18MPS15E-EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

UNIT-3

WHAT IS MOTIVATION?

Motivation is usually defined as an internal state that arouses, directs, and maintains behavior. Psychologists studying motivation have focused on five basic questions:

1. What choices do people make about their behavior? Why do some students, for example, focus on their homework and others play video games?

2. How long does it take to get started? Why do some students start their home work right away, while others procrastinate?

3. What is the intensity or level of involvement in the chosen activity? Once the backpack is opened, is the student engrossed and focused or is he just going through the motions?

4. What causes someone to persist or to give up? Will a student read the entire Shakespeare assignment or just a few pages?

5. What is the person thinking and feeling while engaged in the activity? Is the student enjoying Shakespeare, feeling competent, or worrying about an upcoming test (Anderman & Anderman, 2014; S. Graham & Weiner, 1996; Pintrich, Marx, & Boyle, 1993)?

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

We all know how it feels to be motivated, to move energetically toward a goal or to work hard, even if we are bored by the task. What energizes and directs our behavior?

The explanation could be drives, basic desires, needs, incentives, fears, goals, social pressure, self-confidence, interests, curiosity, beliefs, values, expectations, and more. Some psychologists have explained motivation in terms of personal *traits* or individual characteristics. Certain people, so the theory goes, have a strong need to achieve, a fear of tests, a curiosity about mechanical objects, or an enduring interest in art, so they work hard to achieve, avoid tests, tinker endlessly in their garages, or spend hours in art galleries.

Other psychologists see motivation more as a *state,* a temporary situation. If, for example, you are reading this paragraph because you have a test tomorrow,

you are motivated (at least for now) by the situation. Of course, the motivation we experience at any given time usually is a combination of trait and state. You may be studying because you value learning *and* because you are preparing for a test. In addition, your motivational traits may set your general level or range of motivation, but certain situations (or states) may engage you more or less within that general range.

A classic distinction is made about amotivation, intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation.

Amotivation is a complete lack of any intent to act—no engagement at all. **Intrinsic motivation** is the natural human tendency to seek out and conquer challenges as we pursue personal interests and exercise our capabilities. When we are intrinsically motivated, we do not need incentives or punishments, because the activity itself is satisfying and rewarding (Anderman & Anderman, 2014; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Reiss, 2004). Satisfied Spenser studies chemistry outside school simply because he loves learning about chemistry; no one makes him do it. Intrinsic motivation is associated with many positive outcomes in school such as academic achievement, creativity, reading comprehension and enjoyment, and using deep learning strategies (Corpus, McClintic-Gilbert, & Hayenga, 2009).

In contrast, when we do something to earn a grade, avoid punishment, please the teacher, or for some other reason that has very little to do with the task itself, we experience

extrinsic motivation. We are not really interested in the activity for its own sake; we care only about what it will gain us. Safe Sumey works for the grade; she has little interest in the subject itself. Extrinsic motivation has been associated with negative emotions, poor academic achievement, and maladap tive learning strategies (Corpus et al., 2009). However, extrinsic motivation also has benefits if it provides incentives as students try new things, gives them an extra push to get started, or helps them persist to complete a mundane task. Beware of either/or!

According to psychologists who adopt the intrinsic/extrinsic concept of motivation, it is impossible to tell just by looking if a behavior is intrinsically or extrinsically motivated.

The essential difference between the two types of motivation is the student's

reason for acting—whether the locus of causality for the action (the location of the cause) is internal or external—inside or outside the person. Students who read or practice their backstroke or paint may be reading, swimming, or painting because they freely chose the activity based on personal interests (*internal locus of causality/intrinsic motivation*), or because someone or something else outside is influencing them (*external locus of causality/extrinsic motivation*) (Reeve, 2002; Reeve & Jang, 2006a, 2006b).

As you think about your own motivation, you probably realize that the dichotomy between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is too either/or—too all-or-nothing.

