MOTIVATION AND HUMAN ACHIEVEMENT  
*MOTIVASI DAN PENCAPAIAN MANUSIA*

FEM 4101

FEM 4101 (UNIT 1 – UNIT 5)  
DISTANCE LEARNING PROGRAM  
*PROGRAM JARA getValue('k JAUH')* 

DR MOHD. IBRANI SHahrimin Adam Assim 
Department of Human Development and Family Studies  
Faculty of Human Ecology  
Universiti Putra Malaysia  
43400 UPM Serdang  
Selangor Darul Ehsan
Hak Cipta Terpelihara. Tidak dibenarkan mengeluarkan ulang mana-mana bahagian artikel ilustrasi dan isi kandungan buku ini dalam apa jua bentuk sama ada secara elektronik, fotokopi, mekanik, rakaman atau cara lain sebelum mendapat izin bertulis daripada Penerbit, Pusat Pendidikan Luar (PPL), Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor Darul Ehsan. Permudahannya tertutup kepada perkaraan royalti atau honorarium.

MODUL PEMBELAJARAN : FEM 4101 MOTIVATION AND HUMAN ACHIEVEMENT disediakan dalam bentuk bahan pengajaran dan pembelajaran kendiri di bawah program Pendidikan Jarak Jauh, Universiti Putra Malaysia. Sebarang pertanyaan dan cadangan untuk memperbaiki gaya penyampaian dan isi kandungan modul ini bolehlah dikemukakan kepada penerbit dengan menggunakan alamat Pusat Pendidikan Luar.

Penulis : MOHD. IBRAHIM SHAHRIMIN ADAM ASSIM
Fakulti Ekologi Manusia
Universiti Putra Malaysia
43400 UPM, Serdang
Selangor Darul Ehsan

Alamat : Unit Modul dan Bahan Kendiri
Pusat Pendidikan Luar
Universiti Putra Malaysia
43400 UPM, Serdang
Selangor Darul Ehsan
Tel:03-89468830/03-89458904

Reka Bentuk Kulit dan Cetakan oleh : PENERBIT
Universiti Putra Malaysia
43400 UPM, Serdang
Selangor Darul Ehsan
Tel : 03-89468851/8854
Faks : 03-89416172
Emel : penerbit@putra.upm.edu.my
A. COURSES INFORMATION

DEPARTMENT : HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AND FAMILY STUDIES

COURSES : MOTIVASI DAN PENCAPAIAN MANUSIA
(MOTIVATION AND HUMAN ACHIEVEMENT)

COURSES CODE : FEM 4101

CREDIT HOUR : 3 (3+0)

THIS COURSE WILL BE TAUGHT FOR 3 CONTACT HOURS
PER WEEK.

B. AUTHOR’S INFORMATION

NAME : DR. MOHD IBRANI SHAHRIMIN ADAM ASSIM

ADDRESS : DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AND FAMILY STUDIES

TELEPHONE NO : +603-89467086

FAX NO : +603-89467093

EMAIL : ibrani@putra.upm.edu.my
C. OBJECTIVE

- Course objective 1
  - To describe the basic concepts of motivation and human achievement

- Course objective 2
  - To discuss on various motivation theories and its roles in human achievement

- Course objective 3
  - To explain the relationships between emotion, motivation, behavior and human achievement

- Course objective 4
  - To apply motivation theories in discussing human achievement

D. SYNOPSIS

This course describes the basic concepts of motivation and human achievement. Various theories on motivation and its roles in human achievement are discussed. Relationships between emotion, motivation, behaviour and human achievement are also explained. Contemporary issues on application of motivation theories on human achievement are discussed.
E. COURSE CONTENT

- Introduction
  - Motivation and Human Achievement
  - Definitions, components and measurement elements
- Types of motivation
  - Differences, basic principles and optimal challenges
- Theories on learning, motivation and human achievement
  - Important elements
- Psychological theories, motivation and human achievement
  - Characteristics, traits and elements
- Cognitive theories, motivation and human achievement
  - Characteristics and elements
- Theories on life-goal, motivation and human achievement
  - Essential components
- Constructive environment and human achievement
  - Increasing factors
- Contemporary issues on human achievement
<table>
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<th>UNIT</th>
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| 1    | Introduction  
Guide on how to use the modules  
Guide on collaborative learning  
   General guidelines  
   Roles for collaborative learning  
Motivation and Human Achievement  
   Definitions, components and measurement elements | 6 (2 WEEKS) |
| 2    | Types of motivation  
   Differences, basic principles and optimal challenges  
Theories on learning, motivation and human achievement  
   Important elements  
Psychological theories, motivation and human achievement  
   Characteristics and elements | 12 (4 WEEKS) |
| 3    | Cognitive theory, motivation and human achievement  
   Characteristics and elements  
Theories on life-goal, motivation and human achievement  
   Essential components | 6 (2 WEEKS) |
|   | Constructive environment and human achievement  
|   | Increasing factors  
|   | Contemporary issues on motivation and human achievement  
|   | Atkinson’s expectation-value theory  
|   | Value effect  
|   | Source of value achievement  
|   | Change according to age  
|   | Weiner attribution theory of achievement  
|   | Source of attribution  
|   | Attribution disposition  
|   | Measurement of attribution  
|   | Expectation  
|   | Underachievement  
|   | Covington’s theory of self-value/worth  
|   | Overcoming the negative implication of failure  
|   | Success without learning/education  
|   | Summary  
|   | Conclusion  
|   | Assignment  
|   | Self-study questions |  
|   | 6 (2 WEEKS)  
|   | 12 (4 WEEKS) |
F. LABORATORY

NO LABORATORY REQUIREMENT

G. PENILAIAN KURSUS

i. Assessment

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H. TEST

One test will be conducted during the 14 weeks of study. Test 1 and one assignment must be completed. Test 1 will be examined based on objective structure and the assignment is for individual assessment. Assignment and test consist 60% of total marks.
I. **FINAL EXAM**

All topics will be assessed in the final exam using both the Multiple Choice Questions and Short Answer Questions.

Example question:

1. According to McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1953), the driving force to do well relative to a standard of excellence is referred to as

   A. cognitive component  
   B. achievement motivation  
   C. physiological/biological component  
   D. extrinsic component  
   E. intrinsic component

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J. **MAIN REFERENCES**


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K. **ADDITIONAL REFERENCES**

I. **Icon and Instructions**

To help the students understand about the modules more easily, we provide a icon and their instructions as below.
UNIT 1
INTRODUCTION TO MOTIVATION
AND HUMAN ACHIEVEMENT

Introduction

To utilize this module effectively, it is imperative for ALL to acknowledge the basic principles that underpin Student Centered Learning as a philosophy of learning, which emphasize that:

a. the focus of learning activity should be the learner and not the teacher/lecturer;
b. recognition that teaching in the traditional sense is just one tool that can be used to help students learn;
c. the role of teacher/lecturer is to manage the learning of the students in their care;
d. recognition that the majority of learning does not occur in the classroom/lecture hall or at times when the teacher/lecturer is present;
e. understanding of the learning process should not just reside with the teacher/lecturer but be shared with students, and
f. teachers/lecturers should encourage and facilitate students to be actively involved in the planning and management of their own learning through the structured design of learning opportunities both within and outside the classroom.

