

Motivational Strategies of Parents and Teachers: A Synergistic Approach to Enhancing Student Engagement

Dr. Farzana Munawwar^{1*}

Article History	Abstract
Received: 04-07-2024 Acceptance: 19-08-2024 Published: 15-09-2024 Author 1. *Associate Professor, Department of Education, Al-Falah University Email: farzanaatariq@gmail.com	Motivation serves as the cornerstone of academic success, shaping students' persistence, goal orientation, and lifelong learning habits. This study aims to analyse the collaborative motivational strategies of parents and teachers to enhance student engagement and achievement. Referring to theories like Self-Determination Theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1959), the study examines how internal drive and external incentives interact and suggests effective ways to meet various student requirements. Parental engagement, which includes emotional support and open dialogue, complements teacher methods such as gamification and formative feedback. It is recommended to adopt collaborative strategies that combine home and school settings to improve both academic results and mental wellness of students. This paper enhances the discussion on educational psychology by connecting theory to practical suggestions, providing a guide for stakeholders to develop motivated and resilient
	Keywords: Intrinsic motivation, Extrinsic motivation, Parental involvement, Teacher strategies, Student engagement, Incentives, Academic performance

INTRODUCTION

Motivation, defined as the psychological force that initiates, sustains, and directs goal-orientated behaviour (Ryan & Deci, 2000), is a critical determinant of academic success. In educational contexts, motivation transcends mere academic performance; it influences students' curiosity, resilience, and capacity to overcome challenges. While extensive research has explored the individual roles of parents and teachers in motivating students, few studies address the synergistic potential of their combined efforts. This paper fills this gap by analysing how parents and teachers can collaboratively employ evidence-based strategies to nurture intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Theoretical Foundations

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) posits that intrinsic motivation thrives when three core psychological needs—autonomy, competence, and relatedness—are met (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Conversely, extrinsic motivation relies on external rewards or punishments, which may yield short-term compliance but undermine long-term engagement. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1959) further distinguishes between motivators (e.g., achievement, recognition) and hygiene factors (e.g., rewards, penalties), emphasising the need to address both to sustain motivation. These frameworks underpin the analysis of parental and teacher strategies in this study.

Synergy: International Journal of Multidisciplinary Studies is a peer-reviewed open-access journal. © 2024 The Author(s). This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY 4.0). This license permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author(s) and source are credited. For more information, *See http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/*.



Research Objectives

- 1. To evaluate the role of parents in fostering intrinsic motivation through emotional support and autonomy.
- 2. To assess teacher strategies that enhance engagement via pedagogical innovation and formative assessment.
- 3. To propose collaborative approaches for aligning home and school environments.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Motivation in educational contexts has been extensively studied through the lenses of psychology, pedagogy, and organisational behaviour, with scholars emphasising its role in shaping academic engagement, resilience, and lifelong learning. Parental involvement is widely recognised as a cornerstone of student motivation. Herman et al. (2014) identified parental engagement as a primary predictor of academic achievement, arguing that parents who model enthusiasm for learning and provide structured support foster intrinsic motivation in children. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's (2005) model delineates three mechanisms through which parents influence motivation: modelling (demonstrating the value of education), reinforcement (using praise and feedback), and instructional support (creating resourcerich home environments). For instance, Grolnick and Ryan (1989) found that children whose parents encouraged autonomy-such as allowing them to choose study topics or extracurricular activitiesexhibited higher levels of intrinsic motivation and academic self-regulation. These findings align with Self-Determination Theory (SDT), which posits that autonomy, competence, and relatedness are essential for sustaining intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). However, excessive parental pressure, termed "helicopter parenting", can backfire, leading to anxiety and diminished self-efficacy (Schiffrin et al., 2014). Thus, balancing support with autonomy emerges as a critical challenge in parental motivational strategies.

Teachers, conversely, operate within institutional frameworks to cultivate motivation through pedagogical innovation and classroom dynamics. **Dörnyei's (2001)** motivational strategies framework emphasises four dimensions: creating a positive classroom climate, generating initial interest through goal setting, maintaining engagement via varied activities, and fostering reflection through feedback. Gamification, such as using platforms like Kahoot! to transform lessons into interactive games, has been shown to enhance extrinsic motivation while gradually nurturing intrinsic interest (**Sailer & Homner**, **2020**). Similarly, formative assessment techniques—such as peer reviews and self-assessment journals— help students internalise learning goals and track progress, thereby reinforcing competence (Black & Wiliam, 1998). Social-emotional learning (SEL) programs, such as Yale's RULER, further illustrate how teachers can reduce test anxiety and build emotional resilience, indirectly boosting motivation (**Brackett et al., 2011**). However, extrinsic rewards like grades or prizes risk undermining intrinsic motivation if overemphasised, a phenomenon termed the "overjustification effect" (**Deci et al., 1999**). This highlights the necessity for teachers to prioritise strategies that not only incorporate external incentives but also foster curiosity and mastery to maintain student engagement.

