

MOTIVATION TO LEARN

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Abstract. Motivation to learn is associated with academic success, positive attitudes towards school, greater student and teacher satisfaction and better discipline. In developing the concept, motivation has been viewed as a personality trait or state depending on the situation, or as a combination of traits and states. The basic division that theorists have emphasised is the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Since most activities are neither intrinsically nor extrinsically motivated, the idea arises that there is a continuum on which activities are located between fully intrinsically and fully extrinsically motivated, or that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are considered to be two independent causes with the possibility of simultaneous action. This paper presents the basic theoretical concepts of motivation to learn and practical implications for the teaching process, namely: behaviourist approach to motivation, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, self-determination theory, theory of optimal experience, expectancy-value theories, goal theory, implicit theories of ability, attribution theory, self-efficacy beliefs and self-worth theory as well as the importance of interest in the subject of study. Most theories emphasise the importance of intrinsic motivation, while research and the reality of school systems show that it is sometimes necessary to rely on extrinsic motives and to use reward systems. There are many reasons why students learn. Personal interests, curiosity and the inner need for knowledge are probably the strongest drivers to engage in a particular activity. It is important to nurture and develop curiosity, interests, and the desire to learn as many different areas as possible.

Key words: motivation to learn, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation

INTRODUCTION

Motivation is a complex psychological process of initiating, directing, and regulating activities directed towards a specific goal (Trebješanin, 2000). Motivation to learn refers to the extent to which students invest their attention and energy in efforts that may or may not be desirable, depending on the teacher. Student motivation depends on the student's subjective experiences, i.e., the will and reasons to engage in learning activities (Brophy, 2015). Motivation to learn is associated with academic success, positive attitudes towards school, greater student and teacher satisfaction, and better discipline (Tulić, 2015).

The complexity of the phenomenon of motivation is reflected in the fact that people engage in work and tasks that are difficult and uninteresting, and that they persevere even when they encounter obstacles. Motivation has been viewed either as a personality trait or as a state that depends on the situation or a combination of traits and states (Woolfolk et al. 2014). Theorists have emphasised the fundamental distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In the case of intrinsic motivation, the locus of causation lies within the person. Person has a natural need to engage in certain activities that he or she enjoys, and engaging in the activity itself is a reward. In extrinsic motivation, the locus of causality for engaging in a particular activity is external to the person. The performance of an activity does not represent pleasure itself, but the activity is performed to achieve a certain goal (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Since (Woolfolk et al., 2014) many activities are not caused by either fully intrinsic or extrinsic motivation, the

idea emerges that there is a continuum on which our activities are located, between fully intrinsically and fully extrinsically motivated. Many activities internalise an external cause, so in this case the activity is both extrinsically and intrinsically motivated (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Another way of explaining the existence of activities that we cannot accurately say are neither intrinsically nor extrinsically motivated is that these two causes for the activity are independent of each other and there is the possibility of acting simultaneously (Woolfolk et al., 2014).

THEORETICAL CONCEPTS OF MOTIVATION WITH PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

In line with the basic directions of understanding of personality and human nature, motivation as well as motivation to learn is considered from the point of view of behaviourism, humanism, cognitivism, and sociocultural aspect. Behaviourism views motivation as extrinsic, while humanism emphasises that people are intrinsically motivated and driven by the need for self-actualisation and self-determination (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Cognitivist theories assume that motivation is primarily intrinsic, meaning that people are naturally active, curious and in search of information. What initiates and regulates behaviour are planning, goals, schemas, expectations, and attributions (Woolfolk et al., 2014). The sociocultural view understands motivation as intrinsic, with the concept of identity playing an important role in the emergence and maintenance of motivation. Namely, according to the sociocultural view, people identify with certain social groups or communities and build their identity within these groups. People are motivated to engage in activities to maintain their identity and social ties within these communities (Woolfolk et al., 2014).