Five General Approaches to Motivation

STOP & THINK Why are you reading this chapter? Are you curious about motivation and interested in the topic? Or is there a test in your near future? Do you need this course to earn a teaching license or to graduate? Maybe you believe that you will do well in this class, and that belief keeps you working. Maybe you just got caught up in the ideas and can't put the book down . Perhaps it is some combination of these reasons. What motivates

you to study motivation? •

Motivation is a vast and complicated subject encompassing many theories. Some theories were developed through work with animals in laboratories. Others are based on research with humans in situations that used games or puzzles. The work done in clinical or industrial psychology inspired additional theories as well. Our examination of the field will be selective; otherwise we would never finish. To get the big picture, we consider five families of explanations.

BEHAVIORAL APPROACHES TO MOTIVATION. According to the behavioral view, an understanding of student motivation begins with a careful analysis of the incentives and rewards present in the classroom. A reward is an attractive object or event supplied as a consequence of a particular behavior. For example, Safe Sumey was *rewarded* with bonus points when she drew an excellent diagram. An incentive is an object or event that encourages or discourages behavior. The promise of an A+ was an *incentive* to Sumey. Actually receiving the grade was a *reward.* Providing grades, stars, stickers, and other reinforcers for learning—or demerits for misbehavior—is an attempt to motivate students by extrinsic means of incentives, rewards, and punishments.

HUMANISTIC APPROACHES TO MOTIVATION. In the 1940s, proponents of humanistic psychology such as Carl Rogers argued that neither of the dominant schools of psychology, behavioral or Freudian, adequately explained why people act as they do. Humanistic interpretations of motivation emphasize such intrinsic sources of motivation as a person's needs for "self-actualization" (Maslow, 1968, 1970), the inborn "actualizing tendency" (Rogers & Freiberg, 1994), or the need for "self-determination" (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991). So, from the humanistic perspective, to motivate means to encourage people's inner resources—their sense of competence,determination theory, discussed later, are influential humanistic explanations of motivation. Giving students choices in projects, goals, books, or topics is an example of applying humanistic approaches.

COGNITIVE APPROACHES TO MOTIVATION. In cognitive theories, people are viewed as active and curious, searching for information to solve personally relevant problems. Thus, cognitive theorists emphasize intrinsic motivation. In many ways, cognitive theories of motivation also developed as a reaction to the behavioral views. Cognitive theorists believe that behavior is determined by our thinking, not simply by whether we have been rewarded or punished for the behavior in the past. Behavior is initiated and regulated by plans (G. A. Miller, Galanter, & Pribram, 1960), goals (Locke & Latham, 2002), schemas (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988), expectations (Vroom, 1964), and attributions (Weiner, 2010). We will look at goals, expectations, and attributions later in this chapter.

SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORIES. Many influential social cognitive explanations of motivation can be characterized as expectancy 3 value theories. This means that motivation is seen as the product of two main forces: the individual's *expectation* of reaching a goal and the individual's *value* of that goal. In other words, the important questions are, "If I try hard, can I succeed?" and "If I succeed, will the outcome be valuable or rewarding to me?" Motivation is a product of these two forces, because if either factor is zero, then there is no motivation to work toward the goal. For example, if I believe I have a good chance of making the basketball team (high expectation), and if making the team is very important to me (high value), then my motivation should be strong. But if either factor is zero (I believe I haven't a prayer of making the team, or I couldn't care less about playing basketball), then my motivation will be zero, too (Tollefson, 2000).

Jacqueline Eccles and Allan Wigfield add the element of *cost* to the expectancy × value equation. Values have to be considered in relation to the cost of pursuing them. How much energy will be required? What could I be doing instead? What are the risks if I fail? Will I look stupid? Is the cost worth the possible benefit (Eccles, 2009; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002)?

