1: Self-Control, Thrill Seeking, and Crime: Motivation Matters â€" Arizona State University

Increasing Student Motivation fills an important niche in professional educational literature and will prove to be an Motivation Is Inherent to Individuality.

This is an open-access article subject to an exclusive license agreement between the authors and the Frontiers Research Foundation, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original authors and source are credited. This article has been cited by other articles in PMC. Abstract Intrinsic motivation, centrally involved in spontaneous exploration and curiosity, is a crucial concept in developmental psychology. It has been argued to be a crucial mechanism for open-ended cognitive development in humans, and as such has gathered a growing interest from developmental roboticists in the recent years. The goal of this paper is threefold. First, it provides a synthesis of the different approaches of intrinsic motivation in psychology. Second, by interpreting these approaches in a computational reinforcement learning framework, we argue that they are not operational and even sometimes inconsistent. Third, we set the ground for a systematic operational study of intrinsic motivation by presenting a formal typology of possible computational approaches. This typology is partly based on existing computational models, but also presents new ways of conceptualizing intrinsic motivation. We argue that this kind of computational typology might be useful for opening new avenues for research both in psychology and developmental robotics. For example, there are systems that push the organism to maintain certain levels of chemical energy, involving the ingestion of food, or systems that push the organism to maintain its temperature or its physical integrity in a zone of viability. Inspired by these kinds of motivation and their understanding by neuro- ethologists, roboticists have built machines endowed with similar systems with the aim of providing them with autonomy and properties of life-like intelligence Arkin, For example sowbug-inspired robots Endo and Arkin, , praying mantis robots Arkin et al. Some animals, and this is most prominent in humans, also have more general motivations that push them to explore, manipulate or probe their environment, fostering curiosity and engagement in playful and new activities. This kind of motivation, which is called intrinsic motivation by psychologists Ryan and Deci, , is paramount for sensorimotor and cognitive development throughout lifespan. There is a vast literature in psychology that explains why it is essential for cognitive growth and organization, and investigates the actual potential cognitive processes underlying intrinsic motivation Berlyne, ; Csikszentmihalyi, ; Deci and Ryan, ; Ryan and Deci, ; White, This has gathered the interest of a growing number of researchers in developmental robotics in the recent years, and several computational models have been developed see Barto et al. However, the very concept of intrinsic motivation has never really been consistently and critically discussed from a computational point of view. It has been used intuitively by many authors without asking for what it really means. Thus, the first objective and contribution of this paper is to present an overview of this concept in psychology followed by a critical reinterpretation in computational terms. We show that the definitions provided in psychology are actually unsatisfying. As a consequence, we will set the ground for a systematic operational study of intrinsic motivation by presenting a typology of possible computational approaches, and discuss whether it is possible or useful to give a single general computational definition of intrinsic motivation. The typology that we will present is partly based on existing computational models, but also presents new ways of conceptualizing intrinsic motivation. We will try to focus on how these models relate to each other and propose a classification into broad but distinct categories. When intrinsically motivated, a person is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external products, pressures, or rewards. Intrinsic motivation is clearly visible in young infants, that consistently try to grasp, throw, bite, squash or shout at new objects they encounter. Even if less important as they grow, human adults are still often intrinsically motivated while they play crosswords, make paintings, do gardening or just read novels or watch movies. Yet, to get a clearer picture of intrinsic motivation, one needs to understand that it has been defined by contrast to extrinsic motivation: Extrinsic motivation is a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome. Extrinsic motivation thus contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, rather than its