Guide on how to use the modules (optional)

a. The set of learning modules were prepared to facilitate the students in acquiring relevant materials on motivation and human achievement as required by the syllabus in the most efficient manner, via student centered learning;
b. Students should have the whole set of the modules before the start of the lectures;
c. Students should study the modules and try to have a rough idea of the content before each class. Pre-class discussions among group members are encouraged;

d. Students should bring the lecture modules and relevant reference materials to each class where discussions in small groups will be held, facilitated by the lecturers. The discussions should be focused around the activities prepared for each subtopic;

e. Towards the end of each class, each group will present the answers to the activities as directed by the lecturers;

f. Each group will hand in the report of the activities (soft and hard copy) in the next class. Continuous assessment marks may be given based on these reports (according to tutors/demonstrators discretion).

Guide on collaborative learning

It is the purpose of this section to introduce collaborative learning methods that can be practiced in the modules. Listed below are some important points in relation to collaborative learning and its methods:

a. Collaborative learning is a strategy for improving students’ efficiency and success on learning tasks that can be done in groups;

b. Cooperative and small group learning increases students’ learning and achievements through active participation;

c. Collaborative learning also develops higher-level intellectual reasoning and problem-solving skills;

d. Research has shown that collaborative learning promotes positive attitudes towards others and the subject area;

e. These learning method may also reduces students’ isolation through teamwork;

f. Collaborative learning includes a division of labor on the task and specific roles for each student. It is designed to carry out tasks in which students are active learners (learning by doing, rather than by listening passively);
g. Collaborative learning encourages sharing and mutual help, rather than competition. Students must initially learn how to set up a group that works well, and how to organized a task most effectively by the group;

1. GENERAL GUIDELINES
   a. The work for each task is divided up among the members, and each person has a role to play that is important for the success of the group's work;
   b. All members must participate and contribute, but no one may dominate or take over the work. Each member's input should be respected;
   c. If one member has a task that is long, difficult or troublesome, other members should help out;
   d. All information gathered by the group is shared among the members. It is expected that all members will understand what has been done and studied;
   e. Roles initially are assigned by metric numbers. The person with highest sum of added metric number digits (i.e. add all the digits on the metric numbers) becomes the principal investigator (PI) and so on;
   f. When the group does a new task, the roles are rotated.

2. ROLES FOR COLLABORATIVE LEARNING
   a. Principal Investigator (PI) or Team Leader (TL):
      i. Makes sure each step of the task is completed in sequence'
      ii. Keeps the group on task, and within the time budget;
      iii. Communicates with the instructor about questions or problems the group has;
      iv. Leads the discussion in planning the task and in wrapping up the work;
      v. Checks that everyone understands what was done or studied;
b. Materials Manager (MM):
   i. Gathers all learning materials for the group;
   ii. Sets up all the learning materials or directs the setup;
   iii. Operates any learning materials (if applicable) and with
        the help of others (if needed);
   iv. Organizes the clean up (if applicable);

c. Tracker-Researcher (TR):
   i. Locates the directions for the task;
   ii. Reads directions aloud to the group as the work
       proceeds;
   iii. Looks up additional information, learning materials,
        journal articles, newspaper/magazine clippings, or other
        readings to help the group;

d. Recorder-Reporter (RR):
   i. Records data, answers to questions, etc. as the task
      proceeds;
   ii. Makes sure each group member gets the information that
       is collected;
   iii. Reports to the class when groups share their results.
Motivation and Human Achievement

Psychologists define motivation as an internal process that activates, guides, and maintains behavior over time. Motivation can vary in both intensity and direction. The intensity and direction of motivations are often difficult to separate. The intensity of a motivation to engage in one activity might depend in large part on the intensity and direction of motivations to engage in alternative activities. Moreover, most motivation theorists assume that motivation is involved in the performance of all learned responses; that is, a learned behavior will not occur unless it is energized. The major question among psychologists, in general, is whether motivation is a primary or secondary influence on behavior. That is, are changes in behavior better explained by principles of environmental/ecological influences, perception, memory, cognitive development, emotion, explanatory style, or personality or are concepts unique to motivation more pertinent.

Research had shown that people respond to increasingly complex or novel events (or stimuli) in the environment up to a point and then responses decrease. This inverted-U-shaped curve of behavior is well-known and widely acknowledged (e.g., Yerkes & Dodson, 1908). However, the major issue is one of explaining this phenomenon. Is this a conditioning (is the individual behaving because of past classical or operant conditioning), a motivational process (from an internal state of arousal), or is there some better explanation?
This unit explains the phenomena of motivation and human achievement, and defines relevant terms and essential components of motivation theories. Measurement elements will also be discussed.

**Unit Objectives**

Upon successful completion of this subject, students should have knowledge and understanding of:

1. The definitions of motivation and human achievement;
2. The major components of psychological domains of motivation and human achievement;
3. The differences and normal variation in measuring elements of motivation and human achievement.

**Readings: Chapter 1. Main references.**

**Contents**

1.1 Definitions of Motivation
1.2 Human Achievement and Standards of Excellence
1.3 Measurement of Human Achievement
1.4 Summary

**1.1 Definitions of Motivation**

**What is motivation?**

Most psychologists would define motivation as the psychological feature that arouses an organism to action toward a desired goal, or the reason for the action, that which gives purpose and direction to behavior; e.g. "we did not understand his motivation"; "he acted with the best of motives"
Some also would refer motivation to the condition of being motivated; "his motivation was at a high level", the act of motivating, or providing incentive

Motivation may be defined as the study of the internal processes that give behavior its energy and direction, where studies had shown that motivation originates from a variety of sources (needs, cognition, and emotions), and these internal processes energize and direct behavior in multiple ways (starting, sustaining, intensifying, focusing, and stopping the particular behavior).

Motivation can be defined as the driving force behind all the actions of an individual. The influence of an individual's needs and desires both have a strong impact on the direction of their behavior. Motivation is based on 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.

1.2 Human Achievement and Standards of Excellence

What is achievement?

According to Murray’s list of basic human needs "achievement is described as to overcome obstacles, and attain a high standard or to rival and surpass others or to strive and to master". Achievement is also defined as the driving force to do well relative to a standard of excellence (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1953)

Significant characteristics and processes of human achievement examines and distinguish achievements from failure, and how do we define achievement, or failure. Based on the achievement motivation perspectives, David McClelland & John Atkinson’s study on "nature of
achievement motivation illustrates certain behavior activated by the achievement motive.

There are various levels of achievement and achievement behavior. Discussions on standards of excellence, commonly refers to task-related, self-related, and other-related standards of excellence.

Examples of self-related standard of excellence:
- Performing better than done previously, as in exceeding last semester's GPA
- Improving one's ability to attend class "on time"

Examples of other-related standard of excellence
- Performing better than another person or a group of others, as in making higher grades than your other coursemates/roommate/housemates

However, note that "standards of excellence are double-edged swords", where there is the tendency to approach a standard of excellence or to overcome the tendency to avoid it, for example by anticipating anxiety, fear, defensiveness may lead to avoid or withdraw from standards of excellence, or by anticipating pride and gratification may lead to approach standards of excellence.

