

CHAPTER FIVE

MOTIVATION AND EMOTIONS

Chapter Overview

This chapter introduces the concepts of motivation and emotion. In so doing, the chapter focuses on the definition and types of motivation, theories of motivation, conflict of motives, definition, and elements of emotion, and theories of emotion.

5.1. Motivation

5.1.1. Definition and types of motivation

Motivation is a factor by which activities are started, directed and continued so that physical or psychological needs or wants are met. The word itself comes from the Latin word ‘Mover’, which means —to move. Motivation is what —moves people to do the things they do. For example, when a person is relaxing in front of a television and begins to feel hungry, the physical need for food may cause the person to get up, go into the kitchen, and search for something to eat. If hunger is great enough, the person may even cook something. The physical need for hunger causes the action (getting up), directs it (going to the kitchen), and sustain the search (finding or preparing something to eat).

There are different types of motivation. But, it is possible to categorize them into two: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Intrinsic motivation* is a type of motivation in which a person acts because the act itself is rewarding or satisfying in some internal manner. *Extrinsic motivation* is a type of motivation in which individuals act because the action leads to an outcome that is external to a person. For example, giving a child money for every ‘A’ on a report card, offering a bonus to an employee for increased performance.

5.1.2. Approaches to motivation (theories of motivation)

The sources of motivation are different according to the different theories of motivation. Some of these theories are instinct, drive-reduction, arousal, incentive, cognitive, and humanistic.

a) Instinct approaches to motivation

One of the earliest theory of motivation that is focused on the biologically determined and innate patterns of both humans and animals behavior is called *instincts*. Just as animals are governed by their instincts to do things such as migrating, nest building, mating and protecting their territory, early researchers proposed that human beings may also be governed by similar instincts. According to this instinct theory, in humans, the instinct to reproduce is responsible for sexual behavior, and the instinct for territorial protection may be related to aggressive behavior.

The early theorists and psychologists listed thousands of instincts in humans including curiosity, flight (running away), pugnacity (aggressiveness), and acquisition (gathering possessions). However, none of these theorists did more than give names to these instincts. Although there are plenty of descriptions, such as —submissive people possess the instinct of submission||, there was no attempt to explain why these instincts exist in humans. But these approaches accomplished one important thing by forcing psychologists to realize that some human behavior is controlled by hereditary factors.

b) Drive-reduction approaches to motivation

This approach involved the concepts of needs and drives.

A *need* is a requirement of some material (such as food or water) that is essential for the survival of the organism. When an organism has a need, it

leads to a psychological tension as well as physical arousal to fulfill the need and reduce the tension. This tension is called *drive*.

Drive-reduction theory proposes just this connection between internal psychological states and outward behavior. In this theory, there are two kinds of drives; primary and secondary. *Primary drives* are those that involve survival needs of the body such as hunger and thirst, whereas acquired (secondary) drives are those that are learned through experience or conditioning, such as the need for money, social approval.

This theory also includes the concept of homeostasis, or the tendency of the body to maintain a steady-state. One could think of homeostasis as the body's version of a thermostat- thermostats keep the temperature of a house at a constant level and homeostasis does the same thing for the body's functions. When there is a primary drive need, the body is in a state of imbalance. This stimulates behavior that brings the body back into balance or homeostasis. For example, if mister X's body needs food, he feels hunger and the state of tension (arousal associated with that need). He will seek to restore his homeostasis by eating something which is the behavior stimulated to reduce the hunger drive. (*see the figure below*)

Although the drive-reduction theory works well to explain the actions people take to reduce tension created by needs, it does not explain all human motivation. Why do people eat when they are not hungry? People do not always seek to reduce their inner arousal, either sometimes they seek to increase.

c) Arousal approaches: beyond drive reduction

Arousal approaches seek to explain behavior in which the goal is to maintain or increase excitement. According to **arousal approaches to motivation**, each person tries to maintain a certain level of stimulation and activity. As with the drive-reduction model, this approach suggests that if our stimulation and activity levels become too high, we try to reduce them. But, in contrast to the drive-reduction perspective, the arousal approach

also suggests that if levels of stimulation and activity are too low, we will try to increase them by seeking stimulation.