instrumental value. Ryan and Deci, We see that a central feature that differentiates intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is instrumentalization. We also see that the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations form a different distinction than the one between internal and external motivations. Yet, it is in fact a confusion. Indeed, there are extrinsic motivations that can be internal and vice versa. In fact, there are different kinds of instrumentalizations that can be classified as more or less self-determined Ryan and Deci, Let us give examples to be more clear. For example, a child that does thoroughly his homework might be motivated by avoiding the sanctions of his parents if he would not do it. The cause for action is here clearly external, and the homework is not done for its own sake but for the separate outcome of not getting sanctions. Here the child is extrinsically and externally motivated. On the other hand, it is possible that a child could do thoroughly his homework because he is persuaded that it will help him get the job he dreams of, later when he will be an adult. In this case, the cause for action is internally generated, and the homework is again not achieved for its own sake but because the child thinks it will lead to the separate outcome of getting a good job. Finally, it is also possible that a child does thoroughly its homework for the fun of it, and because he experiences pleasure in the discovery of new knowledge or considers for example its math problem just as fun as playing a video game. In this case, its behavior is intrinsically and internally motivated. These different kinds of motivations can also sometimes be superposed or interleaved in the same global activity. For example, it is quite possible that a child doing his homework is partly extrinsically motivated by getting a high grade at the exam and partly intrinsically motivated by learning new interesting things. Also, for example, imagine a child that is intrinsically motivated by playing tennis but has to ride its bicycle to get to the tennis court and does not like particularly riding bicycles. In this case, the riding of the bicycle is an internal and extrinsically motivated behavior that spins out of the intrinsically motivated behavior of playing tennis. What makes an activity intrinsically motivating? Given this broad distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, psychologists have tried to build theories about which features of activities make them intrinsically motivating for some people and not all at some times the same activity might be intrinsically motivating for a person at a given time, but no more later on. They have studied how these motivations could be functionally implemented in an organism, humans in particular, and several theoretical directions have been presented. Drives to manipulate, drives to explore In the s, psychologists started by trying to give an account of intrinsic motivation and exploratory activities on the basis of the theory of drives Hull, , which are specific tissue deficits like hunger or pain that the organisms try to reduce. For example, Montgomery, proposed a drive for exploration and Harlow, a drive to manipulate. This drive naming approach had many short-comings which were criticized in detail by White Indeed, they are not homeostatic: Reduction of cognitive dissonance Some researchers then proposed another conceptualization. However, these theories were criticized on the basis that much human behavior is also intended to increase uncertainty, and not only to reduce it. Human seem to look for some forms of optimality between completely uncertain and completely certain situations. Optimal incongruity In , Hunt developed the idea that children and adult look for optimal incongruity Hunt, He regarded children as information-processing systems and stated that interesting stimuli were those where there was a discrepancy between the perceived and standard levels of the stimuli. Berlyne developed similar notions as he observed that the most rewarding situations were those with an intermediate level of novelty, between already familiar and completely new situations Berlyne, Motivation for effectance, personal causation, competence and self-determination Eventually, a last group of researchers preferred the concept of challenge to the notion of optimal incongruity. These researchers stated that what was driving human behavior was a motivation for effectance White, , personal causation De Charms, , competence and self-determination Deci and Ryan, Basically, these approaches argue that what motivates people is the degree of control they can have on other people, external objects and themselves, or in other words, the amount of effective interaction. Motivation in Computational Systems: Intrinsic and External vs. Internal After having made a broad review of intrinsic motivation in psychology, we will here start to take a computational viewpoint. To begin with, we will describe how motivations in general are conceived and used in computer and robotic architectures. We will then present a set of important distinctive dimensions, among which the intrinsic-extrinsic distinction, that are useful to organize the space of possible motivation systems. For example, one often encounters an energy

level variable, associated with a zone of comfort i. This homeostatic system can also be implemented as a Hullian drive Hull, ; Konidaris and Barto, , energy level being a variable ranging from 0 totally unsatisfied to 1 satiated , and constantly sending its value to the action selection system in order to maintain it as close to 1 as possible. Computational Reinforcement Learning and rewards It is often the case in robotic systems that the action strategy that allows to keep motivational variables as satiated as possible is neither fixed nor initially hand-coded, but rather should be learnt. Nevertheless, these two meanings overlap and this has produced a number of confusions in the literature. But, and this is how CRL is often used in the computational literature, this value could also be set directly by a human engineer or by an external program built by a human engineer. For example, a number of experiments in which engineers try to build robots that can walk forward have used CRL algorithms with a reward being a value coming from an external system e. But one has to keep in mind that in a robot using CRL, a reward can be completely internally defined and be analogous to the very release of a neurotransmitter. Indeed, in a typical organism, natural or artificial, different and possibly conflicting motives can try to push actions in certain directions: In order to arbitrate between the possibly conflicting actions entailed by all these motivations, one uses the possibility to numerically compare the expected rewards associated with each of them. Moreover, one often sees architectures in which a possibly adaptive numerical weight is associated to each of these rewards Konidaris and Barto, If the reward, i. This is the above mentioned example of the walking robot driven by a reward coming from a human or a system with a camera mounted on the ceiling. If the reward is computed and generated internally by the autonomous system, then it is called internal. This is the above mentioned example of the reward associated to the satiation of an energy maintenance drive. Yet, this difference can be sometimes subtle in the case of robots. Computers allow us to do manipulations that are impossible with humans. In practice, this will produce more or less the same behavior that with the walking detection system mounted on the ceiling, but technically we have here an internal reward which is nevertheless extrinsic as we will see.

2: What is Intrinsic Motivation? A Typology of Computational Approaches

iii Abstract The role inherent motivation plays in determining the leadership style preference of an individual was studied to identify a methodology to improve an.

