# MOTIVATION AND EMOTION

# MODULE 8

# MOTIVATION AND EMOTION

Motivation can be defined as **internal processes that initiate, sustain, and direct activities.** In other words, **motivation is a term refers to the driving and pulling forces which result in persistent behavior directed toward particular goals.**

## 8.1: APPROACHES TO MOTIVATION

### 8.1.1: Instinct Approach

**Instincts can be defined as inborn patterns of behavior that are biologically determined rather than learned.**

When psychologists first tried to explain motivation, they turned to instincts, inborn patterns of behavior that are biologically determined rather than learned. According to instinct approaches to motivation, people and animals are born preprogrammed with sets of behaviors essential to their survival. Those instincts provide the energy that channels behavior in appropriate directions. Hence, sexual behavior may be a response to an instinct to reproduce, and exploratory behavior may be motivated by an instinct to examine one's territory.

Explanations based on the concept of instincts do not go very far toward explaining why one specific pattern of behavior, and not others, has appeared in a given species. In addition, although it is clear that much animal behavior is based on instincts, much of the variety and complexity of human behavior is learned and thus cannot be seen as instinctual. As a result of these shortcomings, newer explanations have replaced conceptions of motivation based on instincts.

### 8.1.2: Drive Reduction Approach

**Drive-reduction approaches to motivation suggesting that a lack of a basic biological requirement such as water produces a drive to obtain that requirement (in this case, the thirst drive).**

After rejecting instinct theory, psychologists first proposed simple drive-reduction theories of motivation to take its place (Hull, 1943). Drive-reduction approaches to motivation suggest that a lack of some basic biological requirement such as water produces a drive to obtain that requirement (in this case, the thirst drive).

A drive is a motivational tension, or arousal, that energizes behavior to fulfill a need. Many basic drives, such as hunger, thirst, sleep, and sex, are related to biological needs of the body or of the species as a whole. These are called primary drives. Primary drives contrast with secondary drives in which behavior fulfills no obvious biological need. In secondary drives, prior experience and learning bring about needs. For instance, some people have strong needs to achieve academically and professionally.

Although drive-reduction theories provide a good explanation of how primary drives motivate behavior, they cannot fully explain a behavior in which the goal is not to reduce a drive but rather to maintain or even increase the level of excitement or arousal. For instance, some behaviors seem to be motivated by nothing more than curiosity, such as rushing to check e-mail messages. Similarly, many people pursue thrilling activities such as riding a roller coaster or steering a raft down the rapids of a river. Such behaviors certainly don't suggest that people seek to reduce all drives as drive-reduction approaches would indicate (Begg & Langley, 2001; Rosenbloom & Wolf, 2002). To explain this phenomenon, psychologists have devised an alternative: arousal approaches to motivation.

8.1.2.1: Homeostasis

**Homeostasis, the body's tendency to maintain a steady internal state.** Homeostasis brings deviations in body functioning back to an optimal state, similar to the way a thermostat and a furnace work in a home heating system to maintain a steady temperature. Receptor cells throughout the body constantly monitor factors such as temperature and nutrient levels. When deviations from the ideal state occur, the body adjusts in an effort to return to an optimal state. Many fundamental needs, including the needs for food, water, stable body temperature, and sleep, operate via homeostasis (Black, 2006; Shin, Zheng, & Berthoud, 2009; Vassalli & Dijk, 2009).

## 8.1.3: Arousal Approach

**Arousal approaches to motivation says, the belief that we try to maintain certain levels of stimulation and activity increasing or reducing them as necessary.**

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 model suggests that if our stimulation and activity levels become too high, we try to reduce them. But, in

contrast to the drive-reduction model, the arousal model also suggests that if levels of stimulation and activity are too low, we will try to increase them by seeking stimulation.

### 8.1.4: Incentive Approach

**Incentive approaches to motivation suggesting that motivation stems from the desire to obtain valued external goals, or incentives.**

Incentive approaches to motivation suggest that motivation stems from the desire to obtain valued external goals, or incentives. In this view, the desirable properties of external stimuli—whether grades, money, affection, food, or sex—account for a person's motivation (Festinger et al., 2009).

