

# ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

## UNIT -3

### EMOTIONS AND MOTIVATION

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An integrative view of **emotions and motivation** is needed to understand and facilitate **learning and performance** (Kim & Hodges, 2012; Pekrun, 2006). ... First, we discuss the impact of **emotions** in **learning and performance** contexts. Second, we review several theories describing how **emotions**.

What is motivational and emotional influences on learning?

- **Motivational and emotional** factors also **influence** both the quality of thinking and information processing as well as an individual's **motivational to learn**. **Motivational and emotional influences on learning**.
- Positive **emotions**, such as curiosity, generally enhance **motivation** and facilitate **learning** and performance.

How do emotions affect motivation?

First, the arousal of **emotion** and motives of **motivation** both activate or energize behaviour. Second, **emotions** often go together with motives. ... And third, it is typical for basic **emotions** to possess motivational properties of their own. For example, happiness motivates a person to achieve better performance.

How does emotion affect performance?

An unpleasant **emotion** sends a signal that they need to **do** something to improve the way they feel. For a competitive rider who is feeling down because he is performing poorly, such an **emotion** might lead to increasing effort and increased effort can lead to improved **performance**

### Definition

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*Emotional intelligence has been defined, by Peter Salovey and John Mayer, as "the ability to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, to discriminate between different emotions and label them appropriately, and to use emotional information to guide thinking and behavior". This definition*

was later broken down and refined into four proposed abilities: perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions. These abilities are distinct yet related.[1] Emotional intelligence also reflects abilities to join intelligence, empathy and emotions to enhance thought and understanding of interpersonal dynamics.[32] However, substantial disagreement exists regarding the definition of EI, with respect to both terminology and operationalizations. Currently, there are three main models of EI:

1. Ability model
2. Mixed model (usually subsumed under trait EI)[33][34]
3. Trait model

Different models of EI have led to the development of various instruments for the assessment of the construct. While some of these measures may overlap, most researchers agree that they tap different constructs.

Specific ability models address the ways in which emotions facilitate thought and understanding. For example, emotions may interact with thinking and allow people to be better decision makers (Lyubomirsky et al. 2005).[32] A person who is more responsive emotionally to crucial issues will attend to the more crucial aspects of his or her life.[32] Aspects of emotional facilitation factor is to also know how to include or exclude emotions from thought depending on context and situation.[32] This is also related to [emotional reasoning](#) and understanding in response to the people, environment and circumstances one encounters in his or her day-to-day life.[32]

## Ability model

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Salovey and Mayer's conception of EI strives to define EI within the confines of the standard criteria for a new intelligence.[35][36] Following their continuing research, their initial definition of EI was revised to "The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth." However, after pursuing further research, their definition of EI evolved into "the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions, to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth." [5]

The ability-based model views emotions as useful sources of information that help one to make sense of and navigate the social environment.<sup>[37][38]</sup> The model proposes that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. This ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviors. The model claims that EI includes four types of abilities:

1. *Perceiving emotions* – the ability to detect and decipher emotions in faces, pictures, voices, and cultural artifacts—including the ability to identify one's own emotions. Perceiving emotions represents a basic aspect of emotional intelligence, as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible.
2. *Using emotions* – the ability to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities, such as thinking and problem-solving. The emotionally intelligent person can capitalize fully upon his or her changing *moods* in order to best fit the task at hand.
3. *Understanding emotions* – the ability to comprehend emotion language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions. For example, understanding emotions encompasses the ability to be sensitive to slight variations between emotions, and the ability to recognize and describe how emotions evolve over time.
4. *Managing emotions* – the ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and in others. Therefore, the emotionally intelligent person can harness emotions, even negative ones, and manage them to achieve intended goals.

The ability EI model has been criticized in the research for lacking face and predictive validity in the workplace.<sup>[39]</sup> However, in terms of construct validity, ability EI tests have great advantage over self-report scales of EI because they compare individual maximal performance to standard performance scales and do not rely on individuals' endorsement of descriptive statements about themselves.<sup>[40]</sup>

## **Measurement**

The current measure of Mayer and Salovey's model of EI, the *Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test* (MSCEIT), is based on a series of emotion-based problem-solving items.<sup>[38][41]</sup> Consistent with the model's claim of EI as a type of intelligence, the test is modeled on ability-based IQ

*tests*. By testing a person's abilities on each of the four branches of emotional intelligence, it generates scores for each of the branches as well as a total score.