SOCIOCULTURAL CONCEPTIONS OF MOTIVATION. Finish this sentence: I am a/an _____. What is your identity? With what groups do you identify most strongly? Sociocultural views of motivation emphasize participation in communities of practice. People engage in activities to maintain their identities and their interpersonal relations within the community. Thus, students are motivated to learn if they are members of a classroom or school community that values learning. Just as we learn through socialization to speak or dress or order food in restaurants—by watching and learning from more capable members of the culture—we also learn to be students by watching and learning from members of our school community. In other words, we learn by the company we keep (Eccles, 2009; Hickey, 2003; Rogoff, Turkanis, & Bartlett, 2001).

When we see ourselves as soccer players, or sculptors, or engineers, or teachers, or psychologists, we are claiming an identity within a group. In building an identity in the group, we move from legitimate peripheral participation to central participation. **Legitimate peripheral participation** means that beginners are genuinely involved in the work of the group, even if their abilities are undeveloped and their contributions are small. The novice weaver learns to dye wool before spinning and weaving, and the novice teacher learns to tutor one child before working with the whole group. Each task is a piece of the real work of the expert. The identities of both the novice and the expert are bound up in their participation in the community, which motivates them to learn the values and practices of the community (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). Another

key issue in sociocultural models of student motivation and engagement in school is *cultural correspondence*—whether school tasks and activities connect with students' funds of knowledge and prior experiences (Lawson & Lawson, 2013). The behavioral, humanistic, cognitive, social cognitive, and sociocultural approaches to motivation are summarized in Table 12.1 on the next page. These theories differ in their answers to the question, "What is motivation?" but each contributes in its own way toward a comprehensive understanding.

NEEDS

Early research in psychology conceived of motivation in terms of trait-like needs or consistent personal characteristics. Three of the main needs studied extensively in this earlier work were the needs for *achievement, power,* and *affiliation* (Pintrich, 2003). Abraham Maslow's influential theory emphasized a hierarchy that included all these needs and more.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow (1970) suggested that humans have a hierarchy of needs ranging from lower-level needs for survival and safety to higher-level needs for knowledge and understanding and finally self-actualization (see Figure 12.1). Self-actualization is Maslow's term for self-fulfillment, the realization of personal potential—"being all that you can be." Each of the lower needs must be met before the next higher need can be addressed. Maslow (1968) called the four lower-level needs—for survival, then safety, followed by belong ing, and then self-esteem—deficiency needs. When these needs are satisfied, the motivation for fulfilling them decreases. He labeled the three higher-level needs—cognitive needs, then aesthetic needs, and finally self-actualization—being needs. When they are met, a person's motivation does not cease; instead, it increases to seek further fulfillment. Unlike the deficiency needs, these being needs can never be completely filled. For example, the more successful you are in your efforts to develop as a teacher, the harder you are likely to strive for even greater improvement.

Maslow's theory has been criticized for the very obvious reason that people do not always appear to behave as the theory would predict. Most of us move back and forth among different types of needs and may even be motivated by many needs at the same time. Some people deny themselves safety or friendship to achieve knowledge, understanding, or greater self-esteem. Criticisms aside, Maslow's theory does give us a way of looking at the whole student, whose physical, emotional, and intellectual needs are all interrelated. When children are hungry, they will have trouble focusing on academic learning. A child whose feelings of safety and sense of belonging are threatened by divorce may have little interest in learning how to divide fractions. If school is a fearful, unpredictable place where neither teachers nor students know where they stand, they are likely to be more concerned with security and less with learning or teaching. Belonging to a social group and maintaining self-esteem within that group, for example, are important to students.

If doing what the teacher says conflicts with group rules, students may choose to ignore the teacher's wishes or even defy the teacher. Self-determination theory is a more recent approach to motivation that focuses on human needs (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Reeve, 2009).