BEHAVIOURIST APPROACH TO MOTIVATION

According to the behaviourist view, motivation to learn is considered extrinsic, as rewards and incentives trigger learning (Woolfolk et al., 2014). In the teaching process, the principles of operant learning are applied to encourage desirable behaviour and motivate students to learn, with reinforcement in the form of attention and praise from the teacher, while undesirable behaviour is ignored (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Verbal rewards in the form of praise and attention have a positive effect on motivation, but also, they may cause a negative effect or simply be ineffective (Brophy, 2015). For some students, praise is ineffective because they do not consider it important, while others are bothered by public praise that singles them out, or praise given for less valuable achievements, so that they perceive it as humiliation. Praise given for minor achievements to encourage weaker students, who may thus understand that the teacher has no confidence in their abilities, can also be seen as problematic. For praise to be truly motivating, it must be informative and indicate recognition rather than control, be sincere (Brophy, 2015), depend on the behaviour that is to be reinforced, and clearly name the behaviour that is to be reinforced (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Desirable activities are also effective reinforcers, and the way they are used as reinforcers in the form of the Primark principle is striking (Woolfolk et al., 2014). High-frequency behaviour such as a favourite activity can be used as a reinforcer for a low-frequency behaviour, i.e., a less popular activity. Then, the shaping strategy is another method of reinforcing students that involves reinforcing progress, i.e., the steps that lead to the final goal, while the positive practise method involves replacing one behaviour with another and is suitable for working with errors that students need to correct and practise correct responses as soon as possible (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Brophy (2015) believes that competition is a powerful extrinsic motivator, often favoured by students and

teachers. However, he does not recommend it as a motivational strategy because it comes with several dangers, such as the risk of public failure, the focus on winning rather than on the task, the coercive context, and the imposition of rules. Students who lose can develop a loser psychology that can permanently reduce self-esteem, self-confidence, and enjoyment of school, and thus motivation to learn.

Although Brophy (2015) points out that the use of learning reinforcement strategies has been shown to encourage students to put in more effort, he emphasises that most motivation theorists do not see this as motivation to learn, but as behavioural control. In addition, many researchers believe that the method of reward undermines intrinsic motivation when the rewards are offered in advance as an incentive, so that students believe they only engaged in the task because they had to be rewarded (Brophy, 2015). Rewarding students for engaging in topics they are already interested in leads to a loss of interest once the reward programme ends (Brophy, 2015). Reward programme that does not engage all students may have negative effects on students who are not included in the programme (Lalić-Vučetić, 2007). Reward strategies in the classroom should be unannounced so that students understand them as appreciation of effort and recognition of achievement rather than bribery. Reward strategies are more effective in routine, concrete tasks than in discovery tasks and those requiring creativity and skill, while in lower-level tasks such as memorisation they may be the only form of motivation to sustain effort (Brophy, 2015). Tangible rewards can be harmful if they are given only for participation in an activity regardless of the quality of performance or if they are simply promised in advance (Brophy, 2015). Expectation of a tangible reward has a negative effect on intrinsic motivation, especially if the amount of the reward is directly related to the level of performance, while verbal rewards have a positive effect on motivation if they are informative and not controlling (Brophy, 2015).

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

One of the basic approaches to motivation is Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Maslow namely assumed that human needs range from basic needs to higher order needs, to self-actualisation. The satisfaction of higher needs is only possible when the lower order needs are satisfied. Thus, the basic human needs represent physiological needs, such as the need for food, water, sleep, warmth, sex, then the need for protection and security. Second in the hierarchy are the needs for love and belonging, then the needs for respect and self-esteem and finally, at the top of the hierarchy, the needs for self-actualisation. The self-actualisation needs represent growth needs, while the four basic needs are deficit needs that, when satisfied, reduce the motivation to fulfil them. The satisfaction of self-actualisation needs does not lead to a decrease in motivation, but to its increase and the need for further growth and development (Maslow, 1954).

Learning and classroom engagement are hindered when students' basic needs are not met, e.g., when students are hungry, sleepless, socially isolated from their peers and anxious because they have low self-confidence and self-esteem (Brophy, 2015). The objection to Maslow's theory of motives is reflected in the fact that people are likely to be motivated by different needs simultaneously, i.e., their behaviour does not move in a straight line from lower to higher needs (Woolfolk et al., 2014). People sometimes intentionally neglect the satisfaction of lower needs because they are busy with a task (Brophy, 2015).

SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2004) assumes that people have a natural tendency to grow and develop and achieve an integrative sense of self by building interaction and internal organisation and regulation within themselves and with others in their social environment. Psychological growth and integration do not happen automatically, but depend on the person's social environment, which can be conducive or obstructive. There are three basic universal and innate psychological needs: the need for competence, the need for connection with others and the need for autonomy. The need for competence means that people seek opportunities to exercise and express their abilities. People also have the need to be connected to others, to care for others and to be cared for by others. They need a sense of belonging both to other people and to a particular social group. Finally, autonomy refers to the sense that one's behaviour is an expression of the self (Deci & Ryan, 2004), that is, that one's desires, rather than rewards or pressures, determine our actions (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Social environment, including the classroom, influences autonomous motivation through the satisfaction of basic needs. When these needs are met, students feel self-determined and autonomously motivated, not controlled, and pressured (Brophy, 2015). The satisfaction of these three basic needs is associated with greater intrinsic motivation, satisfaction, better performance, and a desire to repeat the experience (Brophy, 2015), while autonomous motivation in school is associated with greater interest, creativity, learning concepts, affinity for challenge (Woolfolk et al., 2014), academic achievement, better cognitive processing, preference for optimal challenges and greater enjoyment of learning (Alispahić, 2012). The experience of self-determination was found to be influenced by the belief that internal rather than external reasons triggered and governed the activity (Alispahić, 2012). Students in classes where they are highly controlled show little interest, appreciation and effort in school while blaming teachers and the school for their failure (Brophy, 2015). Teachers who have undergone training to support student autonomy in the teaching process contribute to greater engagement in work and greater student interest in the teaching process (Alispahić, 2012).

Classroom events that affect the sense of self-determination and autonomous motivation primarily relate to providing meaningful explanations to students so that they recognise the purpose and significance of each learning activity (Brophy, 2015). Providing information increases feelings of competence and positively influences intrinsic motivation (Woolfolk et al., 2014). The ability to choose tasks supports student autonomy and gives more meaning to the task, which contributes to the internalisation of educational goals (Woolfolk et al., 2014). For tasks that students do not choose for themselves, it is important to emphasise their interesting and challenging aspects so that they are not just experienced as work that needs to be done (Brophy, 2015). It is also necessary for teachers to explain the reasons for the existence of rules and boundaries and to show students that they understand their negative feelings related to teacher control (Woolfolk et al., 2014). To support the need for competence, it is necessary to offer students optimally challenging tasks with opportunities for an active response and immediate feedback (Brophy, 2015). Intrinsic motivation is also influenced by the satisfaction of the need to connect with others. When close emotional bonds are formed and children feel that parents and teachers care about their well-being and interests, intrinsic motivation, and emotional engagement in school increase. Weak closeness and connection to others is often associated with emotional and physical problems (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Positive interpersonal climate and collaborative working rather than a competitive and hostile atmosphere have a positive effect on intrinsic motivation in learning activities that allow mutual communication (Brophy, 2015). It should be considered that some students are more suited for individual work. Then, in group work, there is a risk that students focus more on

socialising than on learning, or that some students do not fulfil their part of the obligations, which then affects the others (Brophy, 2015).

Self-determination theorists do not make a strict dichotomy between extrinsic and intrinsic motives (Deci & Ryan, 2004). Through the developmental process of internalisation and integration, extrinsically motivated actions can become self-determined. Internalisation is the transformation of external rules or values into internal ones, and integration is the process by which these rules or values are integrated into the self. A continuum of extrinsic regulation has thus been identified, ranging from external through semi-internal and identified to integrated. This explains the fact that students may pursue learning goals that are important to them even though they are not intrinsically interesting (Brophy, 2015).

Theory of self-determination is more applicable to the affective rather than the cognitive aspects of engagement in school activities and as well as the possibility of choice in the instructional process has its limitations (Brophy, 2015). The opportunity to choose a task has a positive effect on students' intrinsic motivation and affective aspect of engagement, while it does not affect cognitive processing in terms of applying better learning strategies, remembering key ideas, and drawing conclusions. Some research has shown that the perception of the value of the task has a greater impact on students' feelings and cognitive engagement than the possibility of choice, as it is often the case that none of the tasks offered match students' goals and interests (Brophy, 2015). The possibility of choice can cause anxiety due to the experience of burden if the students are not sure which choice would be best for them. Optimal number of tasks should be offered, neither too many nor too few (Brophy, 2015). The ability to choose a task independently does not suit students from cultures where individualism is valued less and connection with others is valued more (Brophy, 2015).