Central to the four-branch model is the idea that EI requires attunement to *social norms*. Therefore, the MSCEIT is *scored in a consensus fashion*, with higher scores indicating higher overlap between an individual's answers and those provided by a worldwide sample of respondents. The MSCEIT can also be expert-scored so that the amount of overlap is calculated between an individual's answers and those provided by a group of 21 *emotion researchers*.<sup>[38]</sup>

Although promoted as an ability test, the MSCEIT test is unlike standard IQ tests in that its items do not have objectively correct responses. Among other challenges, the consensus scoring criterion means that it is impossible to create items (questions) that only a minority of respondents can solve, because, by definition, responses are deemed emotionally "intelligent" only if the majority of the sample has endorsed them. This and other similar problems have led some cognitive ability experts to question the definition of EI as a genuine intelligence.<sup>[42]</sup>

In a study by Føllesdal,<sup>[43]</sup> the MSCEIT test results of 111 business leaders were compared with how their employees described their leader. It was found that there were no correlations between a leader's test results and how he or she was rated by the employees, with regard to *empathy*, ability to motivate, and leader effectiveness. Føllesdal also criticized the Canadian company Multi-Health Systems, which administers the test. The test contains 141 questions but it was found after publishing the test that 19 of these did not give the expected answers. This has led Multi-Health Systems to remove answers to these 19 questions before scoring but without stating this officially.

## **Other measurements**

Various other specific measures have also been used to assess ability in emotional intelligence. These measures include:

1. *Diagnostic Analysis of Non-verbal Accuracy*<sup>[32]</sup> – The Adult Facial version includes 24 photographs of equal amount of happy, sad, angry, and fearful facial expressions of both high and low intensities which are

balanced by gender. The tasks of the participants is to answer which of the four emotions is present in the given stimuli.[32]

2. Japanese and Caucasian Brief Affect Recognition test[32] – Participants try to identify 56 faces of Caucasian and Japanese individuals expressing seven emotions such happiness, contempt, disgust, sadness, anger, surprise, and fear, which may also trail off for 0.2 seconds to a different emotion.[32]
3. Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale[32] – Participants reads 26 social scenes and answers their anticipated feelings and continuum of low to high emotional awareness.[32]

## Mixed model

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The model introduced by Daniel Goleman[26] focuses on EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman's model outlines five main EI constructs (for more details see "What Makes A Leader" by Daniel Goleman, best of Harvard Business Review 1998):

1. *Self-awareness* – the ability to know one's emotions, strengths, weaknesses, drives, values and goals and recognize their impact on others while using *gut feelings* to guide decisions.
2. *Self-regulation* – involves controlling or redirecting one's disruptive emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances.
3. *Social skill* – managing relationships to get along with others
4. *Empathy* – considering other people's feelings especially when making decisions
5. *Motivation* – being aware of what motivates them.

Goleman includes a set of *emotional competencies* within each construct of EI. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and can be developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies.[44] Goleman's model of EI has been criticized in the research literature as mere "

## Psychological theories[[edit](#)]

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Motivation is a process in which thoughts influence behaviors. For example, drive performance affects thoughts, and these thoughts influence behaviors. Each phase of the cycle includes attitudes, beliefs, intentions, effort, and withdrawal. All of these aspects affect an individual's motivation. Most psychological theories claim that motivation exists purely within the individual, but [socio-cultural theories](#) express motivation as an outcome of participation in actions and activities within the [cultural](#) context of social groups.[10]

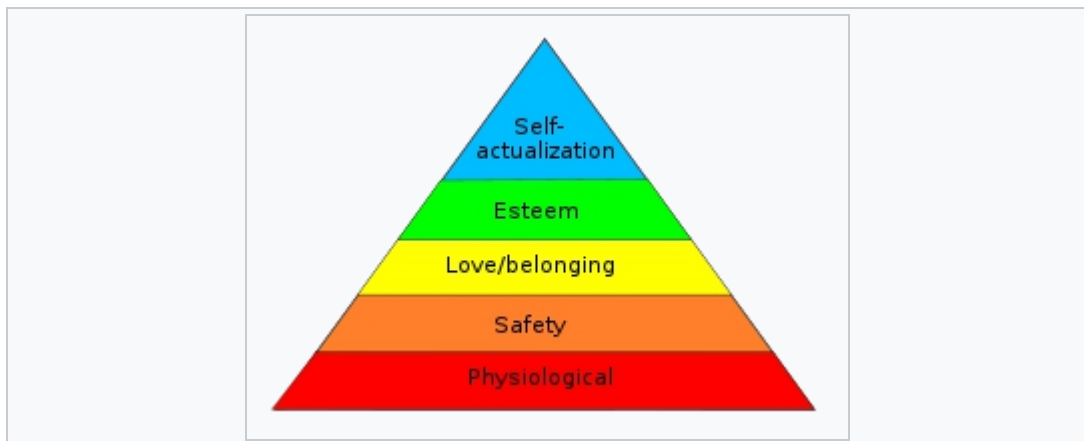
## Content theories[[edit](#)]