Although the theory explains why we may succumb to an incentive (such as a mouth-watering dessert) even though we lack internal cues (such as hunger), it does not provide a complete explanation of motivation because organisms sometimes seek to fulfill needs even when incentives are not apparent. Consequently, many psychologists believe that the internal drives proposed by drive-reduction theory work in tandem with the external incentives of incentive theory to "push" and "pull" behavior, respectively. Thus, 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 (Pinel, Assanand, & Lehman, 2000; Lowery, Fillingim, & Wright, 2003; Berridge, 2004).

### 8.1.5: Cognitive Approach

**Cognitive approaches to motivation suggesting that motivation is a product of people's thoughts, expectations, and goals—their cognitions.**

Cognitive approaches to motivation suggest that motivation is a product of people's thoughts, expectations, and goals—their cognitions. 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 distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation causes us to participate in an activity for our own enjoyment rather than for any concrete, tangible reward that it will bring us. In contrast, extrinsic motivation causes us to do something for money, a grade, or some other concrete, tangible reward.

## 8.2: BASIC ELEMENTS OF MOTIVATION

### 8.2.1: Need

**An internal deficiency that may energize behavior.**

### 8.2.2: Drive

**The psychological expression of internal needs or valued goals. For example, hunger, thirst, or a drive for success.**

### 8.2.3: Incentive

**Incentive value: The value of a goal above and beyond its ability to fill a need.**

Some goals are so desirable that they can motivate behavior in the absence of an internal need. Other goals are so low in incentive value that they may be rejected even if they meet the internal need. Usually, our actions are energized by a mixture of internal needs and external incentives. That's why a strong need may change an unpleasant incentive into a desired goal.

Needs and incentives interact to determine drive strength. Moderate need combined with a high-incentive goal produces a strong drive. Even when a strong need exists, drive strength may be moderate if a goal's incentive value is low.

## 8.3: PRIMARY AND SECONDARY MOTIVES

### 8.3.1: Primary Motives

Primary motives are the motives that are absolutely essential for a person to satisfy. These are the basic needs of an individual that apply on everybody. For a motive to be classified in the primary motives category, there are certain conditions that must be met. These conditions are:

- These motives should be physiologically based.
- The motives need not to be learned.
- These are the basic and foremost motives that drive any individual.

Examples of primary motives include: food, shelter, sleep, sex, avoidance of pain and basic safety etc.

### 8.3.2: Secondary Motives

Once the primary motives are satisfied, the individual moves on to the secondary motives. Secondary motives include the motives that are more of a need in a modern and developed society – where primary motives and basic necessities are no longer an issue. The

secondary motives are the ones that are learned and then applied to satisfy personal needs and wants.

Examples of secondary motives include: need for achievement, affiliation, power etc.

## 8.4: LEVELS OF AROUSAL

**Arousal theory assumes that people prefer to maintain ideal, or comfortable, levels of arousal.** Arousal refers to activation of the body and the nervous system. Arousal is zero at death; it is low during sleep; it is moderate during normal daily activities; and it is high at times of excitement, emotion, or panic. Arousal theory assumes that we become uncomfortable when arousal is too low ("I'm bored") or when it is too high, as in fear, anxiety, or panic ("The dentist will see you now").

