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Variances in Student Motivation and Educators’ and School Leaders’ Tactics to Motivate: An Integrative Literature

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study was to identify gaps in motivational literature in Thailand and, subsequently, to provide some recommendations for further studies to fill these gaps. While it was a colossal task to review the voluminous research publications on student motivation, the author presented several major theories of motivation and research findings meant to capture development in this field of study. The motivation theories covered in this paper are, as follows: the ERG theory; Herzberg’s two-factor approach; the universalist assumption versus the assumption of content and process; achievement motivation theory; expectancy theory; equity theory of motivation; acquired needs theory; reinforcement theory: a noncognitive theory of motivation; social motivation, instrumental motivation, and achievement motivation; John Biggs theory of motivation; and the expectancy-valence theory. This paper attempts to identify issues untracked in motivation literature and offers some recommendations that could be traced and filled by further studies.

Keywords: Motivation; Student, Learning, Theory
Introduction

Unsurprisingly, the vast majority of motivational theories emerged in western nations; therefore, many of these theories may not be very influential in eastern educational settings. The major objective of this study is to identify gaps in motivational literature in Thailand and, subsequently, to provide some recommendations for further studies to fill these gaps. It was obvious throughout this integrative literature that efforts should be made by both educators and school principals to enhance student motivation and boost commitment, participation, and engagement in the learning process. However, there are various challenges and difficulties to overcome. Based on this literature survey, the researcher strongly recommends the necessity to develop new motivational theories that match Asian cultures, particularly the Thai culture, since the study is aimed at realizing how student motivation can be enhanced in Thai educational settings. The researcher of this study believes that simple solutions can no longer solve student problems in educational institutions. Thus, educators, policy makers, and governments should frequently be required to develop more complex ways of coping with changes in the educational sector in their home countries and overseas.

Integrative Literature in Student Motivation

Numerous studies indicated that a school’s culture has powerful effects on students’ attitudes and levels of academic success. Accordingly, if educational principals can be used to discover methods and techniques to create an environment that motivates students to learn, it is logical to assume that enhanced academic performance will soon follow. However, Renchler (1992) articulated that it is unlikely that school leaders can formulate a single programmatic approach that will be a cure for the many quandaries that contribute to a lack of student motivation. Therefore, Renchler recommended trying different mechanisms, as follows: demonstrate to students how motivation plays a significant role, both professionally and personally; work with students, teachers, parents, and others to establish challenging but attainable school objectives that sponsor
academic achievement and the motivation that goes with it; seek ways to reveal how motivation plays an important role in non-educational settings; make motivation a common topic of discussion among students, teachers, and other staff; show students that success is essential; identify the plethora of ways that students can succeed; reward success in all of its forms; develop or plan some courses that focus on motivation; model the behavior that learning is a lifelong process that can be enjoyable and satisfying for its own sake; recognize and promote the significance of intrinsic motivation; use extrinsic reward systems prudently; invite motivational spokespersons to the classroom setting; ensure that restructuring programs tackle issues related to student motivation; and get parents involved in discussing the issue of motivation. Renchler also argued that if school leaders expect students to become motivated to learn, they must first sustain their own motivation to create schools where students realize that learning is an exciting and worthwhile activity.

Nilsen (2009) believed that in order to increase student learning, educational settings need more effective use of pedagogical knowledge. Based on Nilsen’s research and interviews with bachelor’s students in IT and information systems, valuable information was gathered about what influences motivation, self-efficacy, and value expectations. He suggested the following actions to influence the three factors just mentioned: let students experience success; emphasize student well-being and confidence; increase motivation and enthusiasm among staff; enhance learning by doing; and make students more aware of the value of contents in their syllabi. Maehr and Midgley (1991) presented a plan for teaming up with policy makers at schools to produce some changes in policies by using a goal theory framework. They also believed that motivationists should have enough opportunities for speaking to policy-makers, or decision makers at schools in order to recommend restructuring some practices that may enhance student motivation and performance. From the perspectives of college instructors, Lei (2010) reviewed the pros and cons of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Lei demonstrated that individuals who are intrinsically motivated are likely to
develop great potential for learning different types of course information without the insertion of external rewards. Conversely, individuals who are extrinsically motivated rely exclusively on what is claimed to perform effectively. However, Lei showed that both types of motivation would not necessarily have the same effect on student learning and performance.