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*Main article: [Content theory](#)*

Theories articulating the content of motivation: what kinds of things people find motivating are among the earliest theories in motivation research history. Because content theories focus on which categories of goal (needs) motivate people, content theories are related to [need theories](#).

## Maslow's hierarchy of needs[[edit](#)]



Maslow's hierarchy of needs is represented as a pyramid with the more basic needs at the bottom

[Content theory](#) of human motivation includes both [Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs](#) and [Herzberg's two-factor theory](#). Maslow's theory is one of the most widely discussed theories of motivation. Abraham



Maslow believed that man is inherently good and argued that individuals possess a constantly growing inner drive that has great potential. The needs hierarchy system is a commonly used scheme for classifying human motives.<sup>[11]</sup> Maslow's hierarchy of needs emphasizes certain characteristics like family and community that involve the needs to be met.<sup>[12]</sup> The basic needs, safety, love and belonging, and esteem have to be met first in order for the individual to actually reach self-actualization. The needs can overlap within the pyramid, but the lower needs have to be met first in order to move up. Some basic needs can include food and shelter. The need of safety has to do with receiving protection.<sup>[13]</sup> For the individual to feel love/belonging they have to feel some type of attachment by giving and receiving love. Having competence and control in personal life has to do with meeting the need of esteem. Not being able to meet the lower and higher needs can have a detrimental effect on mental health. <sup>[14]</sup>This could lead to symptoms of depression, and lower self-esteem during adolescent years.<sup>[15]</sup> If safety needs are not met during adolescence, then the individual will have less confidence. A study found that just having support from the community, friends can lead to decreased emotional challenges. It is important to satisfy these needs in order to reduce emotional and mental challenges over time.<sup>[16]</sup>

The American motivation psychologist Abraham H. Maslow (1954) developed the hierarchy of needs consisting of five hierarchic classes. According to Maslow, people are motivated by unsatisfied needs. The needs, listed from basic (lowest-earliest) to most complex (highest-latest), are as follows:<sup>[17]</sup>

- *Physiology (hunger, thirst, sleep, etc.)*
- *Safety/Security/Shelter/Health*
- *Social/Love/Friendship*
- *Self-esteem/Recognition/Achievement*
- *Self actualization/achievement of full potential*

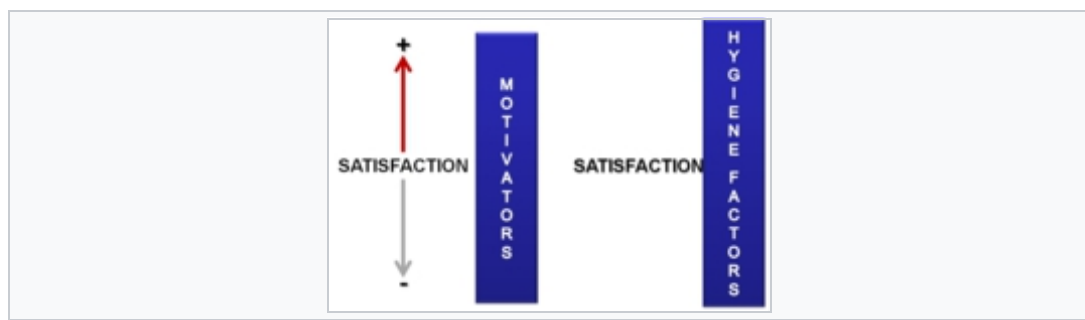
The basic requirements build upon the first step in the pyramid: physiology. If there are deficits on this level, all behavior will be oriented to satisfy this deficit. Essentially, if someone hasn't slept or eaten adequately, they won't be interested in your self-esteem desires. Subsequently, people that have the second level, awakens a need for security and so on and so forth. After securing those two levels, the motives shift to the social sphere, the third level. Psychological requirements comprise the fourth level, while the top of the hierarchy consists of self-realization and self-actualization.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory can be summarized as follows:

- Human beings have wants and desires which, when unsatisfied, may influence behavior.
- Differing levels of importance to human life are reflected in a hierarchical structure of needs.
- Needs at higher levels in the hierarchy are held in abeyance until lower-level needs are at least minimally satisfied.
- Needs at higher levels of the hierarchy are associated with individuality, humanness, and psychological health.