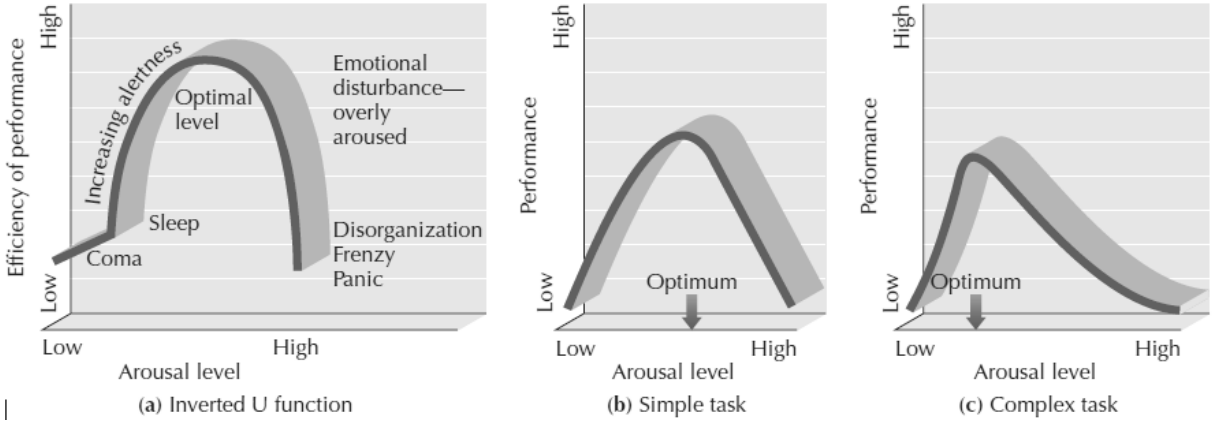
There is an ideal level of arousal for peak performance. Most people perform best when their arousal level is moderate. Thus, the relationship between arousal and performance forms an inverted U function (a curve in the shape of an upside-down U). The inverted U tells us that at very low levels of arousal we are not sufficiently energized to perform well. Performance will improve as our arousal level increases, up to the middle of the curve. Then it begins to drop off, as we become emotional, frenzied, or disorganized.

## 8.5: YERKE'S-DODSON LAW

**Yerkes-Dodson law: A summary of the relationships among arousal, task complexity, and performance.**

The ideal level of arousal depends on the complexity of a task. If a task is relatively simple, it is best for arousal to be high. When a task is more complex, your best performance will occur at lower levels of arousal. This relationship is called the **Yerkes-Dodson law**. It applies to a wide variety of tasks and to measures of motivation other than arousal.

For example, at a track meet, it is almost impossible for sprinters to get too aroused for a race. The task is direct and simple: Run as fast as you can for a short distance. On the other hand, a golfer making a tournament-deciding putt faces a more sensitive and complex task. Excessive arousal is almost certain to hurt his or her performance. In school, most students have had experience with "test anxiety," a familiar example of how too much arousal can lower performance.




## 8.6: LEARNED MOTIVES: AFFILIATION, ACHIEVEMENT AND POWER MOTIVE

Learned motives are based on learned needs, drives, and goals. Learned motives help explain many human activities, such as standing for election, blogging, or auditioning for American Idol. Many learned motives are related to learned needs for power, affiliation (the need to be with others), approval, status, security, and achievement. Fear and aggression also appear to be greatly affected by learning. Some of the important learned motives are mentioned below.

### 8.6.1: Need for Affiliation

Some people are more sociable by nature. They like to get connected with others. For such people, social affiliation is a great motive. **Being accepted by a higher-class group can be highly rewarding and satisfactory for them**. In order to motivate them, the management can give them access to a higher group or elite club that they would prefer.

### 8.6.2: Need for Achievement

To many people, being "motivated" means being interested in achievement (Wigfield & Eccles, 2002). In a later chapter we will investigate aggression, helping, affiliation, seeking approval, and other social motives. For now, let us focus on the need for achievement, which is a desire to meet an internal standard of excellence (McClelland, 1961). People with a high need for achievement strive to do well any time they are evaluated.

Needs for achievement may lead to wealth and prestige, but people who are high achievers in art, music, science, or amateur sports may excel without seeking riches. Such people typically enjoy challenges and they relish a chance to test their abilities (Puca & Schmalt, 1999).

### 8.6.3: Need for Power

The need for power, is a desire to have impact or control over others (McClelland,1975). People with strong needs for power want their importance to be visible: They buy expensive possessions, wear prestigious clothes, and exploit relationships. In some ways the pursuit of power and financial success is the dark side of the American dream. People whose main goal in life is to make lots of money tend to be poorly adjusted and unhappy (Kasser & Ryan, 1993).