The concept of motivation is closely tied to the principle that behaviors that have been reinforced in the past are more likely to be repeated than are behaviors that have not been reinforced or that have been punished. Thus, examine these questions:

Why do some students persist in the face of failure while others give up? Why do some students work to please the teacher, others to make good grades, and still others out of interest in the material they are learning? Why do some students achieve far more than would be predicted on the basis of their ability and some achieve far less?
1.3 Measurement of Human Achievement

There are two distinct approaches to the study of motivation. One approach is a product of academic, experimental procedures, while the second is an outgrowth of clinical, non-experimental methods. Each of the approaches has unique advantages and disadvantages. But all investigators in this field are guided by a single basic question, namely, *Why do organisms think and behave as they do?*

To answer the question of why people behave as they do, psychologists studying motivation from a clinical orientation assert or presume that there are one or more basic principles of behavior, such as "people strive to fulfill their potential" or "people strive to satisfy their aggressive and sexual urges." Then a broad range of clinical, historical, anecdotal, literary, and experimental evidence is marshaled to support this contention. In contrast to the experimental approach, there is little attempt to develop a formal or mathematical model. But there is an endeavor to encompass a wide breadth of phenomena.

Quantitative and qualitative measurement of human achievement, for eg.
- Hermans (1970) Prestatic Motivation Test (PMT)
- Jackson (1974) Personal Research Form (PRF)
and some other major self-report measures of human achievement.
1.4 SUMMARY

Motivation is an important factor in everyday life. Human's basic behaviors and feelings are affected by their inner drive to succeed over life's challenges while setting goals for themselves. Motivation also promotes feelings of competence and self-worth as human achieve their goals. It provides human being with means to compete with others in order to better themselves and to seek out new information to learn and absorb. Individuals experience motivation in different ways, whether it is task- or ego-based in nature. Some people strive to achieve their goals for personal satisfaction and self-improvement while others compete with their surroundings in achievement settings to simply be classified as the best. Motivation and the resulting behavior are both affected by the many different models of motivation and human achievement. These models, although separate, are very similar in nature and theory. The mastery and performance achievement settings each have a considerable effect on how an individual is motivated. Motivation theorists has made a contribution to the existing theories in today's human achievement studies. More often than not, theorists build off of each other's work to expand old ideas and create new ones.
Types and Major Theories of Motivation

There are two basic approaches to the study of motivation: experimental and clinical. The former attempts to develop mathematical models that account for limited aspects of behavior, while the latter posits psychological axioms that are pertinent to a diverse range of action. But even within these approaches, the theories that have been developed differ in the phenomena that they examine. Thus, conceptions of motivation typically are not commensurate and one cannot be judged as "better" than the others. Nevertheless, all the theories are guided by the same underlying question, namely, Why do humans or any forms of organism behave as they do?

The theories presented in this unit were, for the most part, formulated by clinical psychologists and psychiatrists. Individuals such as Freud, Rotter, Maslow, Rogers, Allport, and G. Kelly form the heart of many developmental psychology courses in the field of personality. These theories, in varying degrees, focus upon the person and intra-psychic influences on action. This does not imply that the environment or the social context of behavior is neglected, for such a neglect would make predictions of human action impossible. Rather, situational and social factors are recognized, but they frequently are not the center of attention.
This unit explains the types and some major theories of motivation and human achievement, and defines essential psychological components of motivation theories. Other developmental psychology elements will also be discussed.

Unit Objectives

Upon successful completion of this subject, students should have knowledge and understanding of:

1. types of motivation, differences, basic principles and their optimal challenges;

2. theories on learning, motivation and human achievement, and their important elements.

Readings: Chapters 2 - 4. Main references.

Contents

2.1 Types of motivation
2.2 Major theories of motivation and human achievement
2.3 Psychological theories of motivation
2.4 Summary

2.1 Types of Motivation

Types of motivation

The following definitions of motivation were gleaned from a variety of psychology literature and reflect the general consensus that motivation is an internal state or condition (sometimes described as a need, desire, or want) that serves to activate or energize behavior and give it direction (see Kleinginna and Kleinginna, 1981a).

- internal state or condition that activates behavior and gives it direction;
- desire or want that energizes and directs goal-oriented behavior;
• influence of needs and desires on the intensity and direction of behavior.

Franken (1994) provides an additional component in his definition:
• the arousal, direction, and persistence of behavior.

While still not widespread in terms of introductory developmental psychology, many researchers are now beginning to acknowledge that the factors that energize behavior are likely different from the factors that provide for its persistence.

**Importance of motivation**

Most motivation theorists assume that motivation is involved in the performance of all learned responses; that is, a learned behavior will not occur unless it is energized. The major question among psychologists, in general, is whether motivation is a primary or secondary influence on behavior. That is, are changes in behavior better explained by principles of environmental/ecological influences, perception, memory, cognitive development, emotion, explanatory style, or personality or are concepts unique to motivation more pertinent.

For example, we know that people respond to increasingly complex or novel events (or stimuli) in the environment up to a point and then responses decrease. This inverted-U-shaped curve of behavior is well-known and widely acknowledged (e.g., Yerkes & Dodson, 1908). However, the major issue is one of explaining this phenomenon. Is this a conditioning (is the individual behaving because of past classical or operant conditioning), a motivational process (from an internal state of arousal), or is there some better explanation?

**The relationship of motivation and emotion**

Emotion (an indefinite subjective sensation experienced as a state of arousal) is different from motivation in that there is not necessarily a goal orientation affiliated with it. Emotions occur as a result of an interaction between
perception of environmental stimuli, neural/hormonal responses to these perceptions (often labeled feelings), and subjective cognitive labeling of these feelings (Kleinginna and Kleinginna, 1981b). Evidence suggests there is a small core of core emotions (perhaps 6 or 8) that are uniquely associated with a specific facial expression (Izard, 1990). This implies that there are a small number of unique biological responses that are genetically hard-wired to specific facial expressions. A further implication is that the process works in reverse: if you want to change your feelings (i.e., your physiological functioning), you can do so by changing your facial expression. That is, if you are motivated to change how you feel and your feeling is associated with a specific facial expression, you can change that feeling by purposively changing your facial expression. Since most of us would rather feel happy than otherwise, the most appropriate facial expression would be a smile.

Explanations of influences/causes of arousal and direction may be different from explanations of persistence
In general, explanations regarding the source(s) of motivation can be categorized as either extrinsic (outside the person) or intrinsic (internal to the person). Intrinsic sources and corresponding theories can be further subcategorized as either body/physical, mind/mental (i.e., cognitive, affective, conative) or transpersonal/spiritual.

2.2 Major Theories of Motivation and Human Achievement

What are some theories of motivation?
Motivation and behavioral learning theory
The concept of motivation is closely tied to the principle that behaviors that have been reinforced in the past are more likely to be repeated than are behaviors that have not been reinforced or that have been punished. In fact,
rather than using the concept of motivation, a behavioral theorist might focus on the degree to which students learn to do schoolwork to obtain desired outcomes.