Irvin et al. (2007) succinctly offered the following messages to be taken into account:

- A focus on motivation and engagement is vital to any endeavor to enhance adolescent literacy habits and skills.
- Unrelenting engagement in reading and writing assignments and effective coaching leads to better learning.
- Three valuable strategies for improving motivation and engagement are authentic tasks, critical literacy, and use of technology to sustain literacy improvement.
- Students’ motivations to read and write are vastly uneven and dependent on purpose, perceived value, self-efficacy, interest, and context.
- Focusing on tutoring without attention to motivation is unlikely to be successful with adolescents.
- Classroom environments and teacher actions can stimulate or hinder student motivation and engagement in academic tasks.
- Developing students’ competencies through explicit instructions and creating a supportive learning environment are likely to increase student engagement and achievement.

Jones (2009) presented the MUSIC model of academic motivation that can be employed by educators to engage students in the learning process. It consists of: (a) eMpowerment, (b) usefulness, (c) success, (d) interest, and (e) caring. Moreover, Jones proffered some helpful tips to be considered when applying the MUSIC model constituents to teaching. These were:

- Instructors should take enough time to decide how to amalgamate the model’s ingredients into their course.
- The first time a course is offered; instructors should focus on components of the model that they believe are essential.
• During the course, instructors should keep some reflexive journals, records, or diaries about the success of their instruction and recognize changes that they could develop if they were to teach the subject again.

• Instructors should have the potential to adopt instructional strategies that have been demonstrated to be effective by colleagues or other faculty members; most importantly, instructors should always enjoy the process of designing or structuring their courses.

Strong et al. (1995) revealed that people who are engaged in their occupations are motivated by four looming goals, each of which satisfies particular desires, such as, success (i.e., the need for mastery); curiosity (i.e., the need for consciousness); originality (i.e., the need for lucidity); and relationships (i.e., the need for connection with others). Moreover, they concluded that these goals can help students in dealing constructively with the intricacy, perplexity, recurrence, and haziness of life. Another model of motivation for achievement embraced three broad motivational factors that influence outcome accomplishment: (a) attitude or belief about one’s competence to achieve the outcome, (b) drive or desire to reach the outcome, and (c) tactics or techniques employed to get the outcome (Tuckman, 1999). Moreover, Tuckman argued that without motivation there is no motive to believe that one is equipped with the necessary action to achieve. Therefore, there no reasons to even attempt it. Additionally, Tuckman mentioned that efforts should be made by instructors to enhance student attitudes or beliefs in their own aptitude; to boost commitment, participation, and engagement in the learning process; and to teach students about pertinent strategies that can be applied. Lang and Hall (2005) discovered that lack of motivation at school not only appears to affect performance, but also may have effects reaching outside the school. Lang and Hall urged that instructors must take the challenge of creating motivating milieus in which students may acquire indispensable skills to act as professionals. In another study, Debnath (2005) explored the integrated model of college student motivation and support, which
initiated that a student low level of effort could be traced back to one or more of the following:

- the classroom environment, because structural elements (e.g. task variety, autonomy) are not suitably considered;
- an inappropriate goal emphasized by the classroom environment, such as students who prefer performance-avoidance goals are forced to pursue mastery goals;
- student factors (e.g., abilities deficiency, inadequate role perceptions, or mismatch between the learning style and structural designs);
- students’ weak achievement for the outcomes; and
- causal attribution for past failures made to abilities, thus, lowering expectancies.

Debnath also argued that, once the problems are analyzed, instructors can exploit the model in developing motivational strategies required to cope with such dilemmas and consequently enhance motivation.

Rost (2006) stated that we often forget that all of our learning activities are filtered through our students’ motivation, and without it, there is no life in classrooms. Rost identified three levels or layers of motivation in language learning, as follows:

- The first layer of motivation is finding one’s passion.
- The second layer of motivation is changing one’s reality.
- The third layer of motivation is connecting to learning activities.