Motivational salience Motivation as a desire to perform an action is usually defined as having two parts, directional such as directed towards a positive stimulus or away from a negative one, as well as the activated "seeking phase" and consummatory "liking phase". This type of motivation has neurobiological roots in the basal ganglia , and mesolimbic, dopaminergic pathways. Activated "seeking" behavior, such as locomotor activity, is influenced by dopaminergic drugs, and microdialysis experiments reveal that dopamine is released during the anticipation of a reward. Opioid injections in this area produce pleasure, however outside of these hedonic hotspots they create an increased desire. Dopamine is further implicated in motivation as administration of amphetamine increased the break point in a progressive ratio self-reinforcement schedule. That is, subjects were willing to go to greater lengths e. Each stage of the cycle is composed of many dimensions including attitudes, beliefs, intentions, effort, and withdrawal which can all affect the motivation that an individual experiences. Most psychological theories hold 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. These fundamental requirements include food, rest, shelter, and exercise. The next set of needs is social, which refers to the desire for acceptance, affiliation, reciprocal friendships and love. As such, the natural system of management assumes that close-knit work teams are productive. The second type of needs deals with reputation, status, recognition, and respect from colleagues. This differs from the rational system, which assumes that people prefer routine and security to creativity. Self-management through teamwork[edit] To successfully manage and motivate employees, the natural system posits that being part of a group is necessary. As a result, individual employees have lost their sense of stability and security, which can be provided by a membership in a group. However, if teams continuously change within jobs, then employees feel anxious, empty, and irrational and become harder to work with. Wage incentives[edit] Humans are motivated by additional factors besides wage incentives. For instance, the straight piecework system pays employees based on each unit of their output. Based on studies such as the Bank Wiring Observation Room, using a piece rate incentive system does not lead to higher production. However, recent research on satisficing for example has significantly undermined the idea of homo economicus or of perfect rationality in favour of a more bounded rationality. The field of behavioural economics is particularly concerned with the limits of rationality in economic agents. Flow psychology and Ikigai Intrinsic motivation has been studied since the early s. The phenomenon of intrinsic motivation was first acknowledged within experimental studies of animal behavior. In these studies, it was evident that the organisms would engage in playful and curiosity-driven behaviors in the absence of reward. Intrinsic motivation is a natural motivational tendency and is a critical element in cognitive, social, and physical development. The employee has the intrinsic motivation to gain more knowledge. 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. Even traditional management information systems e. Not only can intrinsic motivation be used in a personal setting, but it can also be implemented and utilized in a social environment. For example, Eli, a 4-year-old with autism, wants to achieve the goal of playing with a toy train [21]. 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, slightly more challenging goal that stands in the way of achieving his larger goal of playing with the train. Achieving these goals in attainable pieces is also known as the goal-setting theory. Intrinsic motivation can be long-lasting and self-sustaining. Efforts to build this kind of motivation are also typically efforts at promoting student learning. Such efforts often focus on the subject rather than rewards or punishments. Efforts at

fostering intrinsic motivation can be slow to affect behavior and can require special and lengthy preparation. Students are individuals, so a variety of approaches may be needed to motivate different students. Also, it helps if the instructor is interested in the subject. 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. Competition is an extrinsic motivator because it encourages the performer to win and to beat others, not simply to enjoy the intrinsic rewards of the activity. A cheering crowd and the desire to win a trophy are also extrinsic incentives. While intrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, extrinsic motivation, refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome. 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. 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. Flow in the context of motivation can be seen as an activity that is not too hard, frustrating or madding, or to easy boring and done too fast. If one has achieved perfect flow, then the activity has reached maximum potential. Positive psychology looks into what makes a person happy. Flow can be considered as achieving happiness or at the least positive feelings. A study that was published in the journal Emotion looked at flow experienced in college students playing Tetris. The students that they were being evaluated on looks then told to wait and play Tetris. There were three categories; Easy, normal, and hard. The students that played Tetris on normal level experienced flow and were less stressed about the evaluation. This can b seen as someone who likes to run for the sheer joy of running and not because they need to do it for exercise or because they want to brag about it. Peek flow can be different for each person. It could take and individual years to reach flow or only moments. If an individual becomes too good at an activity they can become board. If the challenge becomes too hard then the individual could become discouraged and want to quit. In the view of behaviorism, motivation is understood as a question about what factors cause, prevent, or withhold various behaviors, 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 behavior. Through the basic research of such scientists as Pavlov , Watson and Skinner , several basic mechanisms that govern behavior have been identified. The most important of these are classical conditioning and operant conditioning. Classical and operant conditioning[edit] Main article: Motivational salience In classical or respondent conditioning , behavior 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. In operant conditioning , the type and frequency of behavior is determined mainly by its consequences. If a certain behavior, in the presence of a certain stimulus, is followed by a desirable consequence a reinforcer , the emitted behavior will increase in frequency in the future, in the presence of the stimulus that preceded the behavior or a similar one. Conversely, if the behavior is followed by something undesirable a punisher , the behavior is less likely to occur in the presence of the stimulus. In a similar manner, removal of a stimulus directly following the behavior might either increase or decrease the frequency of that behavior in the future negative reinforcement or punishment. If a student starts to cause trouble in class gets punished with something he or she dislikes, such as detention positive punishment , that behavior 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 behavior most strongly if it occurs within seconds of the behavior. A behavior that is reinforced intermittently, at unpredictable intervals, will be more robust and persistent, compared to one that is reinforced every time the behavior is performed. In addition to these basic principles, environmental stimuli also affect behavior.