GOAL ORIENTATIONS

A goal is an outcome or attainment an individual is striving to accomplish (Locke & Latham, 2002). When students strive to read a chapter or make a 4.0 GPA, they are involved in goal directed behavior. In pursuing goals, students are generally aware of some current condition (I haven't even opened my book), some ideal condition (I have understood every page), and the discrepancy between the two. Goals motivate people to act in order to reduce the discrepancy between "where they are" and "where they want to be." Goal setting is usually effective for me. In addition to the routine tasks, such as eating lunch, which will happen without much attention, I often set goals for each day. For example, today I intend to finish this section, walk to the grocery store, order a medicine cabinet from Amazon, and wash another load of clothes (I know— not too exciting). Having decided to do these things, I will feel uncomfortable if I don't complete the list.

According to Locke and Latham (2002), there are four main reasons why goal setting improves performance. Goals:

1. Direct attention to the task at hand and away from distractions. Every time my mind wanders from this chapter, my goal of finishing the section helps direct my attention back to the writing.

2. Energize effort. The more challenging the goal, to a point, the greater the effort.

3. Increase persistence. When we have a clear goal, we are less likely to give up until we reach the goal: Hard goals demand effort, and tight deadlines lead to faster work.

4. Promote the development of new knowledge and strategies when old strategies fall short. For example, if your goal is making an A and you don't reach that goal on your first quiz, you might try a new study approach for the next quiz, such as explaining the key points to a friend.

Types of Goals and Goal Orientations

The types of goals we set influence the amount of motivation we have to reach them. Goals that are *specific, elaborated, moderately difficult,* and *proximal* (likely to be reached in the near future) tend to enhance motivation and persistence (Anderman & Anderman, 2014; Schunk, Meece, & Pintrich, 2014)

Reaching Every Student: Coping with Anxiety

Some students, particularly those with learning disabilities or emotional disorders, may be especially anxious in school. When students face stressful situations such as tests, they can use three kinds of coping strategies: problem-focused self-regulating learning strategies; emotional management; and avoidance. *Problem-focused, self-regulating strategies* might include planning a study schedule, borrow ing good notes, or finding a protected place to study. *Emotion-focused strategies* are attempts to reduce the anxious feelings, for example, by using relaxation exercises or describing the feelings to a friend.

Of course, the latter might become an *avoidance strategy,* along with going out for pizza or suddenly launching an all-out desk-cleaning attack (can't study until you get organized!). Different strategies are helpful at different points—for example, self-regulated learning before and emotion management during an exam. Different strategies fit different people and situations (Zeidner, 1995, 1998).

To help students cope with academic anxiety in classrooms, teachers can employ several motivational strategies discussed in this chapter. At the center of this support is helping students to develop effective coping and self-regulation strategies that will reduce the negative effect of anxiety. Because anxiety is an emotional construct, but the anxiety occurs in a performance context, both emotional and cognitive support strategies are necessary (K. L. Fletcher & Cassady, 2010; also see the discussion of self-regulation in Chapter 11).

First, teachers can help anxious learners become more effective at recognizing the source of their anxious feelings and accurately interpreting them. Connected to this, teachers can help students adopt attributional styles that recognize that they have control over their learning and performance. So, rather than developing a failure-accepting view, students can learn to identify situations where they have been successful and recognize that with support and effort, they can achieve better outcomes.

Second, teachers should help highly anxious students to set realistic goals, because these individuals often have difficulty making wise choices. They tend to select either extremely difficult or extremely easy tasks. In the first case, they are likely to fail, which will increase their sense of hopelessness and anxiety about school. In the second case, they will probably succeed on the easy tasks, but they will miss the sense of satisfaction that could encourage greater effort and ease their fears about schoolwork. Goal cards, progress charts, or goal-planning journals may help here. In addition, directly teaching students self-regulated learning strategies and supporting their self-efficacy can help them be more in control of their learning and their anxiety (Jain & Dowson, 2009).