### Herzberg's two-factor theory[[edit](#)]

Main article: [Two-factor theory](#)



Two-factor theory

[Frederick Herzberg's](#) two-factor theory concludes that certain factors in the workplace result in [job satisfaction](#) (motivators), while others (hygiene factors), if absent, lead to dissatisfaction but are not related to satisfaction. The name hygiene factors are used because, like hygiene, the presence will not improve health, but absence can cause health deterioration.

The factors that motivate people can change over their lifetime. Some claimed motivating factors (satisfiers) were: Achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. Some hygiene factors (dissatisfiers) were: company policy, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, salary, status, job security, and personal life.<sup>[11]</sup>

### Alderfer's ERG theory[[edit](#)]

Main article: [ERG theory](#)



*Alderfer, building on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, posited that needs identified by Maslow exist in three groups of core needs — existence, relatedness, and growth, hence the label: ERG theory. The existence group is concerned with providing our basic material existence requirements. They include the items that Maslow considered to be physiological and safety needs. The second group of needs is relatedness- the desire we have to maintain important personal relationships. These social and status desires require interaction with others if they are to be satisfied, and they align with Maslow's social need and the external component of Maslow's esteem classification. Finally, Alderfer isolates growth needs as an intrinsic desire for personal development. All these needs should be fulfilled to greater wholeness as a human being.[18]*

### **Self-Determination Theory**[\[edit\]](#)

*Self-Determination Theory is an approach to human motivation and personality that uses traditional empirical methods while employing an organismic metatheory that highlights the importance of humans evolved inner resources for personality development and behavioral self-regulation (Ryan, Kuhn, & Deci, 1997). It takes a look into people's psychological needs and growth tendencies that reveal their personality and level of self-determination. Competence, relatedness, autonomy are important conditions that play a huge part in one's motivation and engagement in activities, because it determines a person's well-being.[19] The social environment, with the correct amount of support, can help fulfill basic psychological needs. These basic psychological needs are autonomy, competence and relatedness. These basic needs can create behaviors that result from personal support which leads to being engaged in a certain environment and provides relationships that are important.[20] Two types of motivation found in the self-determination theory are called amotivation and autonomous motivation. [21]These types of motivations can lead to intrinsic and extrinsic actions. The amotivation can derive from feelings of inadequacy which leads to having a lack of motivation. The person feels their environment is controlled through monitoring and rewards.[22] The person only feels motivation because of external rewards or to avoid punishment. On the other hand, autonomous motivation comes from the person's own lifestyle and engaging in a task is done innately. Having a supportive social environment can help bring out behaviors from autonomous motivations.[23]*

## Incentive theories: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation[edit]

Motivation can be divided into two various theories known as *intrinsic* (internal or inherent) motivation and *extrinsic* (external) motivation.

### Intrinsic motivation[edit]

See also: *Ikigai*

For other uses, see *intrinsic motivation (artificial intelligence)*.

Intrinsic motivation has been studied since the early 1970s. Intrinsic motivation is a behavior that is driven by satisfying internal rewards. For example, an athlete may enjoy playing football for the experience, rather than for an award.[1] It is an interest or enjoyment in the task itself, and exists within the individual rather than relying on external pressures or a desire for consideration. It is also the value and usefulness one feels in regard to specific activities. This idea is that people tend to internalize activities when they find them valuable for themselves (Deci et al, 1994). Deci (1971) explained that some activities provide their own inherent reward, meaning certain activities are not dependent on external rewards.[24] The phenomenon of intrinsic motivation was first acknowledged within experimental studies of animal behaviour. In these studies, it was evident that the organisms would engage in playful and curiosity-driven behaviours in the absence of *reward*. Intrinsic motivation is a natural motivational tendency and is a critical element in cognitive, social, and physical development.[25] The two necessary elements for intrinsic motivation are *self-determination* and an increase in perceived competence.[26] In short, the cause of the behaviour must be internal, known as internal locus of causality, and the individual who engages in the behaviour must perceive that the task increases their competence.[25] According to various research reported by Deci's published findings in 1971, and 1972, tangible rewards could undermine college student's motivation. However, these studies didn't just affect college students, Kruglanski, Friedman, and Zeevi (1971) repeated this study and found that symbolic and material rewards can undermine not just high school students, but preschool students as well. Students who are intrinsically motivated are more likely to engage in the task willingly as well as work to improve their skills, which will increase their capabilities.[27] Students are likely to be intrinsically motivated if they...