Behavior is punished or reinforced in the context of whatever stimuli were present just before the behavior was performed, which means that a particular behavior might not be affected in every environmental context, or situation, after it is punished or reinforced in one specific context. The various mechanisms of operant conditioning may be used to understand the motivation for various behaviors by examining what happens just after the behavior the consequence , in what context the behavior is performed or not performed the antecedent , and under what circumstances motivating operators. The most common incentive would be a compensation. Compensation can be tangible or intangible, It helps in motivating the employees in their corporate life, students in academics and inspire 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. From this perspective, the concept of distinguishing between intrinsic and extrinsic forces is irrelevant. Incentive theory in psychology treats motivation and behavior 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. 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: As opposed to in drive theory, which involves negative reinforcement: 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. In operant conditioning, the function of the reinforcer is to influence future behavior. The presence of a stimulus believed to function as a reinforcer does not according to this terminology explain the current behavior of an organism â€" only previous instances of reinforcement of that behavior in the same or similar situations do. Through the behavior-altering effect of MOs, it is possible to affect current behavior of an individual, giving another piece of the puzzle of motivation. Motivating operations are factors that affect learned behavior in a certain context. MOs have two effects: A common example of this would be food deprivation, which functions as an EO in relation to food: The worker would work hard to try to achieve the raise, and getting the raise would function as an especially strong reinforcer of work behavior. Conversely, a motivating operation that causes a decrease in the effectiveness of a reinforcer, or diminishes a learned behavior related to the reinforcer, functions as an abolishing operation, AO.

Self-determination theory (SDT) is a macro theory of human motivation and personality that concerns people's inherent growth tendencies and innate psychological needs. It is concerned with the motivation behind choices people make without external influence and interference.

Rochester Institute of Technology Motivation can be defined as the driving force behind all the actions of an individual. Motivation is based on your emotions and achievement-related goals. There are different forms of motivation including extrinsic, intrinsic, physiological, and achievement motivation. There are also more negative forms of motivation. Achievement motivation can be defined as the need for success or the attainment of excellence. Individuals will satisfy their needs through different means, and are driven to succeed for varying reasons both internal and external. Motivation is the basic drive for all of our actions. Motivation refers to the dynamics of our behavior, which involves our needs, desires, and ambitions in life. Achievement motivation is based on reaching success and achieving all of our aspirations in life. These basic physiological motivational drives affect our natural behavior in different environments. Most of our goals are incentive-based and can vary from basic hunger to the need for love and the establishment of mature sexual relationships. Our motives for achievement can range from biological needs to satisfying creative desires or realizing success in competitive ventures. Motivation is important because it affects our lives everyday. All of our behaviors, actions, thoughts, and beliefs are influenced by our inner drive to succeed. Two motives are directly involved in the prediction of behavior, implicit and explicit. Implicit motives are spontaneous impulses to act, also known as task performances, and are aroused through incentives inherent to the task. Explicit motives are expressed through deliberate choices and more often stimulated for extrinsic reasons. Also, individuals with strong implicit needs to achieve goals set higher internal standards, whereas others tend to adhere to the societal norms. Explicit and implicit motivations have a compelling impact on behavior. Task behaviors are accelerated in the face of a challenge through implicit motivation, making performing a task in the most effective manner the primary goal. A person with a strong implicit drive will feel pleasure from achieving a goal in the most efficient way. The increase in effort and overcoming the challenge by mastering the task satisfies the individual. The primary agent for this type of motivation is perception or perceived ability. Most research is still unable to determine whether these different types of motivation would result in different behaviors in the same environment. The Hierarchal Model of Achievement Motivation Achievement motivation has been conceptualized in many different ways. Our understanding of achievement-relevant effects, cognition, and behavior has improved. Despite being similar in nature, many achievement motivation approaches have been developed separately, suggesting that most achievement motivation theories are in concordance with one another instead of competing. Motivational researchers have sought to promote a hierarchal model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation by incorporating the two prominent theories: Achievement motives include the need for achievement and the fear of failure. These are the more predominant motives that direct our behavior toward positive and negative outcomes. Achievement goals are viewed as more solid cognitive representations pointing individuals toward a specific end. There are three types of these achievement goals: A performance-approach goal is focused on attaining competence relative to others, a performance-avoidance goal is focused on avoiding incompetence relative to others, and a mastery goal is focused on the development of competence itself and of task mastery. Achievement motives can be seen as direct predictors of achievement-relevant circumstances. These motives and goals are viewed as working together to regulate achievement behavior. The hierarchal model presents achievement goals as predictors for performance outcomes. The model is being further conceptualized to include more approaches to achievement motivation. One weakness of the model is that it does not provide an account of the processes responsible for the link between achievement goals and performance. Two different types of achievement-related attitudes include task-involvement and ego-involvement. One example of an activity where someone strives to attain mastery and demonstrate superior ability is schoolwork. Studies confirm that a task-involvement activity more often results in challenging attributions and increasing effort typically in