Third, teachers can support improved performance by teaching students more effective methods for learning and studying. Research on anxious learners indicates that they tend to spend more time studying, but the methods they adopt tend to be repetitive and low quality (Cassady, 2004;

Wittmaier, 1972). As teachers help students to build both the cognitive and emotional skills necessary to overcome anxiety, the students should begin to observe the steady gains in performance and ideally internalize the strategies that have helped them be more successful.

Finally, teachers can limit the environmental triggers for anxiety in their classrooms by examining their underlying biases (to reduce the presence of stereotype threat messages in their classrooms), promoting mastery-oriented classroom goal structures, and providing a positive

MOTIVATION TO LEARN IN SCHOOL: ON TARGET

Teachers are concerned about developing a particular kind of motivation in their students— the motivation to learn, defined as "a student tendency to find academic activities meaningful and worthwhile and to try to derive the intended academic benefits from them" (Brophy, 1988, pp. 205–206). Motivation to learn involves more than wanting or intending to learn. It includes the quality of the student's mental efforts. For example, reading the text 11 times may indicate persistence, but motivation to learn implies more thoughtful, active study strategies, such as sum marizing, elaborating the basic ideas, outlining in your own words, drawing graphs of the key relationships, and so on (Brophy, 1988).

It would be wonderful if all our students came to us filled with the motivation to learn, but they don't. As teachers, we have three major goals. The first is to get students productively involved with the work of the class; in other words, to

catch their interest and create a *state* of motivation to learn. The second and longer-term goal is to develop in our students enduring individual interests and the *trait* of being motivated to learn so they will be able to educate themselves for the rest of their lives. And finally, we want our students to be *cognitively engaged*—to think deeply about what they study. In other words, we want them to be thoughtful (Blumenfeld, Puro, & Mergendoller, 1992).

Earlier in this chapter we examined the roles of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, attributions, goals, beliefs, self-perceptions, interests, curiosity, and emotions in motivation. Table 12.5 shows how each of these factors contributes to motivation to learn.

The central question for the remainder of the chapter is: How can teachers use their knowledge about attributions, goals, beliefs, self-perceptions, interests, and emotions to increase motivation to learn? To organize our discussion, we will use the TARGET model (Ames, 1992; Epstein, 1989), identifying six areas where teachers make decisions that can influence student motivation to learn.

T task that students are asked to do

A autonomy or authority students are allowed in working

R recognition for accomplishments

G grouping practices

E evaluation procedures

T time in the classroom

Strategies to Encourage Motivation

Until four basic conditions are met for every student and in every classroom, no motivational strategies will succeed. First, the classroom must be relatively organized and free from constant interruptions and disruptions. (Chapter 13 will give you the information you need to make sure this requirement is met.) Second, the teacher must be a patient, supportive person who never embarrasses the students because they made mistakes. Everyone in the class should view mistakes as opportunities for learning (Clifford, 1990, 1991). Third, the work must be challenging, but reasonable. If work is too easy or too difficult, students will have little motivation to learn. They will focus on finishing, not on learning. Finally, the learning tasks must be authentic. And as we have seen,

what makes a task authentic is influenced by the students' culture (Bergin, 1999; Brophy & Kher, 1986; Stipek, 2002).

Once these four basic conditions are met, the influences on students' motivation to learn in a particular situation can be summarized in four questions: Can I succeed at this task? Do I want to succeed? What do I need to do to succeed? Do I belong? (Committee on Increasing High School Students' Engagement and Motivation to Learn, 2004; Eccles & Wigfield, 1985). We want students to have confidence in their ability so they will approach learning with energy and enthusiasm. We want them to see the value of the tasks involved and work to learn, not just try to get the grade or get finished. We want students to believe that success will come when they apply good learning strategies instead of believing that their only option is to use self-defeating, failure-avoiding, face saving strategies. When things get difficult, we want students to stay focused on the task and not get so worried about failure that they "freeze." And we want students to feel as though they belong in school—that their teachers and classmates care about them and can be trusted.