## 8.7. EXTRINSIC AND INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

**Intrinsic motivation: Motivation that comes from within, rather than from external rewards; motivation based on personal enjoyment of a task or activity.**

**Extrinsic motivation: Motivation based on obvious external rewards, obligations, or similar factors.**

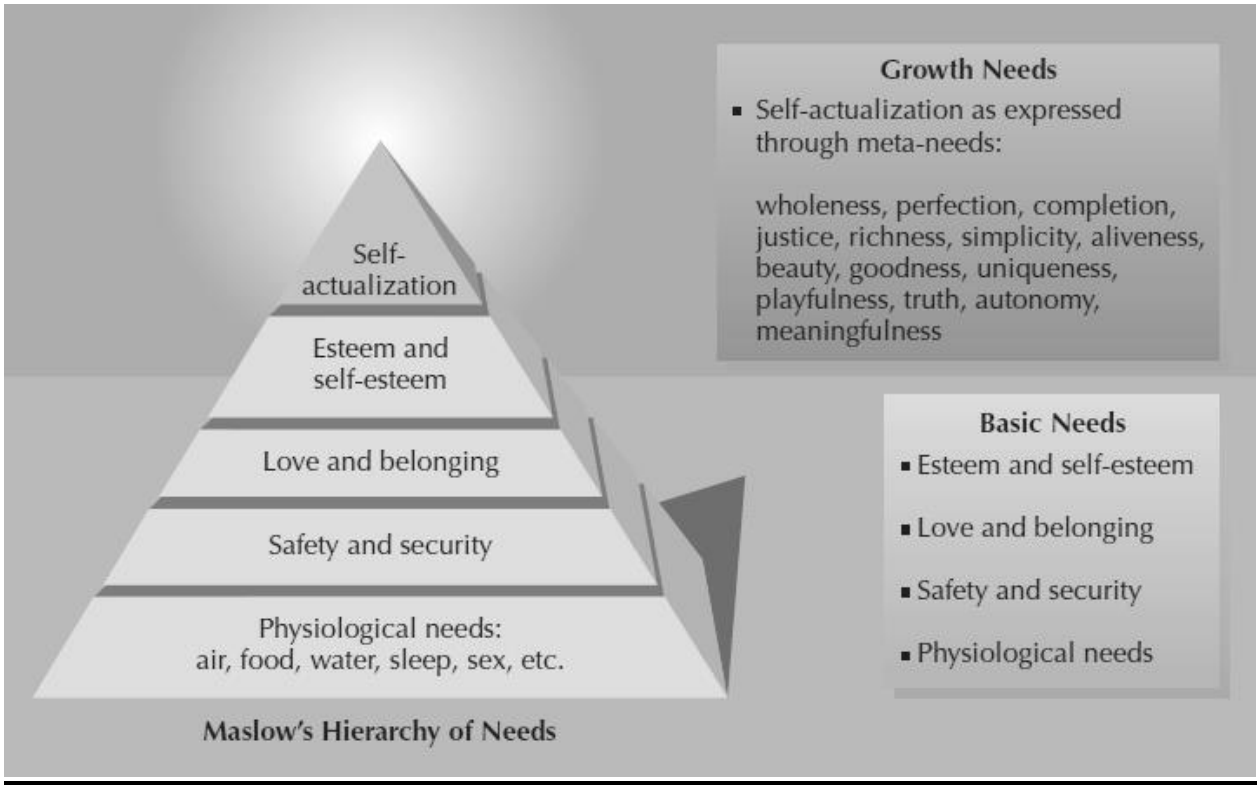
Intrinsic motivation occurs when we act without any obvious external rewards. We simply enjoy an activity or see it as an opportunity to explore, learn, and actualize our potentials. In contrast, extrinsic motivation stems from external factors, such as pay, grades, rewards, obligations, and approval. Most of the activities we think of as "work" are extrinsically rewarded (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Ryan &Deci, 2000).

## 8.8: HIERARCHY OF MOTIVES

Maslow described a hierarchy of human needs, in which some needs are more basic or powerful than others. Physiological needs are at the base of the pyramid. Because these needs must be met if we are to survive, they tend to be prepotent, or dominant over the higher needs. Maslow believed that higher, more fragile needs are expressed only after we satisfy our physiological needs. This is also true of needs for safety and security. Until they are met, we may have little interest in higher pursuits. For instance, a person who is feeling threatened might have little interest in writing poetry or even talking with friends. For this reason, Maslow described the first four levels of the hierarchy as basic needs. Other basic needs include **love and belonging** (family, friendship, caring), and **needs for esteem and self-esteem** (recognition and self-respect).