activities providing an opportunity to learn and develop competence than in an ego-involvement activity. Intrinsic motivation, which is defined as striving to engage in activity because of self-satisfaction, is more prevalent when a person is engaged in task-involved activities. When people are more ego-involved, they tend to take on a different conception of their ability, where differences in ability limit the effectiveness of effort. Ego-involved individuals are driven to succeed by outperforming others, and their feelings of success depend on maintaining self-worth and avoiding failure. On the other hand, task-involved individuals tend to adopt their conception of ability as learning through applied effort Butler, Therefore less able individuals will feel more successful as long as they can satisfy an effort to learn and improve. Ego-invoking conditions tend to produce less favorable responses to failure and difficulty. Competence moderated attitudes and behaviors are more prevalent in ego-involved activities than task-involved. Achievement does not moderate intrinsic motivation in task-involving conditions, in which people of all levels of ability could learn to improve. In ego-involving conditions, intrinsic motivation was higher among higher achievers who demonstrated superior ability than in low achievers who could not demonstrate such ability Butler, These different attitudes toward achievement can also be compared in information seeking. Task- and ego-involving settings bring about different goals, conceptions of ability, and responses to difficulty. They also promote different patterns of information seeking. People of all levels of ability will seek information relevant to attaining their goal of improving mastery in task-involving conditions. However they need to seek information regarding self-appraisal to gain a better understanding of their self-capacity Butler, On the other hand people in ego-involving settings are more interested in information about social comparisons, assessing their ability relative to others. Self-Worth Theory in Achievement Motivation Self-worth theory states that in certain situations students stand to gain by not trying and deliberately withholding effort. This most often occurs after an experience of failure. If the following performance turns out to be poor, then doubts concerning ability are confirmed. Self-worth theory states that one way to avoid threat to self-esteem is by withdrawing effort. A study was conducted on students involving unsolvable problems to test some assumptions of the self-worth theory regarding motivation and effort. The results showed that there was no evidence of reported reduction of effort despite poorer performance when the tasks were described as moderately difficult as compared with tasks much higher in difficulty. The possibility was raised that low effort may not be responsible for the poor performance of students in situations which create threats to self-esteem. Two suggestions were made, one being that students might unconsciously withdraw effort, and the other stating that students may reduce effort as a result of withdrawing commitment from the problem. Avoidance Achievement Motivation In everyday life, individuals strive to be competent in their activities. In the past decade, many theorists have utilized a social-cognitive achievement goal approach in accounting for individuals striving for competence. An achievement goal is commonly defined as the purpose for engaging in a task, and the specific type of goal taken on creates a framework for how individuals experience their achievement pursuits. Achievement goal theorists commonly identify two distinct ideas toward competence: Performance goals are hypothesized to produce vulnerability to certain response patterns in achievement settings such as preferences for easy tasks, withdrawal of effort in the face of failure, and decreased task enjoyment. Most achievement goal theorists conceptualize both performance and mastery goals as the "approach" forms of motivation. Existing classical achievement motivation theorists claimed that activities are emphasized and oriented toward attaining success or avoiding failure, while the achievement goal theorists focused on their approach aspect. More recently, an integrated achievement goal conceptualization was proposed that includes both modern performance and mastery theories with the standard approach and avoidance features. In this basis for motivation, the performance goal is separated into an independent approach component and avoidance component, and three achievement orientations are conceived: The mastery and performance-approach goals are characterized as self-regulating to promote potential positive outcomes and processes to absorb an individual in their task or to create excitement leading to a mastery pattern of achievement results. Performance-avoidance goals, however, are characterized as promoting negative circumstances. This avoidance orientation creates anxiety, task distraction, and a pattern of helpless achievement outcomes. Intrinsic motivation, which is the enjoyment of and interest in an activity for its own sake, plays a role in achievement outcomes as well. Most achievement