Why do some students persist in the face of failure while others give up? Why do some students work to please the teacher, others to make good grades, and still others out of interest in the material they are learning? Why do some students achieve far more than would be predicted on the basis of their ability and some achieve far less?

REWARDS AND REINFORCEMENT One reason that reinforcement history is an inadequate explanation for motivation is that human motivation is highly complex and context-bound. With very hungry animals we can predict that food will be an effective reinforcer. With humans, even hungry ones, we can't be sure what will be a reinforcer and what will not, because the reinforcing value of most potential reinforcers is largely determined by personal or situational factors.

DETERMINING THE VALUE OF AN INCENTIVE These situations illustrate an important point: The motivational value of an incentive cannot be assumed, because it might depend on many factors. When teachers say, "I want you all to be sure to hand in your book reports on time, because they will count toward your grade," the teachers might be assuming that grades are effective incentives for most students. However, some students might not care about grades, perhaps because their parents don't or because they have a history of failure in school and have decided that grades are unimportant. If a teacher says to a student, "Good work! I knew you could do it if you tried!" this might be motivating to a student who had just completed a task he thought was difficult, but punishing to one who thought the task was easy (because the teacher's praise implies that he had to work especially hard to complete the task).
Motivation and human needs
Whereas behavioral learning theorists (e.g., Bandura, 1986; Skinner, 1953) speak in terms of motivation to obtain reinforcers and avoid punishers, other theorists (e.g., Maslow, 1954) prefer the concept of motivation to satisfy needs. Some basic needs that we all must satisfy are those for food, shelter, love, and maintenance of positive self-esteem. People differ in the degree of importance they attach to each of these needs. Some need constant reaffirmation that they are loved or appreciated; others have a greater need for physical comfort and security.

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS
Given that people have many needs, which will they try to satisfy at any given moment? To predict this, Maslow (1954) proposed a hierarchy of need. In Maslow's theory, needs that are lower in this hierarchy must be at least partially satisfied before a person will try to satisfy higher-level needs. For example, a hungry person or someone who is in physical danger will be less concerned about maintaining a positive self-image than about obtaining food or safety; but once that person is no longer hungry or afraid, self-esteem needs might become paramount. One critical concept that Maslow introduced is the distinction between deficiency needs and growth needs. Deficiency needs (physiological, safety, love, and esteem) are those that are critical to physical and psychological well-being; these needs must be satisfied, but once they are, a person's motivation to satisfy them diminishes. In contrast, growth needs, such as the need to know and understand things, to appreciate beauty, or to grow and develop in appreciation of others, can never be satisfied completely. In fact, the more people are able to meet their need to know and understand the world around them, the greater their motivation might become to learn still more.

SELF-ACTUALIZATION Maslow's theory includes the concept of desire for self-actualization which he defines as "the desire to become everything that one is capable of becoming" (Maslow, 1954, P. 92). Self-actualization is characterized by acceptance of self and others, spontaneity, openness, relatively deep but democratic relationships with others, creativity, humor, and
independence-in essence, psychological health. Maslow places striving for self-actualization at the top of his hierarchy of needs, implying that achievement of this most important need depends on the satisfaction of all other needs.

### 2.3 Psychological Theories of Motivation

Motivational researchers share the view that achievement behavior is an interaction between situational variables and the individual subject's motivation to achieve. 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. These two motives often work together to determine the behavior of the individual in direction and passion (Brunstein & Maier, 2005).

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. However, the explicit motives are built around a person's self-image. This type of motivation shapes a person's behavior based on their own self-view and can influence their choices and responses from outside cues. The primary agent for this type of motivation is perception or perceived ability. Many theorists still cannot agree whether achievement is based on mastering one's skills or striving to promote
a better self-image (Brunstein & Maier, 2005). Most research is still unable to determine whether these different types of motivation would result in different behaviors in the same environment.

Seven theories of human motivation exist within the psychological study of motivation: psychoanalytic, drive, field, achievement, social learning, attributional, and humanistic. These conceptual frameworks were created to account for quite disparate phenomena. The theories rarely are commensurate; they cannot be easily compared with regard to one or more phenomena so that we can judge one as "better" or "worse" than the others in its ability to predict or explain these phenomena. There are, of course, some exceptions to this statement and instances in which comparisons are possible. For example, attribution theory and social learning theory offer contrasting explanations of expectancy shifts: Attributionists relate expectancy change to causal stability, whereas social learning theorists relate expectancy shifts to causal locus. Similarly, attribution theory and achievement theory offer contrasting explanations of intermediate difficulty choice: Attributionists relate choice to information gain, while achievement theorists specify that the choice of intermediate tasks maximizes resultant pleasure. In another example of theoretical comparison, psychoanalytic and social learning theories anticipate different consequences arising from viewing an aggressive behavior: Psychoanalytic theorists might expect decreases in subsequent aggression (catharsis); social learning theorists would predict increases in displayed aggression (modeling). But these comparisons, are relatively rare given the array of phenomena that the conceptual frameworks attempt to explain.
Greissman (1987) interviewed over 60 highly successful people and found they had several things in common. They (a) love their work, (b) become highly competent in a specialty, (c) commit themselves to their work, giving it their time—their life, (d) meet most of their needs through their work, (e) long for recognition and self-fulfillment, (f) focus on and "flow" with their work—loosening themselves in it, and (g) quickly see and use new ideas and opportunities at work. They pay a price for success, such as few friends, little partying, little travel, and even isolation from their family, but they have few regrets. Talent matters, but devotion determines the winner most of the time. No one can tell you exactly how to become so devoted...or even if it is a good idea.
2.4 SUMMARY

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. Achievement goals can affect the way a person performs a task and represent a desire to show competence (Harackiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lehto, & Elliot, 1997). 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.

Motivation is an important factor in everyday life. Our basic behaviors and feelings are affected by our inner drive to succeed over life's challenges while we set goals for ourselves. Our motivation also promotes our feelings of competence and self-worth as we achieve our goals. It provides us with means to compete with others in order to better ourselves and to seek out new information to learn and absorb. Individuals experience motivation in different ways, whether it is task- or ego-based in nature. Some people strive to achieve their goals for personal satisfaction and self-improvement while others compete with their surroundings in achievement settings to simply be classified as the best. Motivation and the resulting behavior are both affected by the many different models of achievement motivation.
UNIT 3
COGNITIVE THEORY AND
THEORIES OF LIFE-GOALS

Unit 3:

Cognitive Theories of Motivation

Based on scientific principles, cognitive approaches to motivation psychology are fairly recent. However, theorists were able to show that certain behaviors are indeed explainable and predictable in terms of the principles of learning-explain their own behavior. Cognitive theories also distinguish between extrinsic motivation, performing an activity to obtain an external reward or avoid punishment and intrinsic motivation, performing an activity for its own. Albert Bandura's (1977,1986,1989) social learning theory claim that human are cognitive beings whose active processing of information from the environment play a major role in learning and human development.

Example: A teenager will learn the latest dress styles, dances, and Lingo by watching and listening to another teenagers.

