

## **Student Engagement: Associations with Teachers and Peers as Motivators**

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**Abstract** – The construct on student engagement is increasingly prevalent in the field of education serving as the foundation of dropout prevention and high school reform initiatives. The purpose of the study is to examine the predictive relationships between relationships motivation and student engagement by The Student Engagement Instrument (SEI), Relationships Motivation Scale (REMO), and the Student's Information Sheet were administered to a sample of 1,014 high school students from selected private and public schools in Metro Manila. Six subscales of student engagement were considered: control and relevance of schoolwork, future aspirations and goals, and extrinsic motivation are considered cognitive engagement. Affective engagement included teacher-student relationships, family support for learning, and peer support for learning. Teachers, peers as motivators, and individual learning behavior were included in the subscales for Relationships Motivation Scale. Results generally indicated that there are significant relationships between the different factors of student engagement and relationship motivation. Subscales of the REMO significantly predicted cognitive and affective engagement after controlling for demographic variables. Based on the results, a proposed student engagement program is developed to promote higher levels of engagement in school.

**Keywords:** student engagement, Student Engagement Instrument, relationship motivation, Relationship Motivation Scale (REMO)

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### **I. INTRODUCTION**

Educational psychology broadens its interest in the area of student engagement through the years. The concept of student engagement appears to resonate with educators who report that many students seem to be disinterested and uninvolved (Appleton, Christenson, Furlong, 2008). The construct has primarily emerged in understanding school dropout and interventions had been addressed to prevent this type of school problem (Reschly & Christenson, 2006). The construct on engagement is important to promote school success and the necessary social skills needed in the world of work (Appleton, et al, 2008; Finn, 1989). Survey of literature on engagement presents multiple student engagement subtypes. These measurement and subtypes remains the subject of debates, measurement (Fredricks, 2011). Behavioral, emotional, and cognitive dimensions of engagement are common variables in engagement research and have been found to relate to numerous desirable academic and behavioral outcomes (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004).; Marks, 2000; Sinclair, Christenson, Evelo, & Hurley, 1998). In addition, theoretical work and intervention results suggest the importance of cognitive and

affective/psychological subtypes of engagement (Finn, 1989; Sinclair, Christenson, & Thurlow, 2005) and their influence on important educational outcomes (Connell & Wellborn, 1991).

In the Philippines, a study conducted on children funded by the UNICEF in 2004, presents reasons why some children are not in school (Orbeta, 2005). The primary reason for not being in school among high school students is lack of personal interest. It is interesting to note that this reason of lack of personal interest starts early among those with some elementary education and is considerably lower among those with some high school education (Orbeta, 2005). Engaging students in school is one of the challenges faced by educators especially those who teach secondary school students.

In adolescence, peer relations become increasingly important. The role of peers as a source of emotional and instrumental support becomes even more important than it was in the childhood. Peers also become an important factor in organizing spare time and act as a factor of sexual satisfaction and identity formation (Gifford-Smith & Brownell, 2003). This is a critical period for students' Learning beliefs and behaviors such as self-regulation, autonomy, identity exploration which lead to academic interests, self-regulative learning and commitment to education. But for many adolescents this is also a period of doubts in their abilities to succeed in academic activities, questioning the value and meaning of schoolwork and consequently the decline of academic effort. The social environment in the classroom that includes perceived teacher, as well as perceived peer support, is therefore crucial for this period (Ryan & Patrick, 2001).

Studies examining the role of teachers in students' academic achievement originate mainly from the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2002), which stresses the need for relatedness as one of the basic psychological needs. According to this theory, teachers' involvement is crucial for the satisfying the need for relatedness. This refers to the quality of interpersonal relations with students and is manifested through teachers having time for students, expressing positive feelings towards them, being flexible to their needs, etc. Teacher's involvement seems to be the strongest predictor of students' academic motivation, among all of the other presumably important dimensions of teachers' behavior. The students of highly involved teachers perceive their teachers not only as involved, but also giving more structure and support to student's autonomy, independently of the teacher's actual behavior on these two dimensions (Furrer & Skinner, 2003).