Additionally, Rost explicitly acknowledged:

The three layers of motivation is one way of conceptualizing how a teacher can influence each student. If we can make progress with our students in each of these layers, we can become more motivating teachers and bring the heart of language teaching into our classrooms (p. 4).
Donze and Gunnes (2011) focused on the correct classroom structure as an essential tool for balancing the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors to help keep students on track. In their study, they indicated that extrinsic rewards, such as grades, work well for high ability students. Nonetheless, for low- or intermediate-ability students, instructors should not solely count on extrinsic rewards to foster performance. Most significantly, Donze and Gunnes assumed that instructors should opt for a classroom structure focused more toward mastery. In doing so, the instructor is likely to:

- encourage effort by intensifying student interest for the task;
- encumber these students from adopting an avoidance behavior and keep them involved in the classroom activities;
- motivate these students when they are reluctant to take risks by focusing less on the test result; and
- develop their capacity to conquer fears or to overcome failure by preserving their self-confidence in the end.

In a similar vein, Svinicki (2005) assumed that, perhaps the most fundamental step is coming to grips with the reality that one have done one’s utmost to promote a mastery orientation for students; however, to do so, select knowledge and skills that are worth acquiring; pitch the tasks set for students just beyond their base qualifications but well within their reach and expect them to succeed; create a safe environment to take the risks involved in learning; promote cooperation among students in the class where everyone supports everyone else’s attempt to learn; if possible, give the students the freedom to choose what to learn or the way they learn; be a good model of a mastery-oriented learner in all one does oneself; and accept the fact that one’s own is not the only or even the most important venue in which students function. Interestingly, Ames (1992) believed:

In considering approaches to motivation enhancement, it is important to note that motivation is too often equated with
quantitative changes in behavior (e.g., higher achievement, more time on task) rather than qualitative changes in the ways students view themselves in relation to the task, engage in the process of learning, and then respond to the learning activities and situation (p. 268).

Meece et al. (2006) reported that, over the last two decades, goal theories of achievement have developed as a major framework for diagnosing the influence of learning environments on a range of developmental and learning outputs. Moreover, they exposed that young individuals experience diminished motivation, when classroom environments emphasize demonstrating ability and competing for high grades.

Additionally, Chu and Choi (2005) argued that some procrastination behaviors are not harmful or lead to negative outcomes. Thus, they distinguished between two kinds of procrastinators: passive procrastinators who fail to complete tasks on time and active procrastinators who choose to work under pressure. Succinctly, the study illustrated that despite the fact that active procrastinators defer to the same degree as passive procrastinators, they are more analogous to non-procrastinators than to passive procrastinators in terms of purposive use of time, control of time, self-efficacy belief, coping styles, and outcomes including academic performance. In another investigation, Asif (2011) necessitated the need to scrutinize internal and external elements that contribute to students’ goal setting. For instance, these elements could be instructional approach in class, academic curriculum, extracurricular activities, peer group, social environment, and family background. Kaplan and Maehr (1999) reported some crucial issues that should be taken into consideration. These were:

- Goal orientations are likely to influence emotional well-being.

- Tracking task goals has a serious positive correlation with
all indices of well-being, as well as with views of academic efficiency and grades.

- Pursuing ego goals has a negative relationship with the general indices of well-being.