The interplay between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation remains a central theme in educational research. SDT differentiates these constructs, with intrinsic motivation driven by internal satisfaction and extrinsic motivation reliant on external rewards (**Ryan & Deci, 2000**). While extrinsic motivators— such as scholarships or praise—can stimulate short-term effort, studies suggest they may reduce long-term engagement if students perceive learning as a means to an end (**Deci et al., 1999**). Conversely, intrinsic motivation, cultivated through autonomy-supportive environments, correlates with deeper cognitive processing and creativity (**Niemiec & Ryan, 2009**). For example, students encouraged to pursue passion projects or self-directed research often exhibit sustained engagement and innovation (**Hidi & Renninger, 2006**). This dichotomy highlights the importance of integrating both motivational types: extrinsic rewards can initiate engagement, while intrinsic drivers sustain it.

Despite extensive research on individual roles of parents and teachers, few studies explore synergistic

strategies that align home and school environments. **Jeynes (2007)** argues that disjointed efforts—such as parents emphasising grades while teachers focus on creativity—create conflicting messages, diluting motivational impact. **Epstein's (2018)** theory of "school-family-community partnerships" advocates for collaborative frameworks, such as joint workshops or digital communication platforms, to harmonise goals. Finland's education system exemplifies this approach, where minimal standardised testing and emphasis on play-based learning in early years reflect a unified philosophy among parents and teachers (**Sahlberg, 2011**). Such collaboration not only reinforces consistent expectations but also addresses socioemotional needs, fostering holistic student development.

In summary, existing literature points out the transformative potential of parental and teacher strategies in motivating students. Yet, there is still a significant need to comprehend how these individuals can work together to create settings that balance both internal and external motivational factors. This study aims to address this gap by proposing collaborative strategies that integrate parental and teacher strengths to create a cohesive motivational environment for students.

PARENTAL MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES

Parental motivational strategies significantly influence children's academic and personal development by combining emotional support, structured guidance, and collaboration with schools. Grounded in Self-Determination Theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and Baumrind's parenting styles, effective strategies promote intrinsic motivation through autonomy support while addressing necessary extrinsic factors. Providing emotional security and encouraging autonomy—such as allowing children to make meaningful choices-enhances self-regulation and motivation (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989). In contrast, controlling parenting is linked to anxiety and reduced self-efficacy (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). Structured environments also play a vital role; consistent routines and access to educational resources improve academic outcomes (Moroni et al., 2015; Bradley et al., 2001). Parents who model lifelong learning and engage with their children's education reinforce positive attitudes toward learning (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005). Communication with schools, through parent-teacher conferences and digital tools, further strengthens motivation by aligning home and school expectations (Jeynes, 2007; Kraft & Rogers, 2015). While extrinsic rewards can offer short-term benefits, overuse may reduce intrinsic interest due to the overjustification effect (Deci et al., 1999). Framing rewards as recognition rather than bribery can preserve internal motivation (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000). Additionally, cultural and socioeconomic contexts shape how strategies are implemented; for instance, Asian collectivist values often emphasize academic duty, while low-income families may rely on warmth and expectations over material resources (Chao & Tseng, 2002; Davis-Kean, 2005). Avoiding detrimental practices like helicopter parenting and punitive discipline is also crucial, as these are associated with increased anxiety and reduced problemsolving skills (Schiffrin et al., 2014; Gershoff et al., 2018). Overall, a balanced, evidence-based approach to parenting fosters both academic success and emotional well-being.