- attribute their educational results to factors under their own control, also known as autonomy or *locus of control*
- believe they have the skills to be effective agents in reaching their desired goals, also known as *self-efficacy* beliefs
- are interested in mastering a topic, not just in achieving good grades
- don't act from pressure, but from interest

An example of intrinsic motivation is when an employee becomes an IT professional because he or she wants to learn about how computer users interact with computer networks. The employee has the intrinsic motivation to gain more knowledge, and will continue to want to learn even in the face of failure.[28] *Art for art's sake* is an example of intrinsic motivation in the domain of art.

Traditionally, researchers thought of motivations to use computer systems to be primarily driven by extrinsic purposes; however, many modern systems have their use driven primarily by intrinsic motivations.[29] Examples of such systems used primarily to fulfill users' intrinsic motivations, include on-line gaming, virtual worlds, online shopping,[30] learning/education, online dating, digital music repositories, social networking, online pornography, gamified systems, and general gamification. Even traditional management information systems (e.g., ERP, CRM) are being 'gamified' such that both extrinsic and intrinsic motivations must increasingly be considered. Deci's findings didn't come without controversy. Articles stretching over the span of 25 years from the perspective of behavioral theory argue there isn't enough evidence to explain intrinsic motivation and this theory would inhibit "scientific progress." As stated above, we now can see technology such as various forms of computer systems are highly intrinsic.[24]

Not only can intrinsic motivation be used in a personal setting, but it can also be implemented and utilized in a social environment. Instead of attaining mature desires, such as those presented above via the internet which can be attained on one's own, intrinsic motivation can be used to assist extrinsic motivation to attain a goal. For example, Eli, a 4-year-old with autism, wants to achieve the goal of playing with a toy train.[31] To get the toy, he must first communicate to his therapist that he wants it. His desire to play is strong enough to be considered intrinsic motivation because it is a natural feeling, and his desire to communicate with his therapist to get the train can be considered extrinsic motivation because the outside

object is a reward (see incentive theory). Communicating with the therapist is the first, the slightly more challenging goal that stands in the way of achieving his larger goal of playing with the train. In this context, as an experimental *Transitional Wearable Companion (TWC)* has been developed to maximally activate the children with *Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD)*'s intrinsic motivation so as to create an important affective bond with the toy, and leverage this to stimulate and support social interactions with other humans.[32] TWCs are being specifically used to design and run experiments with children with ASD on the learning of sensory-motor contingencies driven by intrinsic motivations.[33][34] Achieving these goals in attainable pieces is also known as the *goal-setting theory*. The three elements of goal-setting (STD) are Specific, Time-bound, and Difficult. Specifically, goals should be set in the 90th percentile of difficulty.[10]

Intrinsic motivation comes from one's desire to achieve or attain a goal.[1] Pursuing challenges and goals come easier and more enjoyable when one is intrinsically motivated to complete a certain objective because the individual is more interested in learning, rather than achieving the goal.[1] Edward Deci and Richard Ryan's theory of intrinsic motivation is essentially examining the conditions that "elicit and sustain" this phenomenon.[1] Deci and Ryan coin the term "cognitive evaluation theory" which concentrates on the needs of competence and autonomy. The CET essentially states that social-contextual events like feedback and reinforcement can cause feelings of competence and therefore increase intrinsic motivation. However, feelings of competence will not increase intrinsic motivation if there is no sense of autonomy. In situations where choices, feelings, and opportunities are present, intrinsic motivation is increased because people feel a greater sense of autonomy.[1] Offering people choices, responding to their feelings, and opportunities for self-direction have been reported to enhance intrinsic motivation via increased autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985).[26][1]