Interestingly, Kaplan and Maehr found that goal orientation is connected to emotions and cognitions that not only contribute to successful performance but also relate to psychological well-being more generally. Gonzalez-Dehass et al. (2005) studied how parent involvement is related to students’ motivation and they stated, “when parents are involved, students report more effort, concentration, and attention. Students are more inherently interested in learning, and they experience higher perceived competence” (p. 117). Gonzalez-Dehass et al. (2005) accepted that, “when parents show an interest in their child’s education by getting involved, students adopt a mastery goal orientation to learning where they are more likely to seek challenging tasks, persist through academic challenges, and experience satisfaction in their schoolwork” (p. 118). Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008) examined the link between teachers’ motivational teaching practices and their students’ language learning motivation. They confirmed that motivational strategies imply: (a) instructional interventions practiced by the instructor to educe and stimulate student motivation, and (b) self-regulating strategies that are employed persistently by individual students to manage the level of their own motivation. Kauffman and Husman (2004) explored how students’ conceptions of time influence motivation and achievement and reported that numerous investigations concluded that students’ conceptions of the future have an authentic and momentous influence on their beliefs and motivation to learn that, in turn, influences their achievement positively. Research conducted by Jones and Hill (2003) provided rich empirical support for understanding patterns of commitment and student motivation for community service involvement. Jones and Hill recognized the following:
• Patterns of participation in community service are mediated by involvement influences and motivations in high schools, the role of peers, and by how strongly community service is connected to an emerging sense of self.

• If the quality of required services is high, such as students performing meaningful service, the negative consequences may be diminished.

• Faculty members and employers can improve the possibility of community service involvement by making opportunities perceptible and easily accessible.

• If colleges and universities are interested in attracting a greater number of students in meaningful community service, attention must be focused not only on those who will most likely continue, but also on those most likely to give up when transitioning from high school to university.

• It seemed obvious that when someone assisted learners to make sense of why they were doing what they were doing, it was more significant to them and their commitments deepened.

• Participation in community service will more likely grow into commitment if it is of high quality and integrated into an evolving sense of self.

• With encouragement from colleagues and support from university faculty and student affairs educators, the possibilities of developing internal motivations for service and for connecting service to students’ sense of self could be realized.

Johns and Woolf (2006) proposed a probabilistic model that comprises four categories of random variables; (a) student proficiency; (b) motivation; (c) evidence of motivation; and (d) a student’s response to a problem. Their model utilizes a student’s behavior to disambiguate between proficiency and motivation with proficiency modeled as a continuous variable and motivation as a dynamic variable. These postulations were based on students’
predisposition to demonstrate diverse behavioral patterns over the course of a tutoring session. Another researcher displayed that the conceptualization of evolved motivation systems as a manifold set of intrinsic rewards productively accounts for the ways in which learners diverge in their perceptions of anticipated task challenge and communication trepidation concerned with various collaborative learning modalities, such as face-to-face, writing, and electronic messaging (Dobos, 1996).

It is essential that instructors monitor and cultivate adaptive motivation beliefs in their students because achievement goal orientations influence academic outcomes (Beghetto, 2004). Interestingly, Beghetto offered some items that embody different achievement goal orientations. The item with a positive sign represents a mastery orientation and the item with a negative sign represents a performance-avoid orientation, as follows:

- Making mistakes is part of teaching (+).
- I want to learn as much as possible from this science experiment (+).
- It is important that I keep trying, even if I make mistakes (+).
- I just want to avoid doing poorly in this class (-).
- When I don’t understand my math assignment, I often guess instead of asking someone for help (-).
- I am afraid if I ask questions I will look “dumb” (-).

Similarly, Lumsden (1999) differentiated between mastery goals and performance goals. Lumsden clarified that students who have mastery goals consider that effort leads to success or mastery; they also devote more time to learning tasks and demonstrate higher levels of persistence in the face of failure. Alternatively, when performance goals take priority, students do not focus on the learning activity itself. Instead, they concentrate primarily on how their performance on a task will reflect on their perceived ability and
sense of self-worth. In other words, they view ability rather than effort, as the strongest determination of outcome. Importantly, Artelt et al. (2003) articulated:

Students need to learn how to learn. From the perspective of teaching this implies that effective ways of learning, including goal setting, strategy selection and the control and evaluation of the learning process can and should be fostered by the educational setting and by teachers (p. 73).