All the basic needs are deficiency motives. That is, they are activated by a lack of food, water, security, love, esteem, or other basic needs. At the top of the hierarchy we find growth needs, which are expressed as a need for self-actualization. The need for **self-actualization** is

not based on deficiencies. Rather, it is a positive, life-enhancing force for personal growth. If our basic needs are met, he said, we will tend to move on to actualizing our potentials.




## 8.9: ELEMENTS OF EMOTIONAL EXPERIENCE

**Emotions are the feelings that generally have both physiological and cognitive elements and that influence behavior.**

Emotions can be either positive or negative. Ordinarily, we might think that positive and negative emotions are mutually exclusive. But this is not the case. **In the brain, positive emotions are processed mainly in the left hemisphere. In contrast, negative emotions are processed in the right hemisphere.** The fact that positive and negative emotions are based on different brain areas helps explain why we can feel happy and sad at the same time (Canli et al., 1998). It also explains why one's right foot is more ticklish than your left foot! The left hemisphere controls the right side of the body and processes positive emotions (Smith & Cahusac, 2001). Thus, most people are more ticklish on their right side.

LeDoux and other researchers have found that an area of the brain called the **amygdala** specializes in producing fear. The amygdala receives sensory information very directly and quickly, bypassing the cortex. As a result, it allows us to respond to potential danger before we really know what's happening. This primitive fear response is not under the control of higher brain centers. The role of the amygdala in emotion may explain why people who suffer from

phobias and disabling anxiety often feel afraid without knowing why (Fellous & Ledoux, 2005).

People who suffer damage to the amygdala become "blind" to emotion. An armed robber could hold a gun to the person's head and the person wouldn't feel fear. Such people are also unable to "read" or understand other people's emotions. Like Robert, who you met at the beginning of this chapter, many lose their ability to relate normally to friends, family, and coworkers (Goleman, 1995).

## 8.10: THEORIES OF EMOTION

Theories of emotion offer different answers to the arousal, behaviour, cognition and expression of emotions. The major theories of emotions are mentioned below.

### 8.10.1: The James-Lange Theory

**This theory states that emotional feelings follow bodily arousal and come from awareness of such arousal.**

- This theory presented late in the 19th century by **William James and the Danish physiologist Carl Lange**, turns the commonsense idea about emotions inside out.

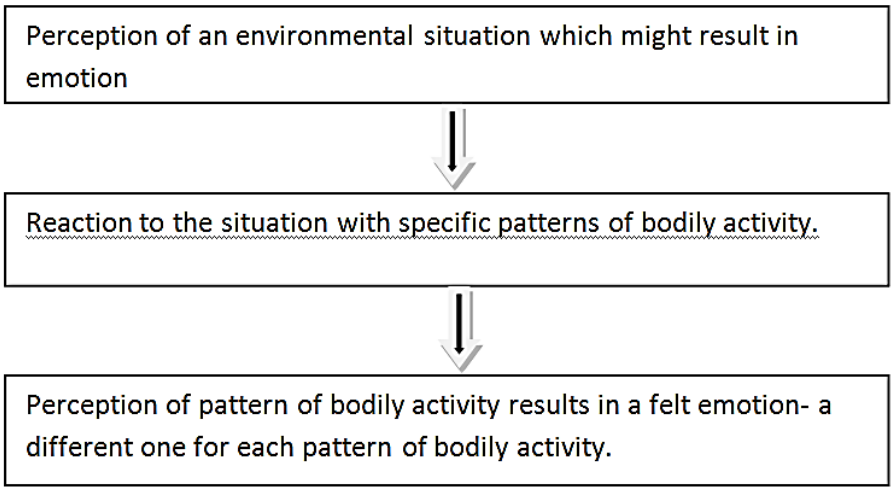
- It proposes the following sequence of events in emotional states.