An advantage (relative to extrinsic motivation) is that intrinsic motivators can be long-lasting, self-sustaining, and satisfying.[1] For this reason, efforts in education sometimes attempt to modify intrinsic motivation with the goal of promoting future student learning performance, creativity, and learning via long-term modifications in *interests*.[1] Intrinsic motivators are associated with *subjective well-being*.[35] Mindfulness has been found to be an intraindividual factor that supports autonomous motivation, with a meta-

analytical study finding a positive association between mindfulness and intrinsic motivation in individuals.[36] By contrast, intrinsic motivation has been found to be hard to modify, and attempts to recruit existing intrinsic motivators require a non-trivially difficult individualized approach, identifying and making relevant the different motivators of needed to motivate different students,[1] possibly requiring additional skills and intrinsic motivation from the instructor.[37]

### **Extrinsic motivation**

See also: *Goal orientation*

Extrinsic motivation comes from influences outside of the individual. In extrinsic motivation, the harder question to answer is where do people get the motivation to carry out and continue to push with persistence. Usually, extrinsic motivation is used to attain outcomes that a person wouldn't get from intrinsic motivation.[1] Common extrinsic motivations are *rewards* (for example money or grades) for showing the desired behaviour, and the threat of punishment following misbehaviour. Competition is an extrinsic motivator because it encourages the performer to win and to beat others, not simply to enjoy the activity's intrinsic reward. A cheering crowd and the desire to win a trophy are also extrinsic incentives.[38] For example, if someone plays tennis to receive an award, that would be extrinsic motivation while if the individual plays because he or she enjoys the game, that would be intrinsic motivation.[1]

The most simple distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation is the type of reasons or goals that lead to an action. While intrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable and satisfying, extrinsic motivation, refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome.[1] Extrinsic motivation thus contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which is doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, instead of for its instrumental value.[1]

Social psychological research has indicated that extrinsic rewards can lead to *overjustification* and a subsequent reduction in intrinsic motivation. In one study demonstrating this effect, children who expected to be (and were) rewarded with a ribbon and a gold star for drawing pictures spent less time playing with the drawing materials in subsequent observations than children who were assigned to an unexpected reward condition.[39] This shows how if an individual expects an award they don't care about the outcome while if



an individual doesn't expect a reward they will care more about the task.[1] However, another study showed that third graders who were rewarded with a book showed more reading behaviour in the future, implying that some rewards do not undermine intrinsic motivation.[40] While the provision of extrinsic rewards might reduce the desirability of an activity, the use of extrinsic constraints, such as the threat of punishment, against performing an activity has actually been found to increase one's intrinsic interest in that activity. In one study, when children were given mild threats against playing with an attractive toy, it was found that the threat actually served to increase the child's interest in the toy, which was previously undesirable to the child in the absence of threat.[41]

Advantages of extrinsic motivators are that they easily promote motivation to work and persist to goal completion. Rewards are tangible and beneficial.[1] A disadvantage for extrinsic motivators relative to internal is that work does not persist long once external rewards are removed. As the task is completed for the reward quality of work may need to be monitored,[1] and it has been suggested that extrinsic motivators may diminish in value over time.[1]

## **Behaviorist theories**

While many theories on motivation have a *mentalist* perspective, *behaviorists* focus only on observable behaviour and theories founded on experimental evidence. In the view of behaviorism, motivation is understood as a question about what factors cause, prevent, or withhold various behaviours, while the question of, for instance, conscious motives would be ignored. Where others would speculate about such things as values, drives, or needs, that may not be observed directly, behaviorists are interested in the observable variables that affect the type, intensity, frequency, and duration of observable behaviour. Through the basic research of such scientists as *Pavlov*, *Watson* and *Skinner*, several basic mechanisms that govern behaviour have been identified. The most important of these are classical conditioning and operant conditioning.

### **Classical and operant conditioning**

*Main article: Motivational salience*

In *classical (or respondent) conditioning*, behaviour is understood as responses triggered by certain environmental or physical stimuli. They can be *unconditioned*, such as in-born reflexes, or learned through the pairing of



an unconditioned stimulus with a different stimulus, which then becomes a conditioned stimulus. In relation to motivation, classical conditioning might be seen as one explanation as to why an individual performs certain responses and behaviors in certain situations.<sup>[42][43]</sup> For instance, a dentist might wonder why a patient does not seem motivated to show up for an appointment, with the explanation being that the patient has associated the dentist (conditioned stimulus) with the pain (unconditioned stimulus) that elicits a fear response (conditioned response), leading to the patient being reluctant to visit the dentist.