Sidelinger (2010) expressed that just as teachers should incorporate meaningful student-directed tasks in classrooms, they should also periodically evaluate students’ levels of proactivity and academic locus of control. Sidelinger also informed that providing students some opportunities to take ownership over their own learning will motivate them to become more academically engaged. Marshall (2002) believed that interpersonal interactions within the classroom environment occur on three levels. These are: teacher-to-student; student-to-teacher; and student-to-student. Therefore, teachers should be aware of how each of these levels of interpersonal interaction can affect the classroom environment. Cummings and Worley (2005) elucidated:

teachers are being asked to participate in improving the quality and performance of the school; to collectively solve problems and generate new and more effective approaches to teaching and learning; and to demonstrate new ways of relating to each other, to students, and to the community (p. 595).

Alireza et al. (2011) recommended the following to be considered for further study by authors who are interested in the field of cognition:

- selecting a sample that covers students in different grades to show the variances in motivation and met cognition during the school
• examining and comparing rural and urban student status, such as cognition strategies, goal orientation, and child-rearing style, which can help educational settings in planning of rural communities;

• examining influential factors on motivation and met cognition could enhance the body of scientific research. For instance, studying the teacher contribution, parent education, amount of income, economic household possibilities, mental and social atmosphere in the classroom, and role of peers can provide an appropriate framework for scientific investigation; and

• undertaking experimental research using relevant strategies in order to learn the cognition and met cognition strategies for rural students and studying and comparing educational, cognitive, emotional consequences that can help instructors cope with strategies and scientific methods.

Moreover, Swanson and Holton (2001) informed that cognitivism has made a major contribution to human resource development and adult learning, as follows: (a) information processing: central to cognitivism is the notion of the human mind as an information processor; (b) metacognition: along with information processing mechanisms, cognitivism also emphasizes how individuals manage their cognitive processes; that is called metacognition; and (c) cognitive development: the focus on how cognition develops over the life span. Additionally, McGuire and Jorgensen (2010) clarified the following:

• Cognitivist perspectives focus on the psychological features of learning.

• Behaviorist perspectives give preference to the ‘contextualised nature’ of individual action and the array of environmental aspects influencing such action.

• Humanist perspectives seek to interpret learning in the context of individual ‘self-definition’ and ‘self-actualisation’.

• Critical perspectives draw attention to conflicts and
underlying assumptions in endeavoring to achieve significant change.

Motivational Theories

1. ERG Theory

Alderfer generated the existence, relatedness, and growth (ERG) theory to offer a simplified hierarchy of needs with the following three stages:

- growth needs: similar to Maslow’s needs for ‘self-actualization’ and ‘self-esteem’;
- relatedness needs: similar to Maslow’s need for affiliation; these needs are satisfied through significant and appropriate support from the work group; and
- existence needs: lower-order needs for security, safety, and survival (Phatak et al., 2009).

2. Herzberg’s Two-Factor Approach

Herzberg asserted that without sufficient ‘hygiene factors’ such as good environment, individuals will be unsatisfied and unmotivated; However, to produce highly motivated individuals, he claimed that motivators such as challenge, responsibility, autonomy, and achievement are paramount (McFarlin & Sweeney, 2006).

3. The Universalist Assumption Versus the Assumption of Content and Process

The first supposition is that the motivation process is universal, that all individuals are motivated to pursue goals they value; however, culture influences the precise goals that are practiced. The second supposition includes two general types content theories construe work motivation in terms of what invigorates an individual’s behavior; process theories of work motivation interpret how an individual’s behavior is initiated (Hodgetts et al., 2006).
4. The Background of Achievement Motivation Theory

Hodgetts et al. (2006) noted, “Achievement motivation theory holds that individuals can have a need to get ahead, to attain success, and to reach objectives. Note that like the upper-level needs in Maslow’s hierarchy or like Herzberg’s motivators, the need for achievement is learned” (p. 380). In addition to that, they stated that investigators have found various techniques to develop ‘high-achievement needs’ in people. These involve educating individuals to implement the following:

- Receive feedback on performance and use this information to direct efforts into spots where accomplishment expected will be attained.
- Imitate individuals who have been successful.
- Develop an intrinsic desire for success and challenges.
- Daydream in positive terms by depicting oneself as successful in the pursuit of central objectives.

5. Expectancy Theory and Equity Theory of Motivation

Expectancy theory advocates that an individual’s efforts are inclined by the anticipated results for those efforts; therefore, individuals are more likely to achieve goals if they are offered some reward (Madura, 2001).