theorists and philosophers also identify task-specific competence expectancies as an important variable in achievement settings. Achievement goals are created in order to obtain competence and avoid failure. These goals are viewed as implicit non-conscious or self-attributed conscious and direct achievement behavior. Approach and Avoidance Goals Achievement motivation theorists focus their research attention on behaviors involving competence. Individuals aspire to attain competence or may strive to avoid incompetence, based on the earlier approach-avoidance research and theories. The desire for success and the desire to avoid failure were identified as critical determinants of aspiration and behavior by a theorist named Lewin. In his achievement motivation theory, McClelland proposed that there are two kinds of achievement motivation, one oriented around avoiding failure and the other around the more positive goal of attaining success. Theorists introduced an achievement goal approach to achievement motivation more recently. These theorists defined achievement goals as the reason for activities related to competence. Initially, these theorists followed in the footsteps of Lewin, McClelland, and Atkinson by including the distinction between approach and avoidance motivation into the structure of their assumptions. Three types of achievement goals were created, two of which being approach orientations and the third an avoidance type. One approach type was a task involvement goal focused on the development of competence and task mastery, and the other being a performance or ego involvement goal directed toward attaining favorable judgments of competence. The avoidance orientation involved an ego or performance goal aimed at avoiding unfavorable judgments of competence. These new theories received little attention at first and some theorists bypassed them with little regard. Presently, achievement goal theory is the predominant approach to the analysis of achievement motivation. First, most theorists institute primary orientations toward competence, by either differentiating between mastery and ability goals or contrasting task and ego involvement. A contention was raised toward the achievement goal frameworks on whether or not they are conceptually similar enough to justify a convergence of the mastery goal form learning, task involvement and mastery with the performance goal form ability and performance, ego involvement, competition. The type of orientation adopted at the outset of an activity creates a context for how individuals interpret, evaluate, and act on information and experiences in an achievement setting. Adoption of a mastery goal is hypothesized to produce a mastery motivational pattern characterized by a preference for moderately challenging tasks, persistence in the face of failure, a positive stance toward learning, and enhanced task enjoyment. A helpless motivational response, however, is the result of the adoption of a performance goal orientation. This includes a preference for easy or difficult tasks, effort withdrawal in the face of failure, shifting the blame of failure to lack of ability, and decreased enjoyment of tasks. Some theorists include the concept of perceived competence as an important agent in their assumptions.

4: Motivation - Wikipedia

Intrinsic motivation refers to behavior that is driven by internal rewards. In other words, the motivation to engage in a behavior arises from within the individual because it is naturally satisfying to you.

These needs are seen as universal necessities that are innate, not learned instinctive , and seen in humanity across time, gender and culture. If this happens there are positive consequences e. Needs[edit] SDT supports three basic psychological needs that must be satisfied to foster well-being and health. These needs can be universally applied. However, some may be more salient than others at certain times and are expressed differently based on time, culture, or experience. SDT makes distinctions between different types of motivation and the consequences of them. Intrinsic motivation[edit] Intrinsic motivation is the natural, inherent drive to seek out challenges and new possibilities that SDT associates with cognitive and social development. Cognitive evaluation theory CET [17] is a sub-theory of SDT that specifies factors explaining intrinsic motivation and variability with it and looks at how social and environmental factors help or hinder intrinsic motivations. CET focuses on the needs of competence and autonomy. Claiming social context events like feedback on work or rewards lead to feelings of competence and so enhance intrinsic motivations. Deci [13] found positive feedback enhanced intrinsic motivations and negative feedback diminished it. Vallerand and Reid [18] went further and found that these effects were being mediated by perceived control. Autonomy, however, must accompany competence for people to see their behaviours as self determined by intrinsic motivation. For this to happen there must be immediate contextual support for both needs or inner resources based on prior development support for both needs. Grolnick and Ryan [20] found lower intrinsic motivation in children who believed their teachers to be uncaring or cold and so not fulfilling their relatedness needs. Extrinsic motivation[edit] Extrinsic motivation comes from external sources. Deci and Ryan [17] developed organismic integration theory OIT , as a sub-theory of SDT, to explain the different ways extrinsically motivated behaviour is regulated. OIT details the different forms of extrinsic motivation and the contexts in which they come about. It is the context of such motivation that concerns the SDT theory as these contexts affect whether the motivations are internalised and so integrated into the sense of self. OIT describes four different types of extrinsic motivations that often vary in terms of their relative autonomy: Is the least autonomous, it is performed because of external demand or possible reward. Such actions can be seen to have an externally perceived locus of causality. Deci and Ryan [21] claim such behaviour normally represents regulation by contingent self-esteem, citing ego involvement as a classic form of introjections. Since the causality of the behavior is perceived as external, the behavior is considered non-self-determined. Is a more autonomously driven form of extrinsic motivation. It involves consciously valuing a goal or regulation so that said action is accepted as personally important. Is the most autonomous kind of extrinsic motivation. Because of this, integrated motivations share qualities with intrinsic motivation but are still classified as extrinsic because the goals that are trying to be achieved are for reasons extrinsic to the self, rather than the inherent enjoyment or interest in the task. Extrinsically motivated behaviours can be integrated into self. OIT proposes internalization is more likely to occur when there is a sense of relatedness. Internalisation of extrinsic motivation is also linked to competence. OIT suggests that feelings of competence in activities should facilitate internalisation of said actions. If an external context allows a person to integrate regulationâ€"they must feel competent, related and autonomous. They must also understand the regulation in terms of their other goals to facilitate a sense of autonomy. Basic needs and intrinsic motivation[edit] White [16] and deCharms [12] proposed that the need for competence and autonomy is the basis of intrinsic motivation and behaviour. Autonomy[edit] Deci [27] found that offering people extrinsic rewards for behaviour that is intrinsically motivated undermined the intrinsic motivation as they grow less interested in it. Initially intrinsically motivated behaviour becomes controlled by external rewards, which undermines their autonomy. Further research by Amabile, DeJong and Lepper [28] found other external factors like deadlines, which restrict and control, also decrease intrinsic motivation. Situations that give autonomy as opposed to taking it away also have a similar link to motivation. Vallerand and Reid [18] found negative feedback has the opposite effect i.