In *operant conditioning*, the type and frequency of behaviour are determined mainly by its consequences. If a certain behaviour, in the presence of a certain stimulus, is followed by a desirable consequence (a *reinforcer*), the emitted behaviour will increase in frequency in the future, in the presence of the stimulus that preceded the behaviour (or a similar one). Conversely, if the behaviour is followed by something undesirable (a *punisher*), the behaviour is less likely to occur in the presence of the stimulus. In a similar manner, the removal of a stimulus directly following the behaviour might either increase or decrease the frequency of that behaviour in the future (*negative reinforcement* or *punishment*).<sup>[42][43]</sup> For instance, a student that gained praise and a good grade after turning in a paper, might seem more motivated in writing papers in the future (*positive reinforcement*); if the same student put in a lot of work on a task without getting any praise for it, he or she might seem less motivated to do school work in the future (*negative punishment*). If a student starts to cause trouble in the class gets punished with something he or she dislikes, such as detention (*positive punishment*), that behaviour would decrease in the future. The student might seem more motivated to behave in class, presumably in order to avoid further detention (*negative reinforcement*).

The strength of reinforcement or punishment is dependent on *schedule* and *timing*. A reinforcer or punisher affects the future frequency of a behaviour most strongly if it occurs within seconds of the behaviour. A behaviour that is reinforced intermittently, at unpredictable intervals, will be more robust and persistent, compared to one that is reinforced every time the behaviour is performed.<sup>[42][43]</sup> For example, if the misbehaving student in the above example was punished a week after the troublesome behaviour, that might not affect future behaviour.

In addition to these basic principles, *environmental stimuli also affect behavior*. Behaviour is punished or reinforced in the context of whatever stimuli were present just before the behaviour was performed, which means that a particular behaviour might not be affected in every environmental context, or situation, after it is punished or reinforced in one specific context.<sup>[42][43]</sup> A lack of praise for school-related behaviour might, for instance, not decrease after-school sports-related behaviour that is usually reinforced by praise.

The various mechanisms of operant conditioning may be used to understand the motivation for various behaviours by examining what happens just after the behaviour (the consequence), in what context the behaviour is performed or not performed (the antecedent), and under what circumstances (motivating operators).<sup>[42][43]</sup>

### **Incentive motivation**<sup>[edit]</sup>

*Main section: Motivational salience & Incentive salience*

*Incentive theory* is a specific theory of motivation, derived partly from behaviorist principles of reinforcement, which concerns an incentive or motive to do something. The most common incentive would be a compensation. Compensation can be tangible or intangible; it helps in motivating the employees in their corporate lives, students in academics, and inspires people to do more and more to achieve profitability in every field. Studies show that if the person receives the *reward* immediately, the effect is greater, and decreases as delay lengthens.<sup>[citation needed]</sup> Repetitive action-reward combination can cause the action to become a habit<sup>[citation needed]</sup>

"Reinforcers and reinforcement principles of behaviour differ from the hypothetical construct of reward." A reinforcer is anything that follows an action, with the intention that the action will now occur more frequently. From this perspective, the concept of distinguishing between intrinsic and extrinsic forces is irrelevant.

Incentive theory in psychology treats motivation and behaviour of the individual as they are influenced by beliefs, such as engaging in activities that are expected to be profitable. Incentive theory is promoted by behavioral psychologists, such as B.F. Skinner. Incentive theory is especially supported by Skinner in his philosophy of Radical behaviorism, meaning that a person's actions always have social ramifications: and if actions are positively received

people are more likely to act in this manner, or if negatively received people are less likely to act in this manner.

Incentive theory distinguishes itself from other motivation theories, such as drive theory, in the direction of the motivation. In incentive theory, stimuli "attract" a person towards them, and push them towards the stimulus. In terms of behaviorism, incentive theory involves positive reinforcement: the reinforcing stimulus has been conditioned to make the person happier. As opposed to in drive theory, which involves negative reinforcement: a stimulus has been associated with the removal of the punishment—the lack of homeostasis in the body. For example, a person has come to know that if they eat when hungry, it will eliminate that negative feeling of hunger, or if they drink when thirsty, it will eliminate that negative feeling of thirst.[]