Wentzel and Caldwell (1997) conducted a longitudinal study of the relation between students' friendships and their academic achievement. The results of this study showed that the relation between having a friend and academic outcomes held stable in the period of two years. In another longitudinal study (Wentzel, Barry, & Caldwell, 2004) investigated the influence of friendships on motivation and school adjustment of early adolescents. Students without reciprocal friendships were less pro social, had lower academic outcomes and reported more emotional distress compared to their peers with reciprocal friendships.

In many schools, there are deep concerns and with increasing rates of school motivation, achievement, and engagement (Ladd, Herald-Brown, & Kochev, 2009). This paper is an additional means to understand some existing relationships between relationship motivation and

engagement. The current interest in motivation and relationship in school is examined (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2004). Tagged as the second home for adolescents, the school is a venue educational goals are met and social relationships are strengthened. Essentially, peers and teachers serve as motivational agents (Wentzel, Battle, Russell, & Looney, 2010) in academics and psychological development (Flanagan, Erath, & Bierman, 2008; Raufelder & Mohr, 2011). Important social contexts-peer and teachers are examined, roles as motivators of students in the engagement process.

The stage of late childhood and adolescence, peer relations become increasingly important. During the childhood, peer groups enlarge and become less supervised by adults (Gifford-Smith & Brownell, 2003). In early adolescence, the role of peers as a source of emotional and instrumental support becomes even more important than it was in the childhood. Also, early adolescence is an especially critical period for students' learning beliefs and behaviors (Eccles & Midgley, 1990). For some early adolescents, the increase in autonomy and identity exploration leads to new academic interests, an increasing self-regulative learning and commitment to education (Goodenow, 1993). But for many adolescents this is also a period of doubts in their abilities to succeed in academic activities, questioning the value and meaning of schoolwork and consequently the decline of academic effort. The social environment in the classroom that includes perceived teacher, as well as perceived peer support, is therefore crucial for this period. Thus, early adolescence represents an especially sensitive period. For many adolescents, this is a period of decrease in their academic achievement (Ryan & Patrick, 2001)

This study aims to address the gap in literature that examines how students differentially rely on teachers and/or peers as sources of motivation and engagement. In addition to resources in schools such as teachers and peers, research also included that school counselors have important roles to play in helping students by establishing and sustaining effective programs for students who may show some signs of disengagement.

There is an increasing need for school counselors to be more involved in organizing, sustaining partnerships with other members of the academic team in order to foster academic success (Christenson & Sheridan, 2001). This is a challenge that calls for new directions among counselors, teachers, and school administrators (Dahir, Burnham, & Stone, (2009).

## **II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

### **A. Engagement**

The theory of student engagement posits that engagement is a multidimensional construct that requires an understanding of affective states that promotes psychological connections in school. It includes effort and other types of prosocial behavior that are manifested by learners (Appleton, Christenson, & Furlong, 2008; Newman, Wehlage, & Lamborn; Carter, Reschly, Lovelace, Appleton, Thompson, 2012).

The multidimensionality of engagement is conceptualized as four subtypes: academic, behavioral, cognitive, and affective. Academic engagement is manifested in various indicators such as time on task, amount of homework completed with accuracy, and course grades,

especially the number of failing grades. Behavioral engagement is reflected such indicators as attendance, effort and active participation in class, involvement in extracurricular activities, and behavioral incidents such as office referrals, detentions and suspensions.

Because engagement is multidimensional, adopting an engagement orientation integrates and harnesses students' thoughts (cognitions), feelings, and behaviors toward achieving positive learning outcomes and/or improving one's academic competencies. It is not sufficient to focus only on completion of learning activities. Student feelings, interests, and attitudes, as well as self-perceived competence on the task or the use of strategy for doing one's best, are part of this identity.