Obviously, replications of all the attachment-motivation relations are needed with different and larger samples. Some people develop stronger needs than others, creating individual differences. However, individual differences within the theory focus on concepts resulting from the degree to which needs have been satisfied or not satisfied. Causality orientations[edit] Causality orientations are motivational orientations that refer to either the way people orient to an environment and regulate their behaviour because of this or the extent to which they are self determined in general across many settings. SDT created three orientations: Result from satisfaction of competence and relatedness needs but not of autonomy and is linked to regulation through internal and external contingencies, which lead to rigid functioning and diminished well being. Results from failing to fulfill all three needs. This is also related to poor functioning and ill being. According to the theory people have some amount of each of the orientations, which can be used to make predictions on a persons psychological health and behavioural outcomes. Life goals[edit] Life goals are long-term goals people use to guide their activities, and they fall into two categories: Contain life goals like affiliation, generativity and personal development. Have life goals like wealth, fame and attractiveness. There have been several studies on this subject that chart intrinsic goals being associated with greater health, well being and performance. External rewards on intrinsic motivation[edit] Deci [27] investigated the effects of external rewards on intrinsic motivation in two laboratory and one field experiment. Based on the results from earlier animal and human studies regarding intrinsic motivation the author explored two possibilities. In the first two experiments he looked at the effect of extrinsic rewards in terms of a decrease in intrinsic motivation to perform a task. Earlier studies showed contradictory or inconclusive findings regarding decrease in performance on a task following an external reward. The third experiment was based on findings of developmental learning theorists and looked at whether a different type of reward enhances intrinsic motivation to participate in an activity. Experiment I[edit] This experiment tested the hypothesis that if an individual is intrinsically motivated to perform an activity, introduction of an extrinsic reward decreases the degree of intrinsic motivation to perform the task. Each group participated in three sessions conducted on three different days. During the sessions, participants were engaged in working on a Soma cube puzzleâ€"which the experimenters assumed was an activity college students would be intrinsically motivated to do. The puzzle could be put together to form numerous different configurations. In each session, the participants were shown four different configurations drawn on a piece of paper and were asked to use the puzzle to reproduce the configurations while they were being timed. The first and third session of the experimental condition were identical to control, but in the second session the participants in the experimental condition were given a dollar for completing each puzzle within time. During the middle of each session, the experimenter left the room for eight minutes and the participants were told that they were free to do whatever they wanted during that time, while the experimenter observed during that period. The amount of time spent working on the puzzle during the free choice period was used to measure motivation. As Deci expected, when external reward was introduced during session two, the participants spent more time working on the puzzles during the free choice period in comparison to session 1 and when the external reward was removed in the third session, the time spent working on the puzzle dropped lower than the first session. Experiment II[edit] The second experiment was a field experiment, similar to laboratory Experiment I, but was conducted in a natural setting. Eight student workers were observed at a college biweekly newspaper. Four of the students served as a control group and worked on Friday. The experimental group worked on Tuesdays. The control and experimental group students were not aware that they were being observed. The week observation was divided into three time periods. The task in this study required the students to write headlines for the newspaper. During "Time 2", the students in the experimental group were given 50 cents for each headline they wrote. At the end of Time 2, they were told that in the future the newspaper cannot pay them 50 cent for each headline anymore as the newspaper ran out of the money allocated for that and they were not paid for the headlines during Time 3. The speed of task completion headlines was used as a measure of motivation in this experiment. Absences were used as a measure of attitudes. To assess the stability of the observed effect, the experimenter observed the students again Time 4 for two weeks. There was a gap of five weeks between Time 3 and Time 4. Due to absences and change in assignment etc. Experiment III[edit] Experiment III was also conducted in the laboratory and was

identical to Experiment I in all respects except for the kind of external reward provided to the students in experimental condition during Session 2. In this experiment, verbal praise was used as an extrinsic reward. The experimenter hypothesized that a different type of rewardâ€"i. This provides evidence that verbal praise as external reward increases intrinsic motivation. The author explained differences between the two types of external rewards as having different effects on intrinsic motivation. When a person is intrinsically motivated to perform a task and money is introduced to work on the task, the individual cognitively re-evaluates the importance of the task and the intrinsic motivation to perform the task because the individual finds it interesting shifts to extrinsic motivation and the primary focus changes from enjoying the task to gaining financial reward. However, when verbal praise is provided in a similar situation increases intrinsic motivation as it is not evaluated to be controlled by external factors and the person sees the task as an enjoyable task that is performed autonomously. The increase in intrinsic motivation is explained by positive reinforcement and an increase in perceived locus of control to perform the task. Pritchard, Campbell and Campbell Participants were randomly assigned to two groups. A chess-problem task was used in this study. Data was collected in two sessions. Session I[edit] Participants were asked to complete a background questionnaire that included questions on the amount of time the participant played chess during the week, the number of years that the participant has been playing chess for, amount of enjoyment the participant gets from playing the game, etc. The participants in both groups were then told that the experimenter needed to enter the information in the computer and for the next 10 minutes the participant were free to do whatever they liked. The experimenter left the room for 10 minutes. The room had similar chess-problem tasks on the table, some magazines as well as coffee was made available for the participants if they chose to have it. The time spent on the chess-problem task was observed through a one way mirror by the experimenter during the 10 minutes break and was used as a measure of intrinsic motivation. After the experimenter returned, the experimental group was told that there was a monetary reward for the participant who could work on the most chess problems in the given time and that the reward is for this session only and would not be offered during the next session.