![Diagram]

Pay attention the model (input sensory in brain)
Store this information in memory (process cognitive)
Show the behavior

Figure 1: Process cognitive
Mechanisms of cognitive development
It is not yet clear in what ways children's cognition comes to develop from immature cognitive processes to more mature one.

Answers to questions of the 'mechanisms', of the cognitive development are still very tentative indeed; all that is clear is that it must be 'mechanisms', plural (Sternberg 1984). Kail and Bisanz (1982) outline the general features which will characterize information-processing models of cognitive development as they emerge over the next few years.

Figure 2: Portions of the knowledge base concerning fruits. (A) The knowledge of a 5 year old, for whom peaches and apples are alike primarily because they are both round.
Figure 2: Portions of the knowledge base concerning fruits. (B) The knowledge of an 8 year old, for whom peaches and apples are similar primarily because they are both fruits.  
Source: From Kail and Bisanz (1982)

This unit explains the cognitive psychology approaches of motivation and human achievement, and defines relevant terms and essential components of these theories. Other relevant theories will also be discussed.

Unit Objectives

Upon successful completion of this subject, students should have knowledge and understanding of:

1. cognitive theory and their essential characteristics and elements on motivation;

2. theories on life-goal and other essential theories of motivation

Readings: Chapters 5 - 7. Main references.
3.1 Cognitive and social learning theories of motivation

Social learning theories

Social learning theory suggests that modeling (imitating others) and vicarious learning (watching others have consequences applied to their behavior) are important motivators of behavior. The theories of motivation discussed thus far, particularly those evolving from the observation of human behavior, have stressed the importance of intrapersonal dynamics. Motivators labelled libido, drive, tension, or need activate the organism, with pleasure attained when the goal is reached. Goal attainment often involves the re-establishment of internal equilibrium. Furthermore, there are inhibitors to goal attainment, such as defense mechanisms, barriers in the environment, or fear of failing, that create conflict and frustration. The individual thus is portrayed as in a constant state of battle, attempting to attain happiness in the face of repeated, and often unattainable, internal commands and wishes. The conceptualizations of Freud and Lewin and, to a lesser extent, Hull and Atkinson often invoke concepts that are not clearly linked with manipulable or measurable observed events. In opposition to these conceptions, a school of psychology developed that stressed situational, rather than intrapersonal, determinants of behavior and relied upon carefully documented principles of learning to explain motivated behavior. This school is called "social learning theory" and encompasses psychologists with rather dissimilar concerns. Nonetheless, all the theorists assume that:

1. The most important determinants of behavior are learned.
2. Genetic and biological factors merely set limits on possible learning experiences.
3. Behavior is situational specific. That is, "people behave as they do in response to the demands and characteristics of the particular situation that they are in at the moment" (Liebert & Spiegler, 1974, p. 310). The essential influences on behavior reside in the external world.

4. A theory of motivation should use few constructs, make a minimum number of inferences, and be guided by experimental data.

Social learning theory is an outgrowth of the behaviorist position associated is proposed in which knowledge of the model's behavior is acquired. Finally, the observations may be accepted or rejected by the individual as a guide to later actions. What is acquired need not be manifested in action. Thus, social learning theorists distinguish between learning and performance, or knowing and doing. This distinction was articulated much earlier in the history of psychology by Edward Tolman. Tolman was responsible for the study of latent learning, which was discussed previously in Chapter Three. Animals in the latent learning studies apparently "knew" the correct path to the goal region, but only performed that action, or exhibited their knowledge, when food was placed at the goal. Thus, the learning was "latent" or hidden, ready to emerge given the appropriate environmental conditions.

The acquisition-performance distinction, as well as the influence of observational learning on behavior, is illustrated in an oft-cited investigation by Bandura (1965). In Bandura's study, children were first shown a five-minute film that depicted a number of aggressive responses to toys, including hitting a Bobo doll and throwing objects at it. There were three experimental conditions. In one condition a child model in the film was rewarded for this behavior by an adult. In a second condition the child in the movie was punished for the aggressive responses. And in a third experimental condition the film was shown without any final adult reinforcement.

After viewing a version of the film, the children were placed in an experimental room that contained the toys depicted in the movie. They then were secretly observed, and their behavior was recorded. The data revealed that the children viewing the rewarded model were most likely to repeat his behavior,
whereas the children viewing the punished model were least likely to exhibit
the portrayed behavior. The modeling behavior of the children in the no-
reinforcement condition fell between these groups. Subsequently, it also was
demonstrated that the children in the three conditions could equally well
reproduce the model's behavior when requested to do so by the experimenter.
Hence, acquisition of new knowledge (did not necessarily influence action, but
the model's behavior wits imitated by the observers when appropriate
reinforcement was present. It appears that perceived rewards and
punishments of a model influence performance, l)tit not observational
learning.

Researchers in the field of observational learning also distinguish between
live and symbolic models. Live models are viewed directly, while symbolic
models appear indirectly, through media such as radio, television, movies, or
newspapers. The importance of this distinction has been documented in the
study of delay of gratification.

3.2 Cognitive and life-goal theories of motivation

Cognitive
There are several motivational theories that trace their roots to the information
processing approach to learning. These approaches focus on the categories
and labels people use help to identify thoughts, emotions, dispositions, and
behaviors.

The first is cognitive dissonance theory which is in some respects similar to
disequilibrium in Piaget's theory of cognitive development. This theory was
developed by Leon Festinger (1957) and states that when there is a
discrepancy between two beliefs, two actions, or between a belief and an
action, we will act to resolve conflict and discrepancies. The implication is that
if we can create the appropriate amount of disequilibrium, this will in turn lead
to the individual changing his or her behavior which in turn will lead to a
change in thought patterns which in turn leads to more change in behavior.
A second cognitive approach is attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Weiner, 1974). This theory proposes that every individual tries to explain success or failure of self and others by offering certain “attributions.” These attributions are either internal or external and are either under control or not under control.

The following chart shows the four attributions that result from a combination of internal or external locus of control and whether or not control is possible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Internal</th>
<th>External</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Control</td>
<td>Ability</td>
<td>Luck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Effort</td>
<td>Task Difficulty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In a teaching/learning environment, it is important to assist the learner to develop a self-attribution explanation of effort (internal, control). If the person has an attribution of ability (internal, no control) as soon as the individual experiences some difficulties in the learning process, he or she will decrease appropriate learning behavior (e.g., I’m not good at this). If the person has an external attribution, then nothing the person can do will help that individual in a learning situation (i.e., responsibility for demonstrating what has been learned is completely outside the person). In this case, there is nothing to be done by the individual when learning problems occur.

A third cognitive approach is expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) which proposes the following equation:

\[ \text{Motivation} = \text{Perceived Probability of Success (Expectancy)} \times \text{Connection of Success and Reward (Instrumentality)} \times \text{Value of Obtaining Goal (Valance, Value)} \]

Since this formula states that the three factors of Expectancy, Instrumentality, and Valance or Value are to be multiplied by each other, a low value in one will result in a low value of motivation. Therefore, all three must be present in
orientation is more influenced by individual constructions of the ideal self (humanistic or psychoanalytic theory).