## **B. Developmental Contextualism**

Lerner (1991) posits that there is a dynamic interaction between relationship motivation and the developing adolescent in his or her school context. This theory provides a rationale for understanding diverse perspectives in school motivation and relationships. This framework implies that the teacher–student relationship underscores the interconnectedness and interdependent processes that are manifested in schools.

The impact of teachers on academic performance and engagement in school has been the subject of studies in many schools. Additionally, teachers act as role models for students and provide necessary interaction to students (Raufelder, Drury, Jagenow, Hoferichter, & Bukowski, 2013) and communicate with students in order to help them develop a sense of identity (Jennings, Greenberg, 2009).

## **C. Motivation**

The Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2002) posits that multiple aspects of interpersonal relationships in school and environmental experiences assist young people to be interested and positive about their feelings toward school (Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Roeser, Midgley, & Urdan, 1996; Wentzel, 1999). In the current study, the focus was on how these environment factors can promote adolescents' engagement in schools. Ryan and Deci (2000, 2002) suggest that engagement can be achieved if motivation and individual needs are defined.

In conclusion, a large body of research provides strong evidence for the roles of peers and teachers in students' motivation. However, based on the survey of literature, no research has emphasized on the relationships of teachers as motivators and peers as motivators in student engagement. The question emerges as to whether these two contextual factors relate to engagement and predict students' engagement in schools. The complexities of the teacher–student relationship and the student–student relationship will be examined in the study which will be conducted in secondary schools. Another method to be utilized in the research to find out students' expectations about teachers and peers, as motivators will be identified. Whereas for some students positive feelings towards a teacher are essential to their motivation, other students' motivation was not contingent on positive feelings towards their teachers; rather, they appreciated the professional abilities of a teacher, such as a clear teaching style or a logical way of explaining a subject matter.

## D. Research Questions

This study examines the relationships of engagement in schools and underlying contextual factors in learning with emphasis on teachers and peers as motivators in the engagement process. It also underscores the roles of peers and teachers as motivators on the respondents' self-report of engagement.

Likewise, these two social contextual variables will be examined on how these predict student engagement.

Specifically, the following problems are addressed:

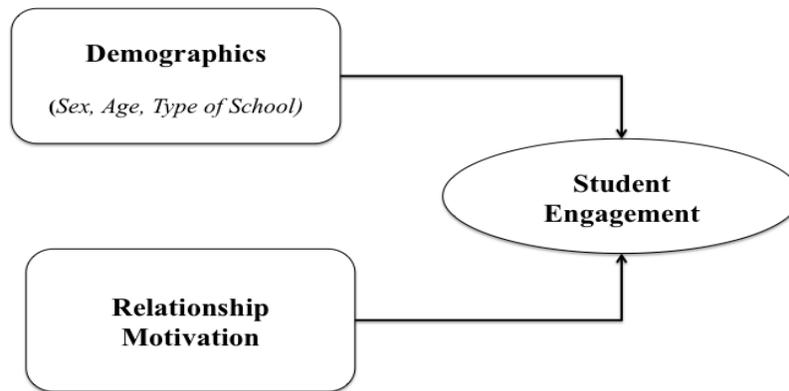
1a: What is the engagement scores of the respondents as measured by the Student Engagement Instrument (SEI)?

1b: What is the relationship motivation scores as measured by the Relationship Motivation Inventory (REMO)?

2a: Are there significant relationship between the demographic profiles and engagement?

2b: Are there significant relationships between relationship motivation and student engagement?

3a: What type of relationship motivation predict/s engagement.



**Figure 1. Hypothesized Relationships between Relationship Motivation and Student Engagement**

Hypothesis 1:

There are no significant relationships between the demographic profiles and student engagement.

Hypothesis 2:

There is no significant relationship between relationship motivation and student engagement.

Hypothesis 3:

Relationship motivation do/es not predict student engagement.

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. Participants

One thousand fourteen (1,014) second year and third year high school students aged 13-16 were selected to participate in the study using convenience sampling. All student-respondents are enrolled in the current school year 2013-2014. Data was gathered during the months of July-September 2013.

