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Learning Motivation of Disadvantaged Students

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7 Synonyms

- 8 Academic motivation of at-risk learners; Learning moti-
- 9 vation of students with low socioeconomic status

10 Definition

The phrase learning motivation of disadvantaged students 11 refers to the assumption that learning motivation, being 12 different from, and usually lower than that of students 13 from average or advantaged environments, plays a crucial 14 role in the educational failures of students with low socio-15 economic status. On a theoretical basis it is effortless to 16 verify the motivational deficit of disadvantaged students 17 that can be traced back, on one hand, to the parents' 18 influential role in the formation of learning motivation, 19 and, on the other hand, to school failures evolving as 20 a consequence of less-advanced cognitive skills. However, 21 unequivocal empirical evidence supporting the central 22 role of unfavorable family background in the development 23

of a lower level of learning motivation is unavailable.

25 Theoretical Background

The relationship between family background and school 26 success has been well documented. It is a well-known fact 27 that disadvantaged children's skills and learning outcomes 28 29 are poorer than those of their peers from average or advantaged environments. One possible explanation of 30 these differences is the lower level of learning motivation 31 disadvantaged children exhibit. Theoretically it is effort-32 less to verify the association between the unfavorable 33 family background and the low learning motivation 34 which is usually traced back, on the one hand, to parental 35 influence on children's motivation, and on the other hand, 36 to school failures evolving as a consequence of less 37 advanced cognitive skills. 38

According to empirical studies parents have a crucial 39 role in how children approach achievement in the aca- 40 demic area through (1) parents' practices with children, 41 (2) parents' thinking about children, and (3) relatedness 42 between parents and children (Pomerantz et al. 2005). 43 Research investigating the relationships between socioeco- 44 nomic status and characteristics of family life has revealed 45 differences in all three fields between parents with low and 46 medium or high socioeconomic status (Bradley and 47 Corwyn 2002). Therefore, the linking of the attributes 48 of poor families with the role of parental influence on 49 children's learning motivation supports the view that 50 learning motivation of disadvantaged students is lower 51 than that of their peers from families with favorable 52 background. 53

Parents' practices with children exert influence on the 54 creation of an environment that supports children's com- 55 petence. It involves offering cognitively stimulating mate- 56 rials and experiences, as well as suitable information, 57 guidelines, expectations, and feedback. Children from 58 poor families have limited access to cognitively stimulat- 59 ing materials and experiences, for example, in their homes 60 there are fewer resources that facilitate learning or reading, 61 and they are less likely to participate in educational, 62 cultural, and recreational activities. Parents in poor envi- 63 ronment read to their children and engage in conversa- 64 tions with their children more rarely, and these 65 conversations are poorer, and include fewer efforts to elicit 66 child speech. Another component of parents' practices 67 with children affecting subsequent learning motivation is 68 parental support of autonomy. Autonomy support 69 involves allowing children to explore their own environ- 70 ment, initiate their own behavior, and play an active role 71 in solving their own problems. Parents with low socioeco- 72 nomic status use control strategies and restrictions more 73 often, and are less likely to encourage autonomous 74 behavior. 75

One dimension of *parents' thinking about children* is 76 parental expectations for children's performance. Parents 77 with high expectations are more involved in their chil- 78 dren's schooling than are other parents, and in an indirect 79 way, through parental messages they exert influence on 80 children's belief systems. However, in case of mothers, 81

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economic hardships reduce the likelihood of setting optimal developmental goals for their children, which entails
children's limited involvement in activities fostering skills
development.

Relatedness between parents and children shapes the 86 orientation children adopt toward achievement in aca-87 demic domains in numerous ways. Optimal attachment 88 and closeness have an effect through children's confident 89 and autonomous exploration of their environment, as well 90 as through a positive internal representation of themselves 91 and their parents who allow them to explore their envi-92 ronment without having to worry over their relationships. 93 Another form of relatedness between parents and children 94 is children's sense of obligation to their family. Students 95 with a strong sense of family obligation report spending 96 more time studying and having higher educational 97 aspirations and expectations than others. When children 98 define themselves in terms of their relationships with 99 parents, i.e., children hold parent-oriented 100 their interdependent self-construals, they put more effort into 101 realizing the educational goals set for them by their par-102 ents, and are more likely to internalize these. Stresses, 103 uncertainties, and low social standing can lead to such 104 105 negative emotional states as anxiety, depression, and hostility, all of which negatively affect the relationships among 106 family members. Additionally, harsh and neglectful par-107 enting, which is also more common among poor families, 108 is conducive to an unfavorable parent-child relationship. 109 Motivational weaknesses deriving from family back 110 ground might be intensified by the school. Students whose 111 skills necessary for school-based learning are underdevel-112 oped, and have unfavorable motivational patterns, which 113 are both highly probable in case of disadvantaged stu-114 dents, are prone to long-term motivational disadvantages 115 right in the first years of schooling. This phenomenon is 116 experienced in the case of learning to read, which is the 117 core achievement context for school beginners. Low-118 achieving students without sufficient instruction fall 119 increasingly behind their normally achieving peers. They 120 often feel that they are being compared to their classmates 121 with optimal reading trajectories, experience loss of per-122 sonal control, and feelings of inferiority. Consequently, 123 students at risk fall back upon maladaptive motivational 124 reactions, such as passivity, task-avoidance, acting-out, or 125 dependency. Although low-achievers are given more help 126 and incentives than normal achievers, they also have to 127 face more direction, criticism, reprimands, and rejection. 128 Maladaptive motivational patterns stabilize rapidly after 129 school start, and are likely to contribute to resistance to 130 subsequent teaching and treatment (Vauras et al. 2001). 131 Teachers' expectations, that can be different for students 132