TEACHER MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES

Teachers play a pivotal role in shaping students' academic motivation through pedagogical innovation, classroom dynamics, and personalised support. Effective strategies are grounded in theories such as Self-Determination Theory (SDT) and Dörnyei's (2001) motivational framework, which emphasize autonomy, competence, and relatedness as foundational to sustaining student engagement. One widely adopted approach is gamification, which integrates game-like elements into learning to enhance extrinsic motivation while nurturing intrinsic interest. For example, platforms like Kahoot! and Classcraft transform lessons into interactive quests, where students earn points or badges for completing tasks. Sailer and Homner (2020) found that gamification increases participation and persistence, particularly in STEM subjects, by leveraging competition and immediate feedback. However, overreliance on extrinsic rewards risks triggering the *overjustification effect*, where intrinsic motivation diminishes when external incentives are removed (Deci et al., 1999). To mitigate this, teachers are encouraged to pair gamification with reflective activities, such as journaling, to help students internalise learning goals (Dörnyei, 2001).

Formative assessment is another critical strategy, enabling teachers to provide low-stakes, continuous

feedback that fosters competence. Black and Wiliam (1998) demonstrated that formative techniques such as peer reviews, self-assessment checklists, and one-on-one conferences—help students identify gaps in understanding and track progress. For instance, a meta-analysis by Hattie (2009) revealed that timely feedback increases academic performance by 0.79 standard deviations, underscoring its motivational power. Additionally, project-based learning (PBL) contextualises abstract concepts within real-world scenarios, enhancing relevance and intrinsic motivation. Research by Thomas (2000) found that students engaged in project-based learning (PBL) demonstrated significantly higher problemsolving skills and creativity in comparison to those in traditional lecture-based settings.

Social-emotional learning (SEL) programmes further illustrate how teachers can address non-cognitive barriers to motivation. Programs like Yale's RULER teach emotional regulation, empathy, and stress management, which reduce test anxiety and create safer learning environments (Brackett et al., 2011). For example, a randomised controlled trial in 62 schools showed that students in SEL programmes improved academic performance by 11 percentile points compared to peers in control groups (Durlak et al., 2011). Teachers also foster motivation by cultivating growth mindsets, where students view challenges as opportunities for growth rather than threats to self-worth. Dweck (2006) found that praising effort (e.g., "Your hard work paid off!") instead of innate ability (e.g., "You're so smart!") encourages resilience and persistence.

Finally, **technology integration** offers tools for personalised learning. Adaptive software like Khan Academy tailors content to individual skill levels, allowing students to progress at their own pace (Pane et al., 2017). However, digital tools must be complemented by human interaction; a study by Zheng et al. (2016) cautioned that excessive screen time can erode teacher-student rapport, which is vital for sustaining motivation.

SYNERGISTIC APPROACHES: BRIDGING HOME AND SCHOOL

The interplay between home and school environments is critical for fostering consistent, holistic motivation. Epstein's (2018) theory of *school-family-community partnerships* advocates for collaborative frameworks that align goals across stakeholders. For example, **joint workshops** allow parents and teachers to co-design strategies such as behavioural contracts or shared reading programmes. In a longitudinal study, Jeynes (2007) found that students whose parents attended school workshops scored 0.4–0.6 standard deviations higher on standardised tests than peers without such involvement.

Digital communication platforms like Seesaw or Remind facilitate real-time updates on student progress, enabling parents to reinforce classroom learning at home. A case study in a Title I school revealed that weekly parent-teacher messaging increased homework completion rates by 27% (Kraft & Rogers, 2015). Similarly, family literacy programs, where parents and children read together, have been shown to improve reading motivation and comprehension (Sénéchal & LeFevre, 2002).

Cultural responsiveness is essential in these partnerships. For instance, schools in immigrant-heavy communities might host bilingual workshops to address language barriers. A study by López (2001) highlighted that Latino parents who received Spanish-language resources were twice as likely to engage in school activities compared to those who did not. Conversely, misaligned expectations—such as parents prioritising grades while teachers emphasise creativity—can create motivational conflicts (Jeynes, 2007). Finland's education model exemplifies synergy, where minimal standardised testing and an emphasis on play-based learning reflect a unified philosophy between parents and teachers (Sahlberg, 2011). This alignment reduces extrinsic pressure and fosters intrinsic curiosity.

Community partnerships further extend motivational support. For example, schools collaborating with local businesses can offer internships, linking classroom learning to career opportunities. A study by Rosenbaum et al. (2019) found that students in career-linked programmes reported higher motivation and attendance rates.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

For Parents:

- 1. Autonomy Support: Encourage children to set academic goals and choose extracurricular activities. Grolnick and Ryan (1989) linked autonomy-supportive parenting to higher intrinsic motivation and GPA.
- 2. Non-Monetary Incentives: Celebrate effort with family outings or shared hobbies instead of monetary rewards. Cameron and Pierce (1994) warned that cash incentives can undermine intrinsic drive.
- **3. SEL Reinforcement**: Discuss emotions and coping strategies at home to complement school-based SEL programmes (Brackett et al., 2011).