#### B. Instruments

The instruments of this study were:

**1. The Student Engagement Instrument (SEI).** Appleton & Christenson, (2004), developed the Student Engagement Instrument, designed to measure 6 key dimensions of engagement identified in the research literature. It was designed to measure the less overt subtypes of student engagement: cognitive and affective. There are six (6) subtypes of student engagement that are included in this study: Control and Relevance of Schoolwork, Peer Support for Learning, Teacher-Student Relationships, Future Aspirations and Goals, Family Support for Learning, and Extrinsic Motivation. The full version of the SEI has 36 items intended to measure student levels of cognitive engagement and 26 items intended to examine affective engagement from the perspective of the student. All items were scored via a five-point Likert-type rating (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4= agree and 5 strongly agree). All items were coded (and reversed items were recoded) so that higher scores indicated higher levels of engagement. In the sample, reliability of items comprising each factor ranged from  $\alpha = .77$  to  $\alpha = .92$ .

**2. Relationship and Motivation Scale (REMO).** The REMO scale is primarily developed to measure the motivation and social relationships in school. There are two main scales of the REMO. The Teachers REMO also known as the T-REMO, which consists of two underlying subscales: Teachers as Positive Motivators (TPM) with 6 items ( $\alpha=.78$ ).

The second main subscale of the REMO is the Peer REMO also known as the P-REMO, which consists of 1) Peers as Positive Motivators (PPM) with 9 items ( $\alpha=.80$ ), (Responses are scored on a 4-point Likert-scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”).

The consent to translate the Relationship and Motivation Scale (REMO) was obtained from the author of the instrument. Two Filipino professors were asked to translate the items. The Filipino version of the REMO was translated using the forward and back translation methods (Fischer & Smith, 2006). Two Language professors back translated the Filipino translated version. Then, Psychology researchers checked, analyzed and compared the two versions (original and back translation) to ensure accuracy in meaning and concept.

### **C. Data Analysis**

Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics to summarize and establish profiles of participants on the different variables of interest in the study. In addition, tabular presentation of data was also used to enhance the presentation of the results on the different variables of study. Concretely, the frequency count was employed to describe the profile of the participants in terms of age, grade level, type of school grade point average, scholarship status, and socio economic status. Mean and standard deviation were used to summarize the scores of participants in the factors of engagement, and subscales of the relationship motivators.

Correlation was computed in order to determine if there are significant relationships between factors of engagement and relationship motivation. Further analysis was done by determining the amount of variance in the participants' engagement accounted for by the factors of relationship motivation using hierarchical regression.

Hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine the contributions of the demographic variables and relationship motivation on student engagement. Examination of teachers and peers as positive motivators was conducted to find out if it contributes to the variance of student engagement. In step 1, demographic variables were entered as control variables. In Step 2 peers as positive motivators was entered in the equation. In Step 3 teachers as positive motivators was added.

Data gathered in the study was analyzed using the software Statistical Package for Social Sciences Version 18.0 (SPSS Inc., released 2009).

## **IV. RESULTS**

Table 1 presents the distribution of 1014 respondents. It shows the demographic profile of the 1014 students, specifically their sex, age, school, grade point average, and family income. Respondents were 535 female (52.8 %) and 479 male (47.2 %). In terms of age, most of the respondents were 14 years old, 458 (45.2 %) and least 22 (2.2%) of them were in the age range of 16 or higher. In terms of school, 611 (60.3%) of the respondents are in private and 403 (39.7%) are studying in public schools. There are 375 respondents whose grade point average is between 86-90 (37%) and only 2 has 75 GPA (0.2%). Family income distribution: 21-30K monthly income (f=357, 35.2%) and the least were 178 (17.6%) with a family income of 31-40K.