Social Cognition
Social cognition theory proposes reciprocal determination as a primary factor in both learning and motivation. In this view, the environment, an individual's behavior, and the individual's characteristics (e.g., knowledge, emotions, cognitive development) both influence and are influenced by each other two components. Bandura (1986, 1997) highlights self-efficacy (the belief that a particular action is possible and that the individual can accomplish it) and self-regulation (the establishment of goals, the development of a plan to attain those goals, the commitment to implement that plan, the actual implementation of the plan, and subsequent actions of reflection and modification or redirection. The work of Ames (1992) and Dweck (1986) discussed below is a major component of social cognitive views on motivation.

Transpersonal or Spiritual Theories
Most of the transpersonal or spiritual theories deal with the meaningfulness of our lives or ultimate meanings. Abraham Maslow (1954) has also been influential in this approach to motivation. Other influential scholars included Gordon Allport (1955), Victor Frankl (1998), William James (1997), Carl Jung (1953, 1997), Ken Wilber (1998).
Achievement motivation

One classification of motivation differentiates among achievement, power, and social factors (see McClelland, 1965; Murray, 1938, 1943). In the area of achievement motivation, the work on goal-theory has differentiated three separate types of goals: mastery goals (also called learning goals) which focus on gaining competence or mastering a new set of knowledge or skills; performance goals (also called ego-involvement goals) which focus on achieving normative-based standards, doing better than others, or doing well without a lot of effort; and social goals which focus on relationships among people (see Ames, 1992; Dweck, 1986; Urdan & Maehr, 1995). In the context of school learning, which involves operating in a relatively structured environment, students with mastery goals outperform students with either performance or social goals. However, in life success, it seems critical that individuals have all three types of goals in order to be very successful.

One aspect of this theory is that individuals are motivated to either avoid failure (more often associated with performance goals) or achieve success (more often associated with mastery goals). In the former situation, the individual is more likely to select easy or difficult tasks, thereby either achieving success or having a good excuse for why failure occurred. In the latter situation, the individual is more likely to select moderately difficult tasks which will provide an interesting challenge, but still keep the high expectations for success.

A high need to achieve is correlated with higher grades (Schultz & Pomerantz, 1974); however, Raynor (1981) has shown it isn’t a simple relationship. Considering getting B’s or higher as important for future plans and for self-respect was related to grades in school for boys. Raynor also found that students in the high-needs-to-achieve-and-low-test-anxiety group did well on the important (to them), relevant courses but not as well on less relevant courses. Students with low-achievement-needs-and-high-test-anxiety did about the same as the above group on less relevant courses but much worse on important courses. The points seem to be: (a) your need to achieve and self-confidence won’t do you much good unless you convince yourself that school is relevant to your future and your self-esteem, and (b) a fear of failure produces failure in the more important courses.
3.3 SUMMARY

How motivated we are depends on (1) the strength of fairly consistent motives or needs inside of us, (2) our expectation of what outcomes certain actions will produce, and (3) how badly at this time we want a certain payoff over all the other wants we have and over the risks we face. The needs, expectations, and incentives are mostly learned; together these factors (our motivation) largely determine what we do and how far we get in life. Although the past experiences related to these factors are unalterable, these factors that influence our lives so enormously can be changed by us. That's the beauty of being human.

Parents and teachers train children to be independent and achievers (Winterbottom, 1958) and to fear failure (Teevan & McGhee, 1972). Being rewarded for striving increases our achievement motive; being punished for unsatisfactory behavior--and having our successes disregarded--leads to a fear of failure. To the extent we are self-reinforcing, we could presumably increase our achievement motivation by emphasizing our successes and simply using our failures as cues for us to try harder.

There have been several successful attempts to train people to have higher achievement needs (Burris, 1958; McClelland & Winter, 1969). People were taught to have frequent fantasies of achieving, observe models of successful people like themselves, play games or role-play situations involving taking risks and being a successful competitor. These researchers concluded that they were teaching self-confidence and that "knowledge gives confidence."
UNIT 4
CONSTRUCTIVE ENVIRONMENT AND HUMAN ACHIEVEMENT

Unit 4:

Environmental perspectives

Based on current perspectives of the psychology of motivation, there are at least five (5) broad domains of investigation. This condition may ascertain sets of causal determinants of human behaviour. Motivation systems are generally divided into these parts:

- Physiological (biological) component
- Extrinsic & intrinsic component
- Cognitive component
- Individual differences
- Human emotions

Reflective questions:
What are the significant characteristics and processes of human achievement?
What distinguish achievements from failure?
How do we define achievement?

Based on achievement motivation perspectives, David McClelland & John Atkinson’s study on “nature of achievement motivation”, where behavior are activated by the achievement motive.

Concepts of rewards or reinforcers:
A response followed by a reward, may strengthened an association between particular environmental conditions & the response.

E.L. Thorndike argued that learning consists of forming a connection between a specific stimulus and a specific response, particularly the S-R bond, Thorndike's law of effect.

*Skinner's approach supports the weak law of effect*

Only that reinforcement is a *sufficient condition* for changing behavior, without concern for the mechanism of how reinforcer works.

*Response theories*

Based on Thorndike's strong laws of reinforcement.

*Functional analysis*

Skinner's view that any stimulus following a response that increases the probability of that response's recurring is a reinforcer. Tried-and-true stimuli often failed to modify human behavior in the way we expect them to.

It is difficult to say in advance what will be a good reinforcer for a given person in a given situation.

This unit explains the environmental factors of motivation and human achievement, and discusses relevant concepts and essential components of these factors. Other relevant approaches will also be discussed.

*Unit Objectives*

Upon successful completion of this subject, students should have knowledge and understanding of:

1. characteristics of conducive environment and contributing factors of motivation;

2. achievement-induced motivation and their environment.

*Readings: Chapters 7 - 9. Main references.*
4.1 Constructive environment and motivation
4.2 Human achievement and environment
4.3 Summary

4.1 Constructive environment and motivation

The Premack principle
The Premack Principle introduces a more systematic functional analysis:

Any Response A will reinforce Response B, if A has a higher response rate than B
Whether a reinforcer is effective depends on the response required to get the reinforcer (for example the rat experiment – licking/sucking water from bottle)

Hence, it has been argued many studies that academic activities can be scheduled earlier and reinforced by popular activities that come later (math – reading – story-telling - drawing).

Elicitation theories
Denny & Adelman (1955) proposed that all that is required for reinforcement is that a response be repeatedly elicited by some stimulus

Lever pressing - Running to food - Response
(Eating food)

Weakness: Stimulus can be reinforcing even when no reliable responses are elicited by the stimuli

The Glickman-Schiff biological theory
"Reinforcing responses" (e.g. eating) actually occur
Glickman & Schiff (1967) suggested that a stimulus would be reinforcing if it just activated the neural systems controlling responses, even if an overt
response did not occur. Stimulation of the feeding response system in the brain is adequate for reinforcement, i.e. the lateral hypothalamus (if electrically stimulated) food is available – will yield an eating response. It is also a powerful reinforcer even if food is not available.