For Teachers:

- 1. Blended Learning Models: Combine gamification with reflective practices. For example, use Kahoot! quizzes followed by group discussions on lesson relevance (Sailer & Homner, 2020).
- **2. Peer Mentoring**: Pair high- and low-achieving students to build competence and relatedness. A meta-analysis by Rohrbeck et al. (2003) showed peer mentoring improves motivation and grades.
- **3.** Cultural Adaptation: Integrate diverse perspectives into curricula. Ladson-Billings (1995) emphasised that culturally relevant teaching boosts engagement among marginalised students.

For Policymakers:

- 1. Fund Partnership Programmes: Allocate grants for parent-teacher workshops and community internships.
- 2. Reduce Standardised Testing: Follow Finland's model by prioritising formative assessments (Sahlberg, 2011).
- **3. Teacher Training**: Mandate professional development in SEL and motivational theories (Durlak et al., 2011).

For Students:

- 1. Self-Advocacy: Teach students to articulate learning needs. A study by Wehmeyer and Palmer (2003) linked self-advocacy to higher academic persistence.
- 2. Goal-Setting Tools: Introduce apps like Trello for tracking academic and personal goals (Zimmerman, 2002).

CONCLUSION

Motivation in education is not a solitary construct but a dynamic interplay of strategies across home, school, and community environments. Teachers and parents each bring unique strengths: teachers offer pedagogical expertise and structured feedback, while parents provide emotional security and cultural reinforcement. Synergistic approaches, such as joint workshops and digital communication platforms, bridge these domains, creating consistent expectations and reducing motivational conflicts. Research data highlights the effectiveness of independence encouragement, continuous evaluation, and social-emotional learning (SEL) in promoting both internal drive and external incentives. However, persistent challenges include cultural discrepancies and excessive dependence on external incentives. Subsequent studies should investigate the long-term effects of collaborative approaches and the influence of economic factors on motivation strategies. Through focusing on collaboration and flexibility, stakeholders can nurture resilient, self-motivated learners ready for lifelong achievements.

REFERENCES

- Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998). Assessment and classroom learning. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, 5(1), 7–74. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/0969595980050102</u>
- Brackett, M. A., Rivers, S. E., & Salovey, P. (2011). Emotional intelligence: Implications for personal, social, academic, and workplace success. Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 5(1), 88– 103. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2010.00334.x</u>
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design. Harvard University Press.
- Cameron, J., & Pierce, W. D. (1994). Reinforcement, reward, and intrinsic motivation: A metaanalysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 64(3), 363–423. <u>https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543064003363</u>
- Chao, R. K., & Tseng, V. (2002). Parenting of Asians. In M. H. Bornstein (Ed.), *Handbook of parenting: Vol. 4. Social conditions and applied parenting* (2nd ed., pp. 59–93). Erlbaum.
- Davis-Kean, P. E. (2005). The influence of parent education and family income on child achievement: The indirect role of parental expectations and the home environment. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 19(2), 294–304. <u>https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.19.2.294</u>
- Deci, E. L., Koestner, R., & Ryan, R. M. (1999). A meta-analytic review of experiments examining the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(6), 627–668. <u>https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.125.6.627</u>
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). Motivational strategies in the language classroom. Cambridge University Press.
- Durlak, J. A., Weissberg, R. P., Dymnicki, A. B., Taylor, R. D., & Schellinger, K. B. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of school-based universal interventions. *Child Development*, 82(1), 405–432. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2010.01564.x</u>
- Dweck, C. S. (2006). Mindset: The new psychology of success. Random House.
- Epstein, J. L. (2018). School, family, and community partnerships: Preparing educators and improving *schools* (2nd ed.). Routledge.
- Gershoff, E. T., Sattler, K. M. P., & Ansari, A. (2018). Strengthening causal estimates for links between spanking and children's externalizing behavior problems. *Psychological Science*, 29(1), 110– 120. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797617729816</u>
- Grolnick, W.S., & Ryan, R.M. (1989). Parentstylesassociated with children's self-regulation and competence in school. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81(2), 143–154. <u>https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.81.2.143</u>
 Haimovitz, K., & Dweck, C. S. (2016). Parents' views of failure predict children's fixed and growth intelligence mind-sets. *Psychological Science*, 27(6), 859–869. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797616639727</u>
- Hattie, J. (2009). Visible learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement. Routledge.
- Henderson, A. T., & Mapp, K. L. (2002). A new wave of evidence: The impact of school, family, and community connections on student achievement. National Center for Family & Community Connections with Schools.
- Herman, K. C., Reinke, W. M., Frey, A. J., & Shepard, S. A. (2014). Motivational interviewing in schools: Strategies for engaging parents, teachers, and students. Springer.
- Hidi, S., & Harackiewicz, J. M. (2000). Motivating the academically unmotivated: A critical issue for the 21st century. *Review of Educational Research*, 70(2), 151–179. <u>https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543070002151</u>