THEORY OF OPTIMAL EXPERIENCE – FLOW EXPERIENCE

The theory of optimal experience, based on the flow experience, emphasises the importance of intrinsic motivation. It was established by Csikszentmihalyi (1990) based on the experiences that art students had while working. He found that the students were so involved in the work that they did not react to the stimuli surrounding them, and they described their experience as ecstatic excitement, during which they felt satisfaction and confidence in their work abilities. The flow experience occurs during the accomplishment of optimally challenging tasks and the attention and focus on the task leads to a loss of self-awareness and the exclusion of thinking about other things. The activity itself is experienced as a reward and the perception of the passage of time is distorted so that engagement in an activity seems extremely short or long (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). When focused on an activity, one does not think about success or failure, but enjoys the sense of control and accomplishment and develops strategies and skills to respond to the activity itself (Brophy, 2015). Flow experiences are most experienced when engaging in hobbies, but they are also possible at work and in the classroom (Brophy, 2015). However, if the student is anxious because they cannot meet the demands of performance, the potential for experiencing flow in school may be compromised. Therefore, Csikszentmihalyi (1990) points out that it is necessary for teachers to encourage students to strive for challenging but reasonable goals and to support students not only in teaching but also on an emotional level so that they approach tasks confidently and without anxiety. Teachers can promote flow experiences when they know their subjects well and teach them with enthusiasm, which encourages students to see the content as meaningful and to enjoy it. In this way, teachers provide a personal example of striving for intrinsic motivation (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Brophy, 2015).

EXPECTANCY-VALUE THEORIES

Expectancy-value theories take into account both the behaviourist interest in the effects of behaviour and the cognitivist interest in the influence of individual thinking. Motivation requires two components, the expectation that the goal will be achieved and the value of achieving the goal (Woolfolk et al., 2014). The degree to which the student strives for a sense of achievement and their belief in their own competence should also be considered, as they will engage in a task that is difficult enough and therefore rewarding, but not too difficult to succeed. As with moderately difficult tasks there is also the possibility of being unsuccessful, motivation is the result of expecting success in achieving a worthwhile goal and avoiding failure (Lalić-Vučetić, 2015). The cost of achieving a goal also plays a role in its value. When assessing the value of achieving a goal, the effort and energy that must be invested to achieve the goal, as well as the risks that exist if the goal is not achieved, are considered (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Through their expectations of students, teachers can influence the formation of students' expectations and values, as they are more likely to praise and more likely to notice correct answers in students from whom they expect more. Research shows (Pajević, & Fehratović, 2019) that students from whom teachers expected intellectual progress made progress. Belief in students' ability to learn and teachers' encouragement of students to learn leads to better learning outcomes, regardless of students' abilities (Pajević, & Fehratović, 2019).

GOAL THEORIES

To understand students' motivation, goal theories examine what beliefs students have about the purposes of their achievement-related behaviour (Brophy, 2015). Martin Covington (Brophy, 2015) has noted that in a school environment where students are compared to each other in terms of their success and ability, students may become more concerned with maintaining their self-esteem than with learning. Students may activate defence mechanisms that devalue the activity itself or others' opinions of their competence. They may present their abilities lower than they are so that others will lower their expectations of them, or they may have low aspirations so that they are less disappointed if they fail. They can procrastinate, cheat, or engage in other activities to give themselves an excuse for the lack of achievement. Goal theorists have found that students can approach the same activities with different goal orientations, leading them to engage in very different ways and achieve different results (Brophy, 2015). Goal theorists distinguish four basic goal orientations: mastery goals; performance or ego goals; work avoidance goals; and socially oriented goals (Woolfolk et al., 2014).

For mastery-oriented students, the goal is only learning. There is greater persistence in learning, one does not give up as easily when difficulties arise, and one is more likely to seek appropriate help. They use better learning strategies and deeper cognitive processing (Woolfolk et al., 2014). When they experience failure, they change their learning strategies without feeling helpless (Lalić-Vučetić, 2015). They approach learning early enough before the exam, are immersed in preparation, find the exam challenging, and are calm during the exam. Mastery orientation is related to interest in the content, long-term retention, and intention to choose similar courses in the future (Brophy, 2015). Performance orientation is not about improving knowledge, but about performing well in front of others, while external evaluation of performance, good grades and being better than others are more important than learning (Woolfolk et al., 2014). They are focused on showing abilities instead of developing them (Brophy, 2015). Because of the preoccupation with themselves and the public reputation of being successful and capable, these students may engage in activities that are detrimental to learning, such as: cheating, choosing easy assignments or only those that are graded (Woolfolk et al., 2014). They are less likely to ask for help, instead hiding difficulties and