d) Incentive approaches: motivation's pull

Incentive approaches to motivation suggest that motivation stems from the desire to attain external rewards, known as incentives. In this view, the desirable properties of external stimuli: whether grades, money, affection, food, or sex—account for a person's motivation. Many psychologists believe that the internal drives proposed by drive-reduction theory work in a cycle with the external incentives of incentive theory to —push|| and —pull|| behavior, respectively. Hence, at the same time that we seek to satisfy our underlying hunger needs (the push of drive-reduction theory), we are drawn to food that appears very appetizing (the pull of incentive theory). Rather than contradicting each other, then, drives and incentives may work together in motivating behavior.

e) Cognitive Approaches: the thoughts behind motivation

Cognitive approaches to motivation suggest that motivation is a result of people's thoughts, beliefs, expectations, and goals. For instance, the degree to which people are motivated to study for a test is based on their expectation of how well studying will pay off in terms of a good grade.

Cognitive theories of motivation draw a key difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Intrinsic motivation* causes us to participate in an activity for our enjoyment rather than for any actual or concrete reward that it will bring us. In contrast, *extrinsic motivation* causes us to do something for money, a grade, or some other actual, concrete reward.

For example, when a teacher provides tutorial support for students in her extra time because she loves teaching, intrinsic motivation is prompting her; if she provides tutorial support to make a lot of money, extrinsic motivation underlies her efforts. Similarly, if you study a lot because you love the subject matter, you are being guided by intrinsic motivation. On the

other hand, if all you care about is the grade to get in the course, it is extrinsic motivation.

f) Humanistic approaches to motivation

The other approach to the study of motivation is the humanistic approach which is based on the work of Abraham Maslow. Maslow was one of the early humanistic psychologists who rejected the dominant theories of psychoanalysis and behaviorism in favor of a more positive view of human behavior.

Maslow suggested that human behavior is influenced by a hierarchy, or ranking, of five classes of needs, or motives. He said that needs at the lowest level of the hierarchy must be at least partially satisfied before people can be motivated by the ones at higher levels. Maslow's five Hierarchies of needs for motives from the bottom to the top are as follows:

Physiological needs- these are biological requirements for human survival, e.g. air, food, drink, shelter, clothing, warmth, sex, sleep.

Safety needs- protection from elements, security, order, law, stability, freedom from fear.

Love and belongingness needs- after physiological and safety needs have been fulfilled, the third level of human needs is social and involves feelings of belongingness. Examples include friendship, intimacy, trust, and acceptance, receiving and giving affection and love. Affiliating, being part of a group (family, friends, work).

Esteem needs- the need to be respected as a useful, honorable individual; which Maslow classified into two categories: (i) esteem for oneself (dignity, achievement, mastery, and independence) and (ii) the desire for reputation or respect from others (e.g., status, prestige).

Self-actualization needs- realizing personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences. A desire —to become everything one is capable of becoming||.

The following figure shows how our motivation progresses up the pyramid from the broadest, most fundamental biological needs to higher-order ones.

Figure 2. Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Figure 2. Maslow's hierarchy of needs

5.1.3. Conflict of motives and frustration

Based on the sources of motivation and the importance of the decision, people usually face difficulty choosing among the motives. These are just a few of the motives that may shape a trivial decision. When the decision is

more important, the number and strength of motivational pushes and pulls are often greater, creating far more internal conflict and indecision. There are four basic types of motivational conflicts.

Approach-approach conflicts - exist when we must choose only one of the two desirable activities. Example, going to a movie or a concert.

Avoidance-avoidance conflicts - arise when we must select one of two undesirable alternatives. Someone forced either to sell the family home or to declare bankruptcy.

Approach-avoidance conflicts - happen when a particular event or activity has both attractive and unattractive features, for example, a freshman student wants to start dating but she, at the same time, is worried that this may unduly consume her study time.

Multiple approach-avoidance conflicts - exist when two or more alternatives each have both positive and negative features. Suppose you must choose between two jobs. One offers a high salary with a well-known company but requires long working hours and relocation to a miserable climate. The other boasts advancement opportunities, fringe benefits, and a better climate, but it doesn't pay as much and involves an unpredictable work schedule.