- Hidi, S., & Renninger, K. A. (2006). The four-phase model of interest development. *Educational Psychologist*, 41(2), 111–127. <u>https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep4102_4</u>
- Hoover-Dempsey, K. V., & Sandler, H. M. (2005). *Final performance report for OERI Grant # R305T010673: The social context of parental involvement: A path to enhanced achievement.* Vanderbilt University.
- Jeynes, W. H. (2007). The relationship between parental involvement and urban secondary school student academic achievement. *Urban Education*, 42(1), 82–110. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085906293818
- Kraft, M. A., & Rogers, T. (2015). The underutilized potential of teacher-to-parent communication: Evidence from a field experiment. *Economics of Education Review*, 47, 49–63. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2015.04.001</u>
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1995). Toward a theory of culturally relevant pedagogy. *American Educational Research Journal*, 32(3), 465–491. <u>https://doi.org/10.3102/00028312032003465</u>
- Lareau, A. (2011). Unequal childhoods: Class, race, and family life (2nd ed.). University of California Press.
- Moroni, S., Dumont, H., Trautwein, U., Niggli, A., & Baeriswyl, F. (2015). The need to distinguish between quantity and quality in research on parental involvement: The example of parental help with homework. *Journal of Educational Research*, *108*(5), 417–431. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/002206</u> 71.2014.901283
- Niemiec, C. P., & Ryan, R. M. (2009). Autonomy, competence, and relatedness in the classroom: Applying self-determination theory to educational practice. *Theory and Research in Education*, 7(2), 133– 144. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/1477878509104318</u>
- Pane, J. F., Steiner, E. D., Baird, M. D., & Hamilton, L. S. (2017). *Continued progress: Promising evidence on personalized learning*. RAND Corporation.
- Rohrbeck, C. A., Ginsburg-Block, M. D., Fantuzzo, J. W., & Miller, T. R. (2003). Peer-assisted learning interventions with elementary school students: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95(2), 240–257. <u>https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.95.2.240</u>
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68–78. <u>https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.68</u>
- Sahlberg, P. (2011). *Finnish lessons: What can the world learn from educational change in Finland?* Teachers College Press.
- Sailer, M., & Homner, L. (2020). The gamification of learning: A meta-analysis. *Educational Psychology Review*, 32(1), 77–112. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-019-09498-w</u>
- Schiffrin, H. H., Liss, M., Miles-McLean, H., Geary, K. A., Erchull, M. J., & Tashner, T. (2014). Helping or hovering? The effects of helicopter parenting on college students' well-being. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 23(3), 548–557. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-013-9716-3</u>
- Sénéchal, M., & LeFevre, J. (2002). Parental involvement in the development of children's reading skill: A five-year longitudinal study. *Child Development*, 73(2), 445–460. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00417</u>
- Soenens, B., & Vansteenkiste, M. (2010). A theoretical upgrade of the concept of parental psychological control: Proposing new insights on the basis of self-determination theory. *Developmental Review*, 30(1), 74–99. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dr.2009.11.001</u>
- Thomas, J. W. (2000). A review of research on project-based learning. Autodesk Foundation.

Wehmeyer, M. L., & Palmer, S. B. (2003). Adult outcomes for students with cognitive disabilities three years after high school: The impact of self-determination. *Education and Training in Developmental Disabilities*, 38(2), 131–144.

- Zheng, B., Warschauer, M., Lin, C. H., & Chang, C. (2016). Learning in one-to-one laptop environments: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. *Review of Educational Research*, 86(4), 1052–1084. <u>https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654316628645</u>
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2002). Becoming a self-regulated learner: An overview. *Theory Into Practice*, 41(2), 64–70. <u>https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4102_2</u>