Table 1 shows the mean and the standard deviation scores of the respondents for the Student Engagement Instrument (SEI). Three factors compose the cognitive subtype of engagement: control and relevance of schoolwork, future aspiration and goals, and extrinsic motivation. Affective subtype of engagement includes teacher-student relationship, family support for learning, and peer support for learning.

**Table 1. Demographic Profile of Respondents**

	<b>PROFILE</b>	<b>FREQUENCY</b>	<b>PERCENTAGE</b>
	<b>14</b>	<b>458</b>	<b>45.20</b>
	13	363	35.80
<b>Age</b>	15	171	16.90
	16 or higher	22	2.20
	Total	1014	100
	<b>Female</b>	<b>535</b>	<b>52.80</b>
<b>Sex</b>	Male	479	47.20
	Total	1014	100
	<b>Private</b>	<b>611</b>	<b>60.30</b>
<b>School</b>	Public	403	39.70
	Total	1014	100
	<b>86-90</b>	<b>375</b>	<b>37.00</b>
	81-85	349	34.40
	91-95	185	18.20
<b>GPA</b>	76-80	99	9.80
	98 or higher	4	0.40
	75	2	0.20
	Total	1014	100
	<b>21,000-30,000</b>	<b>357</b>	<b>35.20</b>
	Less than 20,000	290	28.60
<b>Income of parents</b>	41,000 or higher	189	18.60
	31,000-40,000	178	17.60
	Total	1014	100

Based on the weighted means (WM) of the responses, in general, the current sample reports that they neither agree nor disagree that they have sense of control and relevance of schoolwork (WM=2.95), agree that they have future goals and aspirations (WM=3.79), neither agree nor disagree that they are extrinsically motivated (WM=2.90), neither agree nor disagree that they have good teacher student relationship (WM=3.44), agree that they have family support for learning (WM=4.50), and agree that they have peer support for learning (WM=4.18).

**Table 2. Student Engagement Scores**

Factors	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control and relevance of schoolwork	36.70	6.12
Future aspiration and goals	22.70	4.00
Extrinsic motivation	8.02	2.12
Teacher-student relationship	38.12	6.43
Family support for learning	16.63	3.22
Peer support for learning	22.94	4.02

Table shows the mean and standard deviation scores for the level of motivators. Five subscales of the Relationship Motivation (REMO) scale: peers as positive motivators (M=17.37, SD=4.46), individual learning behaviors (M=16.85, SD=3.19) teachers as positive motivators (M=9.78, SD=3.11).

Based on weighted means, in general, the current sample agree that peers are positive motivators (WM=1.93), agree that teachers are positive motivators (WM=1.63).

**Table 3. Relationship Motivation Scores**

Motivators	Mean	Std. Deviation
Peers as positive motivators	17.37	4.46
Teacher as positive motivators	9.78	3.11

**Table 4. Relationships between School Engagement and Relationship Motivation**

	CRS		FAG		EM		TSR		FSL		PSL	
	r	p-value	r	p-value	r	p-value	r	p-value	r	p-value	r	p-value
PPM	-0.237**	0.00	-0.131**	0.00	0.02	0.45	-0.165**	0.00	.145**	0.00	-	0.00
TPM	-0.306**	0.00	-0.209**	0.00	-0.097**	0.00	-.242**	0.00	-	0.00	-	0.00
									.185**		.227**	

\* 0.05 level (2-tailed)

\*\* 0.01 level (2-tailed)

There is an inverse relationship between peers as positive motivators ( $r=-.237, p<.01$ ), teachers as positive motivators ( $r=-0.306, p<.01$ ) with the engagement factor-control and relevance of schoolwork. The scoring of the REMO having 4 as the lowest and 1 as the highest in the Likert scale bring about the inverse relationship. This means that as the scores are higher, the level of relationship motivation is lower. Furthermore, if the REMO scores are lower, the level of motivation is higher.