with favorable and unfavorable family backgrounds, are 133 regarded as an additional element in the intensification of 134 the motivational deficit (Bradley and Corwyn 2002). 135

Important Scientific Research and Open 136 Questions 137

Although theories about the motivational deficit in low 138 social class school populations have long been present 139 (e.g., Lawton 1968), the number of empirical studies 140 focusing on the relationships between motivation and 141 disadvantaged status is relatively small. In case of some 142 motivational constructs, these empirical investigations 143 have revealed a connection with socioeconomic status, 144 while in case of others no such relationship has been found. 145

The survey including the largest sample size, on which 146 we can rely in the investigation of relationships between 147 family background and learning motivation, is linked to 148 The Programme for International Student Assessment 149 (PISA) 2000 data collection (Artelt et al. 2003). Out of the 32 countries participating in PISA 2000, students from 151 26 countries completed the questionnaires. Nationally 152 representative samples of 15-year-olds consisted of more 153 than 120 thousand students. Constructs investigated are 154 primarily linked to the theory of self-regulated learning, 155 from which instrumental motivation, interest in mathe-156 matics and reading, persistence and effort, self-efficacy 157 and reading (verbal), mathematics and academic self- 158 concepts can be regarded as variables describing learning 159 motivation. Students were ranked by their parent's occu-160 pational status. Analysis compared the top quarter and the 161 bottom national quarter of the student population in each 162 country. Whenever significant differences were found in 163 motivational variables, those usually meant the advantage 164 of top quarter students. The difference between the two 165 groups is the most remarkable in the case of self-efficacy. 166 Students with disadvantaged background are less likely to 167 believe in their capacity to face learning challenges. This 168 difference was present everywhere with the exception of 169 one country. Children of low occupational status parents 170 are less confident regarding their skills in mathematics, in 171 reading as well as in learning in general (academic self- 172 concept). There are also significant differences in interest 173 in reading in most countries. Results regarding interest in 174 mathematics and learning stimulated by external rewards 175 such as grades (instrumental motivation) are the least 176 consistent. In some countries these motivational con- 177 structs show more favorable characteristics in case of 178 students belonging to the top quarter, while in others 179 these more advantageous profiles were reported by stu- 180 dents in the bottom quarter. Although significant differ- 181 ences were found in more variables describing learning 182 motivation, it is not evident, to what extent the family and
to what extent the school is responsible for the emergence
of these differences, since the study does not discuss effects
of selective education.

In the school systems of numerous countries students 187 are sorted into separate schools, classes, or groups in their 188 early school years on the basis of their past school achieve-189 ments or abilities. As opposed to the originally declared 190 goals, in many cases the decision to assign a student to 191 a low ability group, a low prestige school or training 192 program tends to be based on their socioeconomic status. 193 Students in lower ability groups or in low prestige envi-194 ronments usually perform far below expectations, which is 195 partly attributable to motivational reasons. Selective 196 schooling has an adverse impact on self-esteem, and it 197 can lead to anti-school attitudes and alienation from 198 school in case of pupils in the lower groups or in low 199 prestige environments. The negative impacts of selectivity 200 on motivational variables may be mediated by stigmatiza-201 tion and teachers' expectations (Ireson and Hallam 2001). 202 Although according to some studies the motivational 203 level of disadvantaged children is lower than that of their 204 peers from privileged backgrounds, there is no clear 205 206 empirical evidence that disadvantaged background itself plays a crucial role in the development of learning moti-207 vation, and through this, in the school failures of disad-208 vantaged students. This situation may be attributable to 209 the relatively small number of studies concentrating on the 210 relation between family background and learning motiva-211 tion, to the lack of a coherent theoretical foundation of 212 learning motivation, and as a consequence, to the various 213 operationalizations of motivation existing in the litera-214 ture, and finally, to the fact that the negative effects of 215 selectivity based on socioeconomic status are hardly 216

separable from direct effects of socioeconomic status. 217 Moreover, there is a wide variability in the definition of 218 disadvantaged background in studies, which also hinders 219 the synthesis of available results. 220

Cross-References

 Achievement Motivation and Learning 	222
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