5.2. Emotions

5.2.1. Definition of emotion

The Latin word meaning —to move|| is the source of both words used in this chapter over and over again—*motive* and *emotion*. **Emotion** can be defined as the —feeling|| aspect of consciousness, characterized by certain physical arousal, certain behavior that reveals the feeling to the outside world, and an inner awareness of feelings. Thus, from this short definition, we can

understand that there are three elements of emotion: the *physiology, behavior and subjective experience*.

The physiology of emotion - when a person experiences an emotion, there is physical arousal created by the sympathetic nervous system. The heart rate increases, breathing becomes more rapid, the pupils of the eye dilate, and the mouth may become dry. Think about the last time you were angry and then about the last time you were frightened. Weren't the physical symptoms pretty similar? Although facial expressions do differ between various emotional responses, emotions are difficult to distinguish from one another based on outward bodily reactions alone. It is quite easy to mistake a person who is afraid or angry as being aroused if the person's face is not visible, which can lead to much miscommunication and misunderstanding.

The behavior of emotion- tells us how people behave in the grip of an emotion. There are facial expressions, body movements, and actions that indicate to others how a person feels. Frowns, smiles, and sad expressions combine with hand gestures, the turning of one's body, and spoken words to produce an understanding of emotion. People fight, run, kiss, and yell, along with countless other actions stemming from the emotions they feel. Facial expressions can vary across different cultures, although some aspects of facial expression seem to be universal.

Subjective experience or labeling emotion is the third component of emotion and it involves interpreting the subjective feeling by giving it a label: anger, fear, disgust, happiness, sadness, shame, interest, surprise and so on. Another way of labeling this component is to call it the —cognitive component,|| because the labeling process is a matter of retrieving memories of previous similar experiences, perceiving the context of the emotion, and coming up with a solution- a label. The label a person applies to a subjective feeling is at least in part a learned response influenced by that person's language and culture. Such labels may differ in people of different cultural backgrounds.

5.2.2. Theories of emotion

I. James- Lang Theory of Emotion

This theory of emotion is based on the work of William James (1884, 1890, 1894), who was also the founder of the functionalist perspective in the early history of psychology and a physiologist and psychologist in Denmark, Carl Lang (1885), came up with an explanation of emotion so similar to that of James that the two names are used together to refer to the theory -the James- Lang theory of emotion.

In this theory, a stimulus of some sort (for example, the large snarling dog) produces a physiological reaction. This reaction, which is the arousal of the —fight-or-flight|| sympathetic nervous system (wanting to run), produces bodily sensations such as increased heart rate, dry mouth, and rapid breathing. James and Lang believed that physical arousal led to the labeling of the emotion (fear). Simply put, “I am afraid because I am aroused,” I am embarrassed because my face is red”, “I am nervous because my stomach is fluttering”, and “I am in love because of my heart rate increases when I look at her or him.”

Figure 2. James Lang Theory of Emotion

II. Cannon-Bard theory of emotion

Physiologists Walter Cannon and (1927) and Philip Bard (1934) theorized that the emotion and the physiological arousal occur more or less at the same time. Cannon, an expert in sympathetic arousal mechanisms, did not feel that the physical changes aroused by different emotions were distinct enough to allow them to be perceived as different emotions. Bard expanded on this idea by stating that the sensory information that comes into the brain is sent simultaneously (by the thalamus) to both the cortex and the organs of the sympathetic nervous system. The fear and the bodily reactions are, therefore, experienced at the same time-not one after the other. —I am afraid and running and aroused!||

Figure 3. Cannon-Bard theory of emotion

III. Schachter-Singer and Cognitive Arousal Theory

The early theories talked about the emotion and the physical reaction, but what about the mental interpretation of those components? In their **cognitive arousal theory**, Schachter-Singer (1962) proposed that two things have to happen before emotion occurs: the physical arousal and labeling of the arousal base on cues from the surrounding environment. These two things happen at the same time, resulting in the labeling of the emotion. For example, if a person comes across a snarling dog while taking a walk, the physical arousal (heart racing, eyes opening wide) is accompanied by the thought (cognition) that this must be fear. Then and

only then will the person experience the fear of emotion. In other words, —I am aroused in the presence of a scary dog; therefore, I must be afraid.”

Figure 4. Schachter-Singer theory of emotion

