation exemplifies aesthetic and sensory pleasure through senses in an activity preferred to done.

#### **1.1.5. Extrinsic motivation**

Extrinsic motivation deals with external factors affecting motivation unlike intrinsic motivation which cares the inner processes toward motivation. Although rewards such as money, candy for little kids, status, praise, or a mark are mostly used to increase extrinsic motivation especially in primary schools, it can be dangerous as they decrease intrinsic motivation as stated by Deci&Ryan (1981). Deci and Ryan detail extrinsic motivation in four types as starting from amotivation to personal commitment level. The first stage, called external regulation involves motivation shaped by totally external variables such as a strict programme to be followed. The second stage is called introjected regulation which allows individuals to do the action to get rid of unwanted outcomes and punishment. Identification follows them as the third stage giving choices and a little more freedom within some regulations. The last stage is integrated regulation which is the most autonomous type of extrinsic motivation and the closest one to intrinsic motivation.

#### **1.1.6. Integrative motivation**

Integrative motivation is described as being motivated in language learning by integrating the cultural and social elements of the target language by Gardner and Lambert (1972). The more positive feelings learners of that target language have toward country and the people of it, the easier it is to make them motivated. Most of research done in this field show that individuals actively involved in communicating the people living there or culturally inspired can be more successful in language learning.

#### **1.1.7. Instrumental motivation**

Instrumental motivation can be thought as the opposite version of instrumental motivation which emphasizes the importance of function and practical values (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991). It is about long term purposes and the advantages of learning a language along with the positive outcomes of doing it. It is true that instrumental motivation is a type of extrinsic motivation as it highlights the outcomes as reward instead of doing the action just for its pleasure. However, it can be quite motivating and successful with especially adult learners. In addition, studies done about integrative and instrumental motivation show that there is correlation between those and they contribute to language learning motivation to a great extent.

#### **1.1.8. Adaptive motivation**

Adaptive motivation supports that the motive inside humans is the feeling of adaptivity. But, as every person is unique, their styles in motivation also differ. In other words, their motivations depend on their prior schemas and social backgrounds. Similarly, individuals sharing the same culture and similar contexts are likely to feel the same about motivation styles. Moreover, individuals sharing the same context tend to affect each other in terms of motivation level, which is called “ the principle of identical elements” in adaptive motivation (Middleton & Toluk, 1999).

Adaptive motivation also underlines the necessity and importance of goals. There are two types of goals according to Dweck and Heyman (1992). The first one is performance goals emphasize engaging in the task and being successful or not at the end of it. The second is learning goals which are based on developing new skills and showing the capacity of individuals. Not only Dweck and Heyman, but also Middleton and Toluk (1999) stress the goals. According to them, mastery goals refer to intrinsic goals which are followed with pleasure while ego goals make individuals act by external factors just like in extrinsic motivation.

## **2. Literature Review**

### **2.1. Theories of motivational approaches**

#### **2.1.1. Self-determination Theory**

The theory was introduced by Deci and Ryan in 1985 stating it as a motivational theory to develop human potentials emphasizing especially intrinsic motivation. There three crucial elements of self determination theory as need for competence, need for relatedness, and need for autonomy. The need for competence occurs when individuals can increase their potentials more inspired by other social contextual factors such as rewards, positive inspirations, and the communication bond builded up with others. The need for relatedness explains relations supported by strong secure attachment feelings. The more relaxed individuals feel within a social context, the closer and successful they feel. Third one is the need for autonomy, which can be summarized as giving more freedom and choices to people. In this way, they feel more intrinsically motivated towards the target.

#### **2.1.2. Cognitive evaluation theory**

Cognitive Evaluation Theory is an expanded and detailed form of SDT (Self-determination theory) explaining the factors affecting intrinsic motivation put forward by Deci and Ryan in 1985. Individuals have an "internal locus of causality" according to Rummel&Feinberg (1988). It means that individuals' motivation is nurtured by internal attributions such as intrinsic rewards and goals. CET (Cognitive Evaluation Theory) underlines two kinds of rewards which are verbal rewards and tangible rewards. Verbal rewards are those obtained after finishing a task. As long as they are positive, they enhance intrinsic motivation. But, they can have a controlling effect on individuals if they just complete the task to reach the positive outcome, which causes a decline in intrinsic motivation. Tangible rewards, on the other hand, are obtained after engaging in the task without completing it. While expected tangible rewards decrease intrinsic motivation, unexpected tangible rewards supports intrinsic motivation positively.