    **1. We perceive the situation that will produce emotion.**

    **2. We react to this situation.**

    **3. We notice our reaction.**

- It suggests that subjective emotional experiences are actually the *result of* physiological changes within our bodies. In other words, you feel frightenedwhen making your speech *because* you notice that your heart is racing, yourmouth is dry, and so on.
- Our perception of the reaction is the basis for the emotion we experience. So the emotional experience (felt emotion) occurs after the bodily changes.
- The bodily changes (internal changes in the autonomic nervous system or movements of the body) precede the emotional experience.
- As William James himself put it (1890, p. 1066): "Wefeel sorry because we cry, angry because we strike, and afraid because we tremble."




**Criticisms**

- There are three major criticisms of the James-Langetheory.
- First, different emotions are not necessarily associated withdifferent patterns of physiological responses. For instance, anger,fear, and sadness share similar physiological patternsof arousal (Cacioppo et al., 2000). Thus, James's bearexample was backward: Instead of the act of runningmaking you feel fear, you feel fear and then run.
- Second, people whose spinal cords have beensevered at the neck are deprived of most of the feedback from their physiological responses (autonomicnervous system), yet they experience emotions withlittle or no change in intensity. These data are the opposite of whatthe James-Lange theory would predict, which is that these peopleshould experience little or no emotion (Chwalisz et al., 1988).
- Third, some emotions, such as feeling guilty or jealous, mayrequire a considerable amount of interpretation or appraisal ofthe situation. The sequence involved in feeling a complex emotionlike guilt or jealousy points to the influence of cognitive factors onemotional feelings (Clore&Ortony, 2008).

**8.10.2: Cannon - Bard Theory**

**This theory states that activity in the thalamus causes emotional feelings and bodily arousal to occur simultaneously.**

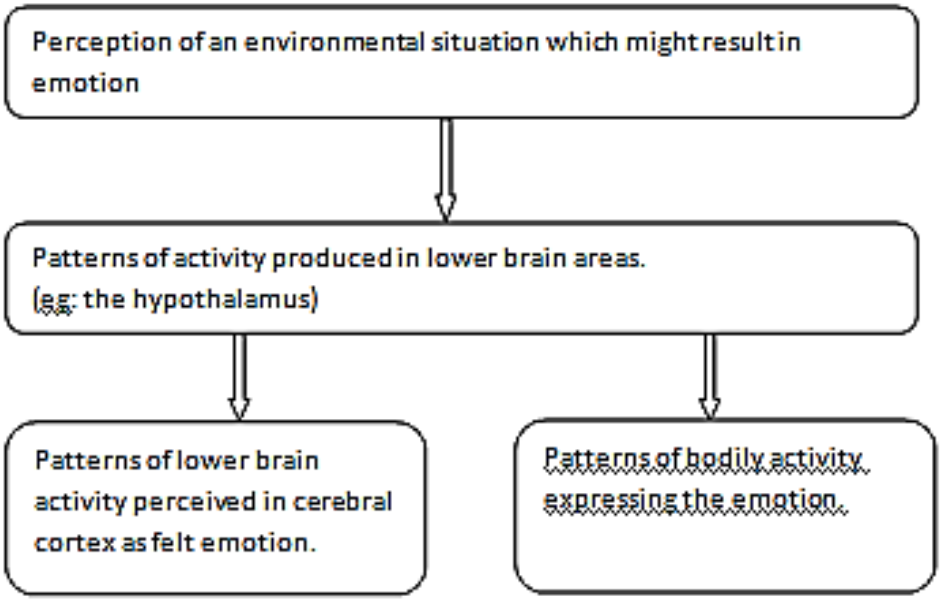
- In 1920, a theory about the relationship between bodily states and felt emotion was proposed by **Walter Cannon**, who based his approach to the emotions on research done by **Philip Bard.**

- The Cannon – Bard theory says that **felt emotion and the bodily reactions are independent of each other; both are triggered simultaneously.**
- According to this theory, we first perceive potential emotion producing situations in the external world.
- Then, lower brain areas, such as the hypothalamus and thalamus are activated.
- These lower brain areas then send output in two directions and back to the cortex.