Equity theory offers that reward should be reasonably well balanced in terms of each individual’s involvement; otherwise, individuals may reduce their contributions or accomplishments (Madura, 2001).

6. Acquired Needs Theory

In acquired needs theory, David McClelland proposed that specific types of needs are gained during an individual’s lifetime. He stated that there are three needs most frequently inspected:

- needs for achievement: the potential to achieve something difficult, achieve a high standard of success, master multifaceted tasks,
and exceed others;

- need for affiliation: the aspiration to develop close relationships, circumvent conflict of interest, and create warm friendships; and

- need for power: the willingness to dominate others, be responsible for others, and have power over others (Daft, 2005).

7. Reinforcement Theory: A Noncognitive Theory of Motivation

This theory focuses on influencing behavior through rewards and punishments. Reinforcement and the process of shaping behavior through reinforcement are called ‘behavior modification’ (French, 1994). Nevertheless, a major implication of this theory is that an emphasis on rewards will tend to be more effective than an emphasis on punishments. According to the theory, if a desired behavior is followed immediately by some reward, the individual will be motivated to repeat that behavior, but if the effect of the behavior is disconcerting or displeasing to the individual, he or she is unlikely to repeat that behavior (French, 1994). Likewise, reinforcement theory can be applied by using a set of methods known as behavior modification, which suggests four choices for controlling an individual’s behavior, as follows:

- Positive reinforcement denotes raising the frequency of a behavior by following the behavior with an enjoyable outcome.

- Negative reinforcement raises the frequency of a behavior by eradicating something aversive after the behavior is performed.

- Extinction seeks to eliminate the frequency of a behavior by removing the consequence that is reinforcing it.

- Punishment seeks to reduce the frequency of a behavior by introducing an aversive consequence directly after the behavior (DeSimone et al., 2002).
8. **Social Motivation, Instrumental Motivation, and Achievement Motivation**

   - Social motivation is motivating individuals to learn for the sake of social appreciation from an individual who is important to them.
   - Instrumental motivation is based on the postulation that individuals are encouraged to learn by the rewards they obtain or by the aspiration to evade retribution.
   - Achievement motivation is the propensity to struggle for high standards of performance on a competitive task (Smith, 1992).

9. **John Biggs Theory of Motivation**

   Biggs proposed that there are three phases of motivation without considering the three phases to be a hierarchy. These are:
   - Utility motivation is when the learner agrees to be engaged in the learning experience because the practice will produce some valuable benefit other than the content learned.
   - Achievement motivation is when the learner gains deep satisfaction in achieving some reckonable goals.
   - Interest motivation is when the learner is extremely fascinated by the topic content itself (Delahaye, 2000).

10. **The Expectancy-Valence Theory**

    This theory suggests that motivation is a process of four chronological steps. The four steps in sequence are:
    - In expectancy one, the learner chooses whether the learning task is attainable but challenging, or if it is too easy or too difficult.
    - In expectancy two, the learner guesses that once the task is accomplished, the anticipated rewards will follow.
    - In outcome one, the observable (to the learner) reward does eventuate.
    - In outcome two, the observable reward has some internal value or valence to the learner (Delahaye, 2000).
Gaps in Motivation Literature in Thailand and Recommendations for Further Studies

According to the major purpose of this integrative literature, the researcher of this study intended to realize how we can enhance student motivation; and boost commitment, participation, and engagement in Thai educational settings. In the reviewing process, the researcher identified a considerable number of issues untracked in motivation literature. Subsequently, gaps could be traced and filled by further studies. There is a dearth of research regarding the factors that motivate students in Thailand (Petchuay, 2015). As discussed in the literature, Jones (2009) offered the MUSIC model of academic motivation that can be applied by educators in the learning process. Hence, researchers in future studies can examine this model in Thai classrooms, with regard to the supportive tips presented by Jones, when incorporating the MUSIC model mechanisms into teaching. Another interesting study could be related to factors that motivate educators and policy-makers to be engaged in their occupations in Thai educational institutions. Based on the study of Strong, Silver, and Robinson (1995), people are engaged in their professions to fulfill particular desires (e.g., success, curiosity, originality, and relationships).