often using superficial learning strategies such as rote memorisation or re-reading. They may often be burdened by negative emotions and worry about how they will present themselves in front of others (Brophy, 2015), as well as show strong test anxiety and academic procrastination (Živčić-Bećirević et al. 2015). Since some research (Brophy, 2015) has shown that performance goals are not necessarily bad when used in combination with mastery goals and with a focus on achieving success rather than avoiding failure, and that students can pursue both goals simultaneously, goal theorists have the "two by two" goal theory model. In this model, both approach and avoidance motives are considered, as are mastery goals and performance goals (Brophy, 2015). Performance approach goals are associated with better grades and test scores, high effort and persistence in learning, great need for achievement and competition (Brophy, 2015). Performance approach goals can, like mastery goals, be associated with the use of active learning strategies and high self-efficacy (Woolfolk et al., 2014). However, with performance-approach goals, the fear of failure can lead to avoidance of challenging tasks and cheating (Brophy, 2015). Due to experiences of failure, these students may develop learned helplessness in the long run and become oriented towards avoidance performance goals. These students are burdened with anxiety, tension, and intrusive thoughts, and generally enjoy learning activities less. Due to the strong need for competition, they avoid working with peers or choose only certain peers (Brophy, 2015).

There is an orientation towards work avoidance among students who do not want to exert themselves but want to have fun and not work (Woolfolk et al., 2014). There is a negative correlation between work avoidance goals and deeper cognitive processes, voluntary reading for fun, positive attitudes towards classes and subjects, test results (Brophy, 2015), while there is a positive correlation with academic procrastination (Živčić-Bećirević et al., 2015). These students have lower levels of academic self-efficacy, and this orientation is based on fear of failure (Koludrović & Reić Ercegovac, 2013).

Social goals are strong in most people and become more pronounced as people grow up and enter adolescence (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Students are more likely to be achievement-oriented if their social goals involve social responsibility and taking on social role obligations (Brophy, 2015). Theorists emphasise that mastery goals can be more effective when combined with social goals because a sense of belonging and responsibility can lead to greater effort in learning (Koludrović & Reić Ercegovac, 2013). The value placed on academic success among peers influences whether the satisfaction of social needs hinders or enhances learning. Satisfying social goals and needs can conflict with academic goals because satisfying one goal takes time away from satisfying others (Woolfolk et al., 2014).

Goals that are perceived as realistic, reasonably difficult, and meaningful are better accepted, which has a positive effect on motivation. Motivation to achieve goals is also influenced by performance feedback, with information about how much has been achieved, rather than what has not been achieved, being more effective (Woolfolk et al., 2014). The practical implications of goal theory in the classroom are reflected in the TARGET programme (Brophy, 2015), which includes six aspects to promote student learning, namely: Task; Authority; Recognition; Grouping; Evaluation; Time. The aspect Task means that optimally challenging tasks are selected, namely those that are interesting for the students and that they can relate to their own experiences. Authority is shared with students, considering their needs and feelings. All students who make significant progress in line with individually set targets receive recognition for a wide range of achievements, avoiding public highlighting of the best achievers. Grouping is about promoting collaborative learning, friendships, and shared interests, while minimising mutual competition and social comparison. Evaluation is based on individual progress assessments, without a focus on comparing individuals and groups. The Time aspect implies that it is organized in a flexible way, and not rigidly as in traditional classrooms.

IMPLICIT THEORIES OF ABILITY

Implicit theories of ability represent people's beliefs about their own abilities and the abilities of people in general. Most adults tend to view ability in two ways: as an entity, i.e., a stable and unchanging personality trait that is predetermined and cannot be influenced or controlled, or as an incremental phenomenon, i.e., a variable category that can be improved through learning, practise, and work (Woolfolk et al., 2014).

Implicit theories of ability influence motivation to learn through the goals students set for themselves in their academic engagement. Students who perceive ability as an entity are more likely to set the performance goals (Brophy, 2015). When ability is understood as an entity, students focus on proving themselves capable in front of others and maintaining their self-esteem. In such a situation, they may focus on engaging in what they are good at without trying too hard and risking failure (Woolfolk et al., 2014). These students may use mechanisms of procrastination and refer to the lack of time (Lalić-Vučetić, 2015). There is a danger of developing learned helplessness because they understand experienced failure as evidence of lack of ability (Brophy, 2015). Students with an incremental understanding of ability are more likely to pursue goals of mastery and persist in their efforts to achieve those goals (Brophy, 2015). If it is considered that the ability can be practised and improved then it means that mastering it will make one become smarter (Woolfolk et al., 2014). These students approach challenging tasks that allow them to improve their competencies (Lalić-Vučetić, 2015). Failure is not perceived as catastrophic, because failure does not mean that the ability is threatened, but that it is necessary to work harder and/or change mastery strategies (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Based on these beliefs about ability, a fixed, unchanging, or developmental self-identity develops (Lalić-Vučetić, 2015). Students with a dominant belief in an unchanging self-identity may withdraw, avoid challenges and criticism, give up easily, and feel threatened by the success of others. A developing self-identity is associated with accepting challenges, persevering in the face of obstacles, and learning from the criticism and success of others. Research has shown that students with a developing self-identity show better academic achievement compared to students with a fixed identity, regardless of the student's intelligence (Lalić-Vučetić, 2015). In order to encourage students' incremental understanding of ability and set learning goals, classroom needs to be organised as a learning community where mutual comparison and competition are minimised and students' attention is focused on self-improvement, emphasising that mastery is achieved in gradual steps, with mistakes being part of learning and not evidence of incompetence (Brophy, 2015). To prevent the adoption of understanding of abilities as an entity (Brophy, 2015) feedback given to students must be on their effort, work, and concentration, rather than on their intellectual ability (Brophy, 2015).