    1. *To the internal bodily organs and the external muscles to produce the bodily expression of emotion.*

    2. *To the cerebral cortex, where the pattern of discharge from the lower brain areas is perceived as the felt emotion.*

- The muscles and organs make the physiological reactions to the emotion and the cortex interprets the signal as emotion.
- Thus, this theory proposes that physiological and psychological reactions occur at the same time.
- In Contrast with the James Lange theory, this theory holds that bodily reactions and the felt emotion are independent of each other in the sense that bodily reactions are not the basis of the felt emotion.



### 8.10.3: Schachter's Cognitive Theory of Emotion

**This theory states that emotions occur when physical arousal is labelled or interpreted on the basis experience and situational cues.**

The previous theories are mostly concerned with our physical responses. **Stanley Schachter** realized that cognitive (mental) factors also enter into emotion. According to Schachter's cognitive theory, emotion occurs when we apply a particular label to general physiological arousal. We likely choose the appropriate label through a process of attribution, by deciding which source is leading to the arousal (Valins, 1967).

For example, if someone sneaks up behind a person on a dark street and says, "Boo!" his body is now aroused (pounding heart, sweating palms, and so on). If he attributes his arousal to a total stranger, he might label his arousal as fear; if he attributes his arousal to a close friend, he may experience surprise or delight. **The label** (such as anger, fear, or happiness) **one apply to bodily arousal is influenced by his/her past experiences, the situation, and the reactions of others.**

## 8.11: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

**Emotional intelligence can be defined as the ability to perceive, use, understand, and manage emotions (Salovey& Mayer, 1997).**

In general, being emotionally intelligent means accepting that emotions are an essential part of who we are and how we survive. Being emotionally skilled can make us more flexible, adaptable, and emotionally mature (Bonanno et al.,2004).

People having high emotional skills are more agreeable than people with low emotional skills (Haas et al., 2007).A lack of emotional intelligence can ruin careers and sabotage achievement. Poor emotional skills can contribute to depression, eating disorders, unwanted pregnancy, aggression, violentcrime, and poor academic performance (Parker, 2005).Thus, in many life circumstances emotional intelligence is as important as IQ

### 8.11.1: Elements of Emotional Intelligence

Many elements contribute to emotional intelligence. A description of some of the most important skills follows:

8.11.1.1: Perceiving emotions

The foundation of emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others. Emotionally intelligent people are tuned in to their own feelings. For example, they are able to recognize quickly if they are angry, or envious, or feeling guilty, or depressed. This is valuable because many people have disruptive emotions without being able to pinpoint why they are uncomfortable. At the same time, emotionally intelligent people have empathy. They accurately perceive emotions in others and sense what others are feeling. They are good at "reading" facial expressions, tone of voice, and other signs of emotion.

8.11.1.2: Using emotions

People who are emotionally intelligent use their feelings to enhance thinking and decision-making. For example, if one can remember how he reacted emotionally in the past, it can help him react better to new situations. One can also use emotions to promote personal growth and improve relationships with others. Likewise, when good fortune comes their way, people who are emotionally smart share the news with others. Almost always, doing so strengthens relationships and increases emotional well-being (Gable et al., 2004).

8.11.1.3: Understanding emotions

Emotions contain useful information. For instance, anger is a cue that something is wrong; anxiety indicates uncertainty; embarrassment communicates shame; depression means people feel helpless; enthusiasm tells us we're excited. People who are emotionally intelligent know what causes various emotions, what they mean, and how they affect behavior.

8.11.1.4: Managing emotions

Emotional intelligence involves an ability to manage one's own emotions and those of others. For example, if one individual knows how to calm down when he is angry and he also know how to calm others. As Aristotle noted so long ago, people who are emotionally intelligent have an ability to amplify or restrain emotions, depending on the situation (Bonanno et al., 2004).

## 8.12: REFERENCES

Baron, R.A. (2004). Psychology, (5th ed.). New Delhi: Pearson Education.

Coon, D., & Mitterer, J.O. (2007). *Introduction to psychology: Gateways to mind and behavior,* (11th ed.). New Delhi: Thomson Wadsworth.

Feldman, R. S. (2011) *Understanding psychology.* New York: Tata McGraw Hill.

Myers, D. G., & DeWall, C. N. (2015). *Psychology*. New York, NY: Worth Publishers.

Weiten, W. (2016). *Psychology: Themes and Variations*. Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.