The results imply that influences from peers and teachers increase, then, perceived control and relevance of school increases. It also denotes that if there is an increasing support from peers and teachers, students become self-regulated in attaining their goals and school experiences become more relevant to them. Teachers can be perceived as support system in school and this may have significant impact in the attainment of a positive aspirations and goals. This type of relationship cognitively brings an association with development of goals and aspirations of students. The immediate and long-term goals help student see the relevance of schoolwork for their future endeavors. Peers on the other hand participate in influencing their small unit in building skills that assist them in their plans for the future.

There is an inverse relationship between peers as positive motivators ( $r=. -0.131, p<.01$ ), teachers as positive motivators ( $r--0.209, p<.01$ ) with the engagement factor-future aspirations and goals. Students' sense of aspirations and goals increases when their peers and teachers in school motivate them. Moreover, engaged students find learning meaningful and are invested in their learning activities to and perceive positive orientation of the future. Personal and educational aspirations usher them to be highly energized in schoolwork when there is better relationships with peers and mentors.

There is an inverse relationship between teachers as positive motivators ( $r--0.209, p<.01$ ), with the engagement factor-extrinsic motivation. This means that if their teachers and peers are perceived to be extrinsically rewarding, then, the students manifest greater effort and motivation in scholastic tasks. The contribution of the mentor is essentially important because they can be most knowledgeable about students' interests, strengths, needs, and educational progress. Familiarity with the students helps the mentor suggest activities within the school that are feasible and relevant to peer-building and students' interests. And these experiences can be rewarding to students. Programs in the classroom can be an instrument in building better relationships among peers and teachers. Teachers facilitate students' access to school-related activities that are rewarding to the learners and tailoring students' experiences to meet students' needs.

There is an inverse relationship between peers as positive motivators ( $r=, -0.165, p<.01$ ), in the engagement factor-teacher-student relationship. This means that availability of quality support from peers promote better relationship with teachers that can develop competence and engagement in school tasks. Increasing support from the peer support system assist students attain positive outcomes. Teachers must work hard to inform students of the importance of associating with their peers in school. Teachers' reinforcement of this message consistently and regularly helps students believe in themselves as learners.

There is an inverse relationship between teachers as positive motivators ( $r = -.185$ ,  $p < .01$ ), positive correlation between peers as positive motivators ( $r = .145$ ,  $p < .01$ ), in the engagement factor-family support for learning. It means that disengagement can be prevented if families participate with teachers and peers in school, then, sense of connection is enhanced in school. The result underscores the importance of multiple contextual influences-home, school, and community in preventing disengagement. Parents work with teachers to become persistent in learning and direct their children in case distractions are present. Academic competencies are developed when parents coordinate with school authorities in helping their children believe in themselves as learners.

There is an inverse relationship between peers as positive motivators ( $r = -.227$ ,  $p < .01$ ), teachers as positive motivators ( $r = .227$ ,  $p < .01$ ), positive correlation with the engagement factor-peer support for learning. If teachers reinforce the relationships of students with their peers, then, peer relationships become more meaningful among learners, thus, commitment to educational goals, thus, learning can be manifested and enhanced. Engagement requires psychological connections within the academic environment and the meaningful network among students can fuel active student behavior.

Table shows the results of the three- step hierarchical regression for students' engagement as predicted by relationship motivation. In terms of control and relevance of schoolwork, step 1, neither age, sex, nor type of school predicted control and relevance of school work ( $\beta = 0.022$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ;  $\beta = 0.038$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ;  $\beta = 0.059$ ,  $p > 0.05$ , respectively). Peers as motivators was entered in the equation in step 2, and significantly predicted control and relevance of school work ( $\beta = -0.238$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). An additional substantial 5.9% of the variance was explained. Peers as motivators remained significant in step 3.

For extrinsic motivation, when age, sex, and school was entered in equation 1, sex and type of school predicted extrinsic motivation ( $\beta = -0.141$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ;  $\beta = -0.140$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ). When peers as motivators was entered in equation 2, this variable did not significantly predict extrinsic motivation. In step 3, when teachers as motivators was entered, it significantly predicted extrinsic motivation with an additional 5.1% of the variance explained over and above the contribution of peers as motivators. Sex and type of school remained significant in step 3.