ATTRIBUTION THEORY

Attribution theorists consider causal attributions, that is, the explanations, excuses, and justifications people give themselves about their own behaviour and the behaviour of others, and how these explanations affect motivation. People try to understand their behaviour in terms of success or failure by attributing various explanations and causes to it, such as hard work, ability, luck, interest, help from others, unclear instructions, and the like (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Weiner (Weiner, 1985) hypothesizes that people explain the causes of success and failure in terms of three dimensions: locus of cause, stability, and controllability. The locus dimension is related to self-worth or self-esteem. If a person believes that the cause of his or her success is internal, then success increases self-esteem (Weiner, 1985), pride, and motivation for further activities (Lalić-Vučetić, 2015). The dimension of stability influences

the prediction of future outcomes and thus the motivation to perform in the present (Weiner, 1985). If a student believes that the reason for failing a test is as stable as a low ability that he or she believes is an entity, then he or she is unlikely to exert effort and be motivated to learn more to perform better on the test (Woolfolk et al., 2014). If success is attributed to unstable causes such as mood or happiness, motivation to learn is not at risk (Lalić-Vučetić, 2015). Controllability is related to feelings in the way that a person's belief that he or she is in control of his or her own success or failure may evoke feelings of pride or guilt, whereas attributing success or failure to uncontrollable factors evokes feelings of gratitude, shame, anger, or self-pity (Weiner, 1985). When success is attributed to internal and controllable causes, it leads to a person's belief that they will be able to succeed in the future, which has a positive effect on motivation (Brophy, 2015). The teacher's attribution of the cause of student success or failure, reflected in the teacher's behaviour toward students in the form of grades, comments, suggestions, reprimands, and praise, affects student motivation and achievement (Lalić-Vučetić, 2015). Brophy (2015) emphasizes the need to help students attribute success to a combination of sufficient ability and appropriate effort, as this leads to optimal motivational patterns, and failure to a lack of information, response strategy, or insufficient effort. The feedback given to students when they succeed should be related to the effort they have made, and in a way that positively impacts self-confidence.

SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS

In Bandura's (1997) social learning theory, self-efficacy is one of the key concepts when it comes to motivation to learn and motivation in general. Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy as the belief that a person is capable of organising and carrying out the sequence of actions required to achieve specific successes. Self-efficacy beliefs affect motivation by influencing the prediction of behavioural outcomes and are a predictor of a person's behaviour (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy is built through personal experiences of mastery, because in this way a person believes that they will be successful in performing tasks in the future. Self-efficacy is acquired through vicarious learning and social persuasion and is influenced by the level of emotional arousal, as anxiety and tension reduce efficacy, while optimal levels of arousal increase it (Bandura, 1997; Woolfolk et al., 2014).

Self-efficacy beliefs and attributions of success and failure influence each other. If success is attributed to internal or controllable causes such as ability or hard work, then self-efficacy increases. If success is attributed to external and uncontrollable causes such as luck or help of others, then self-efficacy cannot be increased. Self-efficacy affects attributions, as high efficacy beliefs lead to attributing success and failure to controllable causes such as effort (Woolfolk et al., 2014). High levels of self-efficacy have a strong influence on motivation as they lead to a willingness to engage in a particular activity and set higher goals while low sense of self-efficacy in a particular domain leads to avoiding certain tasks or setting lower goals (Lalić-Vučetić, 2015). Research suggests that even an overestimated perception of one's own efficiency has a positive effect on motivation because a person does not approach a task pessimistically and discouraged, while a feeling of low efficiency leads to giving up easily when faced with obstacles and generally investing less effort (Woolfolk et al., 2014). However, overestimating one's abilities can have a negative impact on motivation, as a person may stop trying if he or she believes that he or she is very successful and has nothing more to learn in that area (Brophy, 2015).