**Drive reduction theory**

Experiment on rats and milk (milk drunk by hungry rats & milk injected into the stomach via fistula, or tubed saline solution) suggest that palatability of ingested food (such as the taste of milk) might be the critical reinforcing factor, not hunger (drive) reduction.

*Based on the common drive-reduction theory: pain reduction (electric shock), fear reduction (fear-arousing environment), reward-b-fistula.*

**Stimulus theories**

Motivation studies had conducted experiment on babies (newborns) & newborn rats & the experiments were conducted based on sweet or bitter tastes. The principles refer to hedonic reinforcers (hedonic = in relation to pleasure).

**Intrinsic motivation**

The apparent fact that certain activities, i.e. hobbies, games, puzzles, and creative endeavors, are enjoyable and rewarding in themselves (self-rewarding)

**Extrinsic rewards**

Those reinforcers which are not directly under our own control, but are given to us for our behavior by other people. The standard approach of operant conditioning & behavior modification.

Overjustification effect (Lepper & Greene, 1978) – described in terms of the hidden cost of reward
“Overjustification effect occurs when a person perceives that his behavior is being taken over and controlled by the reward (or person giving the reward) and therefore there is less feeling of autonomy”

Kruglanski (1978) distinguished between activities that are ENDS themselves, where an activity is perceived more favorably if it is an END rather than a MEANS.

There are still arguments that rewards DO NOT foster creative behavior because they only increase repetition of the rewarded response. However, rewards can be used to increase the VARIABILITY of behavior, which may lead to more creative activities.

**Intrinsic Motivation versus External Rewards**

*Self-determination theory*

Level of intrinsic motivation in a person is determined by three (3) psychological needs:

- Autonomy
- Competence
- Relatedness

*Autonomy*

The need to feel independent, to feel that one initiates one’s own behavior, to be the cause of one’s own actions

“... a person wants to feel like an origin and not a pawn” (deCharms, 1968, as cited in Beck, 2004, p. 194)

*Competence*

The need to feel that he or she is good at the activity in question (athlete — good performer, teacher — effective in teaching, small child — can build good block tower or draw a really nice picture)
Relatedness

Refers to the feeling of connectedness with other people

“The more that these three psychological needs are met through some activity, the more pleasure a person gets from the activity and is motivated to continue it”

4.2 Human achievement and environment

Human Environment of Achievement: Rewards as incentives

This section will discuss the differences between rewards/punishment and incentives. The underlying concept of incentive motivation illustrate that rewards tend to work “backward” to reinforce responses and make them more likely to occur.

Derives from two initial assumptions:

Learning is an associative process

The role of rewards is to strengthen such association

Learning is an associative process

Learning depends on the formation of association between S-R

The role of learning is to strengthen such association (between S-R). Rewards reinforce learning by strengthening association

Reflective question:

What if learning is NOT an associative process or if reinforcers are NOT NECESSARY for learning to occur?

Gallistel & Gibbon (2001a, 2001b) argued that there is cogent evidence that learning MAY NOT actually involve the strengthening of new associations. There are views that rewards are incentive motivational determinants of performance.
Anticipation or Expectancy of rewards - arouse incentive motivation - arouse activity engagement - lead to rewards

An organism (human being) engages in behavior leading to a reward if the particular reward is VALUED. Moreover, rewards are not necessary for instrumental learning.

Tolman & Honzik (1930) postulate that learning and performance are two different elements, i.e. performance does not always show whether learning has occurred:

Latent learning
Experiments on rats & maze
Learning was latent, not demonstrated in performance until reward was introduced
A variety of experiments shows that changes in incentive value, increasing or decreasing, quickly produce appropriate changes in performance even though not associated with particular responses

Latent extinction
Extinction of a response can occur without actually performing the response to be extinguished
Experiments on two groups of rats, on straight runway with food reward
Rats exposed to the empty goal box extinguishes faster than non-exposed/control group
Learned NOT TO EXPECT reward

Incentive shifts
Animals reliably perform better (faster, more vigorously, more accurately) for large rewards than for small ones (Black, 1969)
Experiments of Crespi (1942), Mellgren (1972)
Animals learn a response for either small or a large food reward, then are suddenly shifted from small to large or from large to small. Performances change appropriately to the new level of reward, but too suddenly to be accounted for by changes in response.

**Contrast effects**

Important feature of incentive shifts

"... if different incentives are presented to the same animal so that the animal can compare them, the animal responds differently to each of them than if they were presented alone"

Positive contrast effect (overshooting)
Negative contrast effect (undershooting)
Crespi (1942) referred as elation

**Motivational effects**

It is not just the absolute amount of reward that is important, but also how the animal perceives the reward in comparison to previous rewards.

Different amount of anticipatory excitement, eagerness (Crespi, 1942)

Related to learning only to the extent that the animal had to find out how much incentive it was getting before it exhibited the appropriate amount of eagerness.

Quality of rewards refer to different kinds of rewards have different incentive motivational properties

"animals performed better in bread & milk-rewarded-maze, than sunflower seed-rewarded maze or lever pressing for more concentrated glucose or sucrose, even though the amount of fluid was consistent (same quantity)"
**Deprivation effects**
Incentive theorists argue that such motivational effects as deprivation DO NOT "drive" behavior
Deprivation increases motivation by making anticipated incentives more attractive or valuable
Experiments on thirsty rats hungry and the hungry rats thirsty (reversed preferences)

**Personal control beliefs**
The beliefs each individual holds about the causal impact of his or her own actions on gaining desirable outcomes and preventing undesirable ones
Control beliefs strong – a sense of mastery over life’s outcomes
Control beliefs weak – a sense of helplessness

**Two psychological constructs:**
Causal attribution
Explanatory style

**Causal attribution**
An explanation of why a particular outcome came to pass (Weiner, 1996)
The reason to explain an outcome
“l’ve failed the exam because it was just too difficult”
Failure = outcome
Task difficulty = causal attribution
Most often attributions:
ability, effort, task difficulty, strategy, and luck, and more such as mood; illness or injury; the weather; today’s horoscope; the help, hindrance, or bias of others
Three dimensions of causal attributions:
Internal versus external
e.g. Intelligence vs. help from others
Stable versus unstable
e.g. Personality traits vs. moods
Controllable versus uncontrollable
e.g. Personal effort vs. luck

Explanatory style
Cognitive personality variable that reflects the habitual manner in which people explain the cause of bad events that befall them (Peterson & Seligman, 1984)

Represents a personality characteristic in how individuals typically or habitually explain life’s outcomes.