#### **2.1.3. Maslow's need theory**

Maslow's hierarchy of need theory is based on human goals and reaching their capacities (1943). The theory distinguishes humans from animals in terms of that they are not managed by their drives. According to the theory, there are five levels in the hierarchy of needs pyramid and those are in a hierarchical relationship with each other. In other words, one can not skip the lower stage in normal conditions. The first step is physiological needs of humans which refer to the needs related with physiology of human body such as hunger, sleepiness and maternal behavior. The second step follow with safety needs, which means being away from dangerous situations threatening life. The third step is the needs for love, which refers to the need to belong to a group or a family with a bond within a love exchange. The fourth step is the needs for esteem. It can either be a need for strength, success or prestige. With a deficiency in this step, humans tend to lose their self confidence. The last step is called self-actualization needs, which explains that humans need to reveal their potentials and their skills.

#### **2.1.4. Attribution theory**

Attribution theory gives us information about attributions of individuals when they face a success or a failure. It was first introduced by Weiner (1985). It stresses three crucial components in the theory: “the locus of a cause”, “controllability” and “stability”. The locus of a cause determines an event being internal or external. If it is within the limits of an individual, it means it’s internal. But, if it is affected by the other factors out of individual, it is then external. The second component “controllability” is an indicator of an event which the individual can control or not. Learners need to know an event or an action if controllable by themselves to have more self-confidence. Luck or a schedule for example is out of their control. Lastly, “stability” refers to an action which is stable over a period time giving similar or same results. As Hodges (2004) states, teachers should make learners engage in controllable and unstable tasks so that they could believe in themselves to change a failure.

#### **2.1.5. Personal causation theory**

Personal Causation Theory introduced by DeCharms in 1968 is composed of three elements as freedom, choice and commitment. Freedom in the theory is giving choice and freedom to learners and making them responsible for their own learning. DeCharms likens passive students to pawns pushed here and there in life. Pawns can be either teachers or students who are not free enough to make their own plans, set goals for their effectivity and learnings. Teachers may become pawns if pressured by parents, principals or by strict teaching programmes. Origins, on the other hand, have six features differentiating them from others. First, they use their intrinsic motivation to move on, second they are ready to set goals for themselves. Third, they set realistic goals and can find task to reach their goals. Finally, they take the responsibility of their learning and have self-confidence (Cohen, 1982).

#### **2.1.6. Theory of planned behavior**

Theory of planned behavior (TPB) introduced by Azjen (1991) makes predictions based on past behaviors and reveal the factors behind the actual behaviors of individuals which are intentions and beliefs. Behavioral control reflects the probability of the future behavior. It is examined in two concepts as “actual behavioral control” and “perceived behavioral control”. Actual behavioral control refers to the external controls such as money and actual conditions and reflects what we can do normally within the standard conditions. Perceived behavioral control, however, reflects individuals’ perceptions about the ease or difficulty of events. In other words, it depends on how they see them. In order to make right predictions, perceived behavioral control and intentions are used. As perceived behavioral control just reflects individuals’ point of views toward events, it should be as realistic as possible. Additionally, the elements affecting motivation internally or externally in the past should be analyzed carefully to make right predictions for the future behavior.

### **3. Conclusion**

As stated above, motivation is described as a strong drive which leads individuals to show interest toward an activity or a behavior. There are variations of it from extrinsic and intrinsic motivation to adaptive, instrumental and integrative motivation. While external factors, conditions and social surroundings are about extrinsic motivation, internal processes such as inner voice, pure interest and personal aims explain internal motivation. Adaptive motivation highlights the importance of goals and the necessity of adaptivity of humans. While instrumental motivation studies the motivation of learning a language for its function and practical issues, integrative motivation cares for cultural elements and liking towards a language and community speaking that language. The theories of motivation also show variety depending on their mottos. Self-determination theory features intrinsic motivation and demonstrates how crucial it is to give freedom and choice to each individual. Similarly, cognitive evaluation theory deals with intrinsic motivation more as it is an expanded version of it. It makes a distinction between tangible rewards which are given just after finishing a task and verbal rewards which are presented after finishing the whole task. Maslow’s motivational theory of needs proposes a hierarchical model which is composed of five steps as physiological needs, safety needs, love needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs. With a different point of view, attribution theory is

interested in understanding the individuals' attributions their motivation to external factors or internal ones. DeCharms (1968) in personal causation theory tells the difference between pawns who are managed by others and origins who are responsible for their own learning. Finally, theory of planned behavior can predict the future behaviors based on the past ones and underlines that individuals should evaluate themselves through a realistic frame.