For the third engagement factor, extrinsic motivation, the results of the hierarchical regression for students' engagement shows that when age, sex, and type of school was entered in the equation for step 1, type of school significantly predicted family support for learning ( $\beta = 0.174$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ); When peers as motivators was entered in equation 2, it significantly predicted family support for learning ( $\beta = 0.146$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and added a substantial 5.4% of the variance explained. Type of school is no longer significant in step 2 but age became a predictor ( $\beta = 0.56$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) of family support for learning. In step 3, when teachers as motivators was added in the equation, it significantly predicted family support for learning ( $\beta = 0.127$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ) and added a substantial 6.3% of the variance explained by teachers as motivators over and above the contribution of demographics. Peers as motivators no longer predicted family support for learning while type of school remained as a significant predictor in step 3.

For future aspirations and goals, when age, sex, and type of school was entered in equation 1, age and sex significantly predicted future aspirations and goals ( $\beta=0.073$ ,  $p<0.5$ ;  $\beta=0.073$ ,  $p<0.5$ ) with 1.1% of the variance explained. Type of school did not predict future aspirations and goals. In step 2, when peers as motivators was added in equation 1, it significantly predicted future aspirations and goals ( $\beta=0.133$ ,  $p<0.1$ ) and added a substantial 2.7% in the variance explained. Age and sex remained significant in step 2 while type of school no longer predicted future aspiration and goals. In step 3, teachers as motivators was added in the equation and it predicted future aspirations and goals ( $\beta=0.190$ ,  $p<0.1$ ) and accounted for 4.9% in the change of the variance. Age and sex remained significant in step 3 ( $\beta=0.065$ ,  $p<0.5$ ;  $\beta=0.066$ ,  $p<0.5$ ).

For peer support for learning when age, sex, and type of school was entered in equation 1, type of school significantly predicted peer support for learning ( $\beta=0.098$ ,  $p<0.1$ ) with 1.1% of the variance explained. In step 2, peers as motivators was added in the equation and it significantly predicted peer support for learning ( $\beta=0.998$ ,  $p<0.1$ ) and accounted for 6.2% in the change of variance. Type of school remained significant in step 2. In step 3, when teachers as motivators was entered, it significantly predicted peer support for learning ( $\beta=0.124$ ,  $p<0.1$ ) and accounted for a change of 7.1% in the variance explained. Type of school and peers as motivators remain significant in step 3.

For teacher-student relationship, when the demographics-age, sex, and type of school was entered in equation 1, age is a determinant of teacher-student relationship ( $\beta=0.070$ ,  $p<0.5$ ) and accounted for 0.5% change in its variance. In step 2, peers as motivators was entered and was found to be a significant determinant of teacher-student relationship. An additional substantial 3.1% of the variance was explained. Age remained a significant predictor in step 2. In step 3, teachers as motivators was added in the equation and it predicted teacher-student relationship ( $\beta=0.229$ ,  $p<0.1$ ) and accounted for an increase of 6.3% of the variance explained. Peers as motivators did not significantly predict teacher-student relationship in step 3, but age remained as a significant predictor.

## V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The objective in undertaking this study is to explore the relationships between the roles of teachers and peers and engagement. Other studies have focused on school motivation behavioral aspects of engagement (Anderson, Christenson, Sinclair, Lehr, 2004) social contexts such as parent-support and teacher-support in academic achievement and behavioral engagement (Fall & Roberts, 2012). Additionally, a large number of research that indicates extreme importance of relationships with adults and peers are sometimes overlooked as a point of intervention in schools.

The results revealed that contextual factors such as teachers and peers as motivators in scholastic achievement relate to affective and cognitive engagement of students. Positive motivation from teachers impacts their engagement. Results from this study suggest that when teachers affirm students and direct their efforts, sense of identification with the school is established. Further, perceived control is manifested and relevance of schoolwork is identified.