One of the most controversial topics in all Thai educational institutions that should be periodically examined by academics is: the reasons behind Thai students’ low level of effort in classrooms. The disclosure of these reasons could lead to successfully developing pertinent strategies to enhance motivation among Thai students. Maehr and Midgley (1991) believed that instructors could team up with policy-makers at educational settings to engage in developing policies through the application of the goal theory framework. However, this needs to be investigated in Thai educational institutions. In other words, one might ask: Is it possible in a hierarchical structure and seniority-based culture to allow educators to shape or design practices in organizations with decision makers who often retain the power to perform these tasks? Similarly, Cummings
and Worley (2005) reported that teachers are increasingly required to participate in quality improvement and performance of the school. However, in Thai educational settings, it can be argued that instructors have limited opportunities to engage in developing school policies. Educators in Thailand are expected to implement policies rather than shaping them or taking initiatives to discuss them with administrators due to cultural issues.

Moreover, as indicated by Kauffman and Husman (2004), students’ perceptions of the future are likely to have an influential effect on their beliefs, motivations, and accomplishments. Nevertheless, it is generally believed that many Thai students lack plans for a variety of reasons. For example, the belief that “What will happen, will happen whether we want it or not”; the belief that “I am too young to think of my future”; the belief that “Family members could easily find jobs for us through their connections with those in positions of power”; the belief that the students should be told what to do by their peers or seniors; and finally, the reliance on getting a job in a family business, are some of the reasons behind the lack of motivation among Thai students in classrooms. According to Kakkar (2013), most Thai students do not work independently, avoid taking initiatives, and do as they are told. The major reasons for these behaviors or attitudes are: (a) to avoid making mistakes and (b) to avoid losing face. Moreover, the author believes that the average Thai places a very high value on the family, status, and money. Following this line of thought, future studies should explore how these values can motivate Thai students.

Another area of study could be related to the barriers, pros, and cons involved in providing Thai students the opportunities to take ownership over their own learning to become motivated and more academically engaged. How can teachers encourage, motivate, and inspire students to perceive themselves as originators rather than followers? Another significant question that should be investigated: Why do teachers in Thai educational institutions choose to increase
student efforts rather than their ability to study effectively? We also need to know to what extent interpersonal interactions on the following three levels affect the classroom environment: (a) teacher-to-student; (b) student-to-teacher; and (c) student-to-student. Furthermore, Lumsden (1999) distinguished between mastery goals and performance goals. Hence, future studies may be explorations of the issue of how we can increase the number of Thai students who have mastery goals rather than performance goals. In addition, why might intrinsic factors such as recognition and achievement be less motivating in the less developed countries than they are in the developed countries? Ultimately, researchers could develop comparative case studies between the internal and external factors that contribute to student goal setting.

**Conclusion**

The significance of motivation is that it can lead to behaviors and actions that reflect high performance in organizations. Theories of motivation cannot be developed once for a lifetime. Accordingly, factors behind the human motivation must be examined in different cultures and settings periodically to ensure applicability and success. Educational settings in Thailand should be very selective in their choice of motivational theories to suit their culture, values, resources, and environment. Some important Thai values that must be taken into account involve the following: (a) *Hia Kiat*: respect or honor seniority, education, position; (b) *Kreng Jai*: restrain interest or desire to maintain good relationships; (c) *Nam Jai*: Voluntary kindness; (d) *Boon tam kam sang*: success and failure are due to acts from past life; (e) *Roojak tee sung tee tham*: seniority system or respect for seniors; (f) *Hen jai*: willingness to listen and be flexible; (g) *Sum ruam*: do not express extreme emotions; and (h) *Boonkhun*: show gratitude to people who help you. Finally, it can be said that there are many significant educational implications to be drawn from research on student motivation because they highly influence different
aspects of the learning process (e.g., the role of students, teachers, the administrators, and the curriculum).

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