To increase self-efficacy beliefs, it is necessary to encourage students to choose optimal goals that are concrete, challenging but achievable (Brophy, 2015), as well as short-term goals to facilitate assessment of progress (Woolfolk et al., 2014) and provide feedback to help

students achieve success and help them appreciate the development of their abilities through accepting challenges and putting in effort (Brophy, 2015). Teachers need to encourage students to use certain learning strategies and give rewards based on achievement and not just engagement to increase competence (Woolfolk et al., 2014).

SELF-WORTH THEORY

Covington's self-worth theory (2000) is based on the idea that achieving goals creates a sense of self-worth and sense of belonging in a society that values achievement and expertise, and that people have a need to maintain a favourable self-image based on a sense of self-worth and self-respect. Experiences of success reinforce a favourable self-image, while failures indicate incompetence and lead to feelings of inferiority (Covington, 2000). Attributions of success and failure, beliefs about one's worth, self-efficacy and ability are combined into three types of motivational sets: Mastery Orientation, Failure Avoidance and Failure Acceptance (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Mastery-oriented students have low fear of failure, choose moderately difficult and challenging tasks, attribute success to effort, learning strategies and knowledge, have an incremental understanding of abilities and change learning strategies when necessary. Their sense of self-worth, self-efficacy and self-confidence are high (Covington, 2000; Woolfolk et al., 2014).

Students who avoid failure have a great fear of failure, set performance goals that are very difficult or easy, attribute failure to the lack of ability that they consider to be of an entity character, and resort to self-defeating strategies. They do not have a strong sense of self-efficacy and competence because this depends on the grade in the last test (Covington, 2000; Woolfolk et al., 2014). Students who accept failure are characterised by expecting failure and being depressed as a result, and by setting performance goals or not setting goals at all. They also attribute failure to the lack of ability, which they believe is of an entity character, and may develop learned helplessness with low feelings of self-efficacy and self-worth, and a high risk of dropping out of learning (Covington, 2000; Woolfolk et al., 2014).

To promote self-worth, Woolfolk et al. (2014) emphasise the need to show students their progress in a particular area and give them concrete suggestions on how to improve their work. Then point out to students that their improved work, and thus their better grade, reflects their greater competence. It is also necessary to show students the link between their past efforts and their performance and to confront them with self-defeating strategies. Students need to be helped to adopt mastery goals by being presented with examples of people who have made progress and improved their abilities within an area (Woolfolk et al., 2014).

INTERESTS

Interest and emotion certainly play a role in a complex phenomenon such as the motivation to engage in an activity. Cognitive processing, memory, attention, comprehension, and problem solving will be better if the content evokes emotion and interest (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Interest means that attention is drawn to a learning activity because the content itself is valued or positive affective responses are made to it (Brophy, 2015). Individual interest is considered a personality trait and represents a more permanent interest in a particular activity or content (Woolfolk et al., 2014). Situational interest is triggered in the moment and is a response to the attraction of attention in a particular situation when there is a focus and motivation for further exploration of a particular content (Brophy, 2015). Interest in a particular content is positively related to achievement and Brophy (2015) points out that it is desirable to link the curriculum to individual student interests. This is possible either by

offering a choice of activities related to students' interests or by using interests in one area to provide a context for developing skills in activities in other areas. Since the curriculum is developed according to certain standards, most students also encounter areas during their education in which they have no personal interest. Therefore, it is important for teachers to rely on situational interest, i.e., to design lessons in such a way that this interest is aroused and maintained (Woolfolk et al., 2014). This implies engagement with content and activities, which often leads to the development of individual interest (Brophy, 2015; Bojović, 2017).