5: How Personality Type Influences Leadership Style

Intrinsic motivation is defined as the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable consequence. When intrinsically motivated, a person is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external products, pressures, or rewards.

After all, perfection likely does not exist, and therefore cannot be reached, meaning that efforts to do so are invariably frustrating and can come full circle to create an extreme lack of motivation i. Adler postulated that since we all have various issues and shortcomings as people, our personalities develop largely through the ways in which we do or do not compensate for or overcome these inherent challenges. Instead, he saw this phenomenon as a result of the fact that boys are encouraged to be assertive in life, and girls are discouraged from the very same thing. Nietzsche, of course, considered the will to power the basic motive of human life. Smuts posited that, in order to understand people, we have to take them as summations rather than as parts, as unified wholes existing within the context of their environments both physical and social. Here again Adler differed a great deal from Freud, who felt that the things that happened in the past e. Adler was essentially forward looking, seeing motivation as a matter of moving toward the future, rather than a product of our pasts driving us with only our limited awareness as to how and why. Both Vaihinger and Adler believed that people use these fictions actively in their daily lives, such as using the absolute belief in good and evil to guide social decisions, and believing that everything is as we see it. Inferiority Once Adler had fleshed out his theory on what motivates us as beings, there remained one question to be answered: If we are all being pulled toward perfection, fulfillment, and self-actualization, why does a sizeable portion of the population end up miserably unfulfilled and far from perfect, far from realizing their selves and ideals? Most children manage these inferiorities by dreaming of becoming adults the earliest form of striving for perfection , and by either mastering what they are bad at or compensating by becoming especially adept at something else, but for some children, the uphill climb toward developing self-esteem proves insurmountable. To envision how an inferiority complex can mount until it becomes overwhelming, imagine the way many children flounder when it comes to math: At first they fall slightly behind, and get discouraged. Usually, they struggle onward, muddling through high school with barely-passing grades until they get into calculus, whereupon the appearance of integrals and differential equations overwhelms them to the point they finally give up on math altogether. Unable to meet his or her needs through direct, empowering action not having the confidence to initiate such , the individual often grows up to be passive-aggressive and manipulative, relying unduly on the affirmation of others to carry them along. This, of course, only gives away more of their power, makes their self-esteem easier to cripple, and so on. Of course, not all children dealing with a strong sense of inferiority become shy and timid and self-effacing; some develop a superiority complex, in a dramatic act of overcompensation. These young people often become the classic image of the playground bully, chasing away their own sense of inferiority by making others feel smaller and weaker, but may also become greedy for attention, drawn to the thrill of criminal activity or drug use, or heavily biased in their views becoming bigoted towards others of a certain gender or race, for example. These people are characterized early on by a tendency to be generally aggressive and dominant over others, possessing an intense energy that overwhelms anything or anybody who gets in their way. These people are not always bullies or sadists, however; some turn the energy inward and harm themselves, such as is the case with alcoholics, drug addicts, and those who commit suicide. They lack energy, in essence, and depend on the energy of others. They are also prone to phobias, anxieties, obsessions and compulsions, general anxiety, dissociation, etc. People of this type have such low energy they recoil within themselves to conserve it, avoiding life as a whole, and other people in particular. Adler also believed in a fourth type: People of this type are basically healthy individuals, possessed of adequate, but not overbearing, social interest and energy. They are able to give to others effectively as they are not so consumed by a sense of inferiority that they cannot look properly outside of themselves.

6: Self-determination theory - Wikipedia

MOTIVATION IS INHERENT TO INDIVIDUALITY pdf

The greater the individual's expectancy for successfully completing the task, and the higher the value of the outcome associated with it, the higher the individual's motivation will be. In contrast, both impulsivity and a greater amount of time before a deadline tend to reduce motivation.

7: Effects of Achievement Motivation on Behavior

a persons inherent motivation to have a positive self concept (and to have others perceive him or her favorably), such as being competent, attractive, lucky, ethical, and important self-verification a persons inherent motivation to confirm and maintain his/her existing self concept.

8: Monday Motivation: Wake Up Your Purpose

motivation energizes and sustains activities through the spontaneous satisfactions inherent in effective volitional action. It is manifest in behaviors such as play, exploration, and challenge.

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