All motivation types and motivational theories discuss different points of motivation, but in general it is better to unit them in a classroom environment considering strong and missing parts as teachers. Wlodkowski (1984) indicates a supporting teacher as making learners feel valuable, being reachable to them, being helpful and showing understanding together with allowing learners opportunities and freedom of expression (Ray, 1992). The positive advantages of competition, group work and external rewards cannot be avoided, but the vitality of intrinsic motivation should be considered. As a result, creating a relaxing class environment, giving freedom and choice to learners, knowing their potentials and needs, allowing to show themselves and helping them to set internal aims for learning and finally making them responsible for their own learning processes may contribute a lot to the motivations of learners.

## References

- Ames, C. (1990). Motivation: What teachers need to know. *Teachers college record*, 91(3), 409-421.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179-211.
- Cohen, M. W. (1982). *Using motivational theories as a focus for the educational psychology curriculum*. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED230881> on 1 April 2017.
- DeCharms, R. (1977). Pawn or origin? Enhancing motivation in disaffected youth. *Educational Leadership*, 34(6), 444-448.
- Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (1981). *Curiosity and self-directed learning: The role of motivation in education*. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED206377> on 6 December 2016.
- Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- Falout, J., Elwood, J. & Hood, M. (2009). Demotivation: Affective states and learning outcomes. *System*, 37(3), 403-417.
- Gardner, R. C. & Lambert, W.E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second-language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Gardner, R. C. & MacIntyre, P. D. (1991). An instrumental motivation in language study. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 13(01), 57-72.
- Heyman, G. D. & Dweck, C. S. (1992). Achievement goals and intrinsic motivation: Their relation and their role in adaptive motivation. *Motivation and emotion*, 16(3), 231-247.
- Hodges, C. B. (2004). Designing to motivate: Motivational techniques to incorporate in e-learning experiences. *The Journal of Interactive Online Learning*, 2(3), 1-7.
- Kikuchi, K. (2009). Listening to our learners' voices: What demotivates Japanese high school students? *Language Teaching Research*, 13(4), 453-471.
- Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological review*, 50(4), 370.
- Middleton, J. A. & Toluk, Z. (1999). First steps in the development of an adaptive theory of motivation. *Educational Psychologist*, 34(2), 99-112.
- Moshinskie, J. (2001). How to keep e-learners from e-escaping. *Performance Improvement*, 40(6), 28-35.
- Noels, K. A., Pelletier, L. G., Clément, R. & Vallerand, R. J. (2000). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language learning*, 50(1), 57-85.
- Ntoumanis, N., Pensgaard, A. M., Martin, C. & Pipe, K. (2004). An idiographic analysis of amotivation in compulsory school physical education. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 26(2), 197-214.
- Ray, N. L. (1992). Motivation in education. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED349298> on 6 December 2016.
- Rummel, A. & Feinberg, R. (1988). Cognitive evaluation theory: A meta-analytic review of the literature. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 16(2), 147-164.

- Yilmaz, H. & Yavuz, F. (2017). Motivation: A new revision of motivational approaches in educational settings. *New Trends and Issues Proceedings on Humanities and Social Sciences*. [Online]. 4(1), pp 579-585. Available from: [www.prosoc.eu](http://www.prosoc.eu)
- Shaver, A. N. (2012). Fostering Integrative Motivation among Introductory-Level German Students through a Language Partners Program. *Die Unterrichtspraxis/Teaching German*, 45(1), 67-73.
- Usher, A. & Kober, N. (2012). What Is Motivation and Why Does It Matter? Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED532670> on 6 December 2016.
- Vallerand, R. J. (1997). Toward a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 29, 271-360.
- Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review*, 92(4), 548.
- Wlodkowski, R. J. (1984). *Motivation and teaching*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association.