When teachers communicate well with students, internal mechanisms motivate students to be affectively and cognitively engaged with school. The outcome of this effort will be on how students manifest their behavioral engagement with the school.

Teachers act as role models in social relationship that can affect students' well-being in school. The amount of support provided by teachers significantly relate to the way students learn in school (Wentzel, 2009). This dynamic process ensures that cognitive, social, and emotional variables are learned in the interaction between teachers and students (Hodis, Meyer, McClure, Weir, & Walkey, 2011).

The results of the study confirms previous findings and provides new evidence about teacher support which are essentially important to children's engagement in school in whatever grade and ages they are in. A relationship that is perceived as secure relationship become a resource that allows students to cope more effectively with academic and social demands. As Little and Kobak (2003) found out that there exist a relationship between emotional security with the teacher which can moderate stress in the classroom.

It is also evident in previous research findings that the role of teachers in students' engagement (Deci & Ryan, 2001) further stresses the need for relatedness as one of the basic psychological needs. Further analysis of the validation of this theory explains that teachers' involvement is crucial for the satisfying the need for relatedness. The quality of interpersonal relationship manifested by teachers can be the strongest predictor of students' engagement in school and other motivational dimensions expressed by teachers. The students of highly involved teachers perceive their teachers not only as involved, but structures in the classroom are source of support to student's autonomy (Furrer & Skinner, 2003).

The results of the study further confirm how peer relations become increasingly important than it was in childhood. Peers also become an important factor in organizing spare time and act as a factor identity formation (Gifford-Smith & Brownell, 2003). This is a critical period for students' learning beliefs and behaviors such as self-regulation, autonomy, identity exploration which lead to academic interests, self-regulative learning and commitment to education. But for many adolescents this is also a period of doubts in their abilities to succeed in academic activities, questioning the value and meaning of schoolwork and consequently the decline of academic effort. The social environment in the classroom that includes perceived teacher, as well as perceived peer support, is therefore crucial for this period (Ryan & Patrick, 2001).

The result of the study also confirms recent studies that motivation can be enhanced by social factors (Sheldon, Deci, & Ryan, 2004). Peers as motivators can serve as support in school motivation and psychological adjustment to academic. It is implying that peer relationships are important context for social engagement and scholastic motivation (Ladd et al., 2009; Wentzel et al., 2010). Wide-ranging positive and negative effects on student engagement are related to varying factors that explain engagement.

The results imply that influences from peers and teachers increase, then, perceived control and relevance of school increases. It also denotes that if there is an increasing support from peers and teachers, students become self-regulated in attaining their goals and school

experiences become more relevant to them. Teachers' roles extend from instruction to involvement thereby promoting goals and aspirations of students. The immediate and long-term goals help student see the relevance of schoolwork for their future endeavors. Peers on the other hand participate in influencing their small unit in building skills that assist them in their plans for the future.

The findings also suggest that students' engagement relationship motivation can be a starting point for many interventions that can promote school success. Peer support combined with teacher support is more influential in the engagement process. However, demographic variables such as age, sex, and type of school show no evidence of predicting engagement specifically the factors attributed to it.

The current research has many limitations. The measure of peers and teachers as motivators was limited in scope and design. Teacher support has a varying aspects, however, this study examined one dimension only. Additional research that utilizes the varying contexts and dimensions of peers and teachers are warranted. The relationship measure on teachers and peers cover positive aspects of relationship. The research relied heavily on self-report measures which may delimit responses on the attitudinal and perceptual levels. Longitudinal data can also support the results of the study.

In conclusion, despite the limitations, the findings of the present study are significant for both theory and practice. The study contributes to the literature by explicating the contributions and peers and teachers on student engagement and the predictive value of one engagement instrument. More specifically the present results highlight the idea that motivation from teachers and peers promote future aspirations, identification with school, and perceived relevance of schoolwork. Future studies that focus on other contexts might be beneficial and test the models across diverse age groups.

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