CONCLUSION

Each of the theories presented has contributed to the explanation of motivation, as have the practical implications arising from these theories. Here we will refer to some practical implications and aspects of the theories presented that we consider particularly important. The value of self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2004) in the context of teaching can be seen in valuing students' needs and feelings, and in fostering a friendly and supportive classroom climate in which students are part of a learning community. This theory recognises that external pressure and control can have a counter-effect and reduce motivation. The importance of this theory is also shown by the fact that it respects the student's need for competence, because the feeling of one's own competence or success increases self-esteem and self-confidence, thus it is likely to have a positive effect on motivation to learn. Goal theorists (Brophy, 2015) recognise that students can approach the same tasks in different ways and pursue different goals. Performance orientation and maintaining self-image is likely to be what motivates many students, and it entails a range of behaviours that interfere with learning. For this reason, goal theorists emphasise the need to encourage students to become mastery oriented and the need to organize teaching in such a way as to minimize mutual comparisons and competitions. We believe that a particularly important attitude of the theories of goals is to encourage students to compare themselves with themselves and thus monitor their progress, and not to compare themselves with others. Similarly, the classroom intervention of the TARGET program (Brophy, 2015), which refers to setting individual goals and assessing students' progress in accordance with those goals, represents an important contribution of the theoretical perspectives that focus on goals. Beliefs about one's abilities, worth, self-efficacy, the causes of success and failure, and the controllability of causes have a strong influence on motivation. Theorists (Brophy, 2015; Woolfolk et al., 2014) have pointed to the importance of the implicit theories about ability that people hold about themselves and others, which influence motivation and goal setting. It has thus been assumed that there is a need to encourage students to adopt attitudes according to which the ability can be improved and developed, which would encourage students to adopt mastery goals. Theorists who recognise the importance of implicit theories of ability, emphasise the need to design instruction in a way that does not encourage students to compare and compete. Emphasis is placed on the importance of teaching students that mastery is achieved in small steps and that mistakes are not evidence of incompetence but an opportunity to learn. Attribution theories have contributed by pointing out the importance of encouraging students to attribute the causes of their success or failure to internal but controllable causes such as effort, work, learning strategies and the like (Brophy, 2015; Woolfolk et al., 2014). Self-efficacy theory and self-worth theory indicate that feelings of self-efficacy and self-worth have a major impact on motivation. (Bandura, 1997; Covington, 2000). People like to work when they feel that they are capable and competent, and success strengthens feelings of self-worth and self-respect, which in turn has a positive effect on motivation. To promote self-efficacy and self-worth, the importance of accepting reasonable and close goals and helping students to use appropriate

learning strategies is pointed out. Most of the theories presented emphasise the importance of intrinsic motivation. However, it is sometimes necessary to rely on extrinsic motives and to use reward systems that have emerged from the behaviourist approach, but in a cautious way (Brophy, 2015). The reality in school systems is that it is often not possible to rely only on students' intrinsic motivation. Motivation is related to interests, but the school system is organised in such a way that most students are confronted with material that does not match their interests. Therefore, it is important to support learning and motivate students to learn even what they are not personally interested in. Although, as we have seen, there are many reasons why students learn, personal interests, curiosity and the inner need for knowledge probably represent the strongest drive to engage in a particular activity. Therefore, it is important for children, parents, guardians, educators, and teachers to encourage and develop curiosity, interests, and the desire to learn as many different areas as possible.

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MOTIVACIJA ZA UČENJE

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Apstrakt.

Motivacija za učenje je povezana sa školskim uspehom, pozitivnim stavovima prema školi, većim zadovoljstvom učenika i nastavnika i sa boljom disciplinom. U razvoju koncepta, motivacija je posmatrana kao crta ličnosti ili stanje koje zavisi od situacije ili kao kombinacija crta i stanja. Osnovna podela koju su teoretičari isticali je razlika između intrinzičke i ekstrinzičke motivacije. Budući da većina aktivnosti nisu ni potpuno intrinzički ni ekstrinzički motivisane, javlja se ideja o postojanju kontinuuma na kome se naše aktivnosti nalaze, između potpuno intrinzički do potpuno ekstrinzički motivisanih, ili se intrinzička i ekstrinzička motivacija posmatraju kao dva nezavisna uzroka sa mogućnošću istovremenog delovanja. U ovom radu su predstavljene osnovni teorijski koncepti motivacije i praktične implikacije u nastavnom procesu i to: bihejvioristički pristup motivaciji, Maslovljeva hijerarhija motiva, teorija samoodređenosti, teorija optimalnog iskustva, teorija očekivanja i vrednosti, teorije cilja, implicitne teorije o sposobnosti, teorija atribucije, uverenja o samoeфикаsnosti, teorija o samovrednosti kao i važnost interesovanja za ono što se uči. Većina teorija naglašava važnost unutrašnje motivacije, dok istraživanja i realnost školskih sistema pokazuju da je ponekad potrebno osloniti se na ekstrinzičke motive i koristiti sisteme nagrađivanja. Mnogo je razloga zašto učenici uče. Lični interesi, radoznalost i unutrašnja potreba za znanjem verovatno su najjači pokretači za bavljenje određenom aktivnošću. Važno je razvijati i negovati radoznalost, interesovanja i želju za učenjem što više različitih oblasti.

Ključne reči: motivacija za učenje, intrinzička motivacija, ekstrinzička motivacija