Pessimistic explanation (in passive & fatalistic manner)
“I lost the game because I am an uncoordinated klutz!”
Attributions: internal, stable & uncontrollable

Optimistic explanation (renewed effort & improved strategies)
“I lost because my opponent cheated!”
Attributions: external, unstable & controllable

Mastery versus Helplessness Orientations
Pessimistic explanatory style
Lead to a helpless motivational orientation
Helpless-oriented children quit in the face of failure and try to avoid difficult problems
Pervasive tendency to explain failure with a low-ability attribution
Optimistic explanatory style
Lead to a mastery motivational orientation
Mastery-oriented children persist in the face of failure and try to solve difficult problems
Resist making low-ability attribution
Failures as controllable, surmountable, focus on the remedies for failure (self-instruction and high effort)
The Perceived Causes of Success and Failure

Attribution theorists assume that individuals utilize a number of ascriptions both to postdict (interpret) and to predict the outcome of an achievement-related event. The attributional analysis of achievement striving began with a compilation of these perceived causes. Heider (1958) postulated that outcomes at achievement-related activities are a function of both internal and external (environmental) factors. Internal causes, in turn, are dichotomized into "power" (such as ability) and "try." Thus, the causes of success and failure specified by Heider are ability, effort, and characteristics of the environment, such as the ease or difficulty of a task. Heider also acknowledged that in certain situations luck is perceived as the determinant of success or failure.
4.3 SUMMARY

To answer the question of why people behave as they do, psychologists studying motivation from a clinical orientation assert or presume that there are one or more basic principles of behavior, such as "people strive to fulfill their potential" or "people strive to satisfy their aggressive and sexual urges." Then a broad range of clinical, historical, anecdotal, literary, and experimental evidence is marshaled to support this contention. In contrast to the experimental approach, there is little attempt to develop a formal or mathematical model. But there is an endeavor to encompass a wide breadth of phenomena. For example, in the Freudian system, the striving to satisfy sexual and aggressive urges is presumed to be manifested in slips of the tongue, dreams, neurotic behavior, and artistic creativity. Often an historical analysis of how the person has become what he or she is provides a basis for inferences about underlying motivational tendencies. These notions are not really subject to definitive proof or disproof, but they are useful in generating ideas and research and in providing insights about the causes of behavior. Individuals associated with the clinical approach often are psychiatrists or clinical psychologists interested in the adaptation of individuals to their environment. Thus, they also frequently are social commentators about "quality of life" and can become visible public figures who add to our vocabularies and indirectly alter numerous aspects of our lives. For example, concepts such as "id," "defense," and "ego," from psychoanalytic theory, or "self-disclosure," "sensitivity training," and "self-actualization" from humanistic psychology change how we perceive ourselves, how we perceive others, and perhaps influence important portions of our lives.
UNIT 5
CONTEMPORARY ISSUES OF
MOTIVATION AND HUMAN ACHIEVEMENT

Unit 5:

Contemporary issues:

Implicit and Self-Attributed Motives
Motivational researchers share the view that achievement behavior is an interaction between situational variables and the individual subject's motivation to achieve. 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. These two motives often work together to determine the behavior of the individual in direction and passion (Brunstein & Maier, 2005).

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. However, the explicit motives are built around a person's self-image. This type of motivation shapes a person's behavior based on their own self-view and can influence their choices and responses from outside cues. The primary agent for this type of
motivation is perception or perceived ability. Many theorists still can not agree whether achievement is based on mastering one's skills or striving to promote a better self-image (Brunstein & Maier, 2005). Most research is still unable to determine whether these different types of motivation would result in different behaviors in the same environment.

This unit explains the current and contemporary approaches of motivation and human achievement, and defines relevant terms and essential components of these perspectives. Other relevant theories will also be discussed.

Unit Objectives

Upon successful completion of this subject, students should have knowledge and understanding of:

1. contemporary issues and approaches of theories of motivation and human achievement;

2. recent perspectives of motivation and human achievement.

Readings: Chapters 9 - 10. Main references.

Contents

5.1 Contemporary approaches
5.2 Current perspectives of motivation theories
5.3 Summary

5.1 Contemporary approaches

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: the achievement motive approach and the achievement goal approach. 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, a performance-avoidance goal, and a mastery goal. 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. Thus, achievement motives are said to have an indirect or distal influence, and achievement goals are said to have a direct or proximal influence on achievement-relevant outcomes (Elliot & McGregor, 1999).

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. As this model is enhanced, it becomes more useful in predicting the outcomes of achievement-based behaviors (Elliot & McGregor, 1999).

**Achievement Goals and Information Seeking**

Theorists have proposed that people's achievement goals affect their achievement-related attitudes and behaviors. Two different types of achievement-related attitudes include task-involvement and ego-involvement. Task-involvement is a motivational state in which a person's main goal is to
acquire skills and understanding whereas the main goal in ego-involvement is to demonstrate superior abilities (Butler, 1999). One example of an activity where someone strives to attain mastery and demonstrate superior ability is schoolwork. However situational cues, such as the person's environment or surroundings, can affect the success of achieving a goal at any time.

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, 1999). 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, 1999). 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, 1999). 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. If poor performance is a threat to a person's sense of self-esteem, this lack of effort is likely to occur. This most often occurs after an experience of failure. Failure threatens self-estimates of ability and creates uncertainty about an individual's capability to perform well on a subsequent basis. 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. Withdrawing effort allows failure to be attributed to lack of effort rather than low ability which reduces overall risk to the value of one's self-esteem. When poor performance is likely to reflect poor ability, a situation of high threat is created to the individual's intellect. On the other hand, if an excuse allows poor performance to be attributed to a factor unrelated to ability, the threat to self-esteem and one's intellect is much lower (Thompson, Davidson, & Barber, 1995).

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. Regardless of which suggestion is true, self-worth theory assumes that individuals have a reduced tendency to take personal responsibility for failure (Thompson, Davidson, & Barber, 1995).
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: a performance goal focused on demonstrating ability when compared to others, and a mastery goal focused on the development of competence and task mastery. 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. Mastery goals can lead to a motivational pattern that creates a preference for moderately challenging tasks, persistence in the face of failure, and increased enjoyment of tasks (Elliot & Church, 1997).

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: a mastery goal focused on the development of competence and task mastery, a performance-approach goal directed toward the attainment of favorable judgments of competence, and a performance-avoidance goal centered on avoiding unfavorable judgments of competence. 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. Performance-avoidance goals undermined intrinsic motivation while both mastery and performance-approach goals helped to increase it (Elliot & Church, 1997).

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. Competence expectancies were considered an important variable in classical achievement motivation theories, but now appear to only be moderately emphasized in contemporary perspectives (Elliot & Church, 1997).

**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. Atkinson, another motivational theorist, drew from the work of Lewin and McClelland in forming his need-achievement theory, a mathematical framework that assigned the desire to succeed and the desire to avoid failure as important determinants in achievement behavior (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

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. Motivational theorists shifted away and devised other conceptualizations such as Dweck's performance-learning goal dichotomy with approach and avoidance components or Nicholls' ego and task orientations, which he characterized as two forms of approach motivation (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

Presently, achievement goal theory is the predominant approach to the analysis of achievement motivation. Most contemporary theorists use the frameworks of Dweck's and Nicholls' revised models in two important ways. 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). Secondly, most modern theorists characterized both mastery and performance goals as approach forms of motivation, or they failed to consider approach and avoidance as independent motivational tendencies within the performance goal orientation (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

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. Mastery goals are expected to have a uniform effect across all levels of perceived competence, leading to a mastery pattern. Performance goals can lead to mastery in individuals with a high perceived competence and a helpless motivational pattern in those with low competence (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

Three motivational goal theories have recently been proposed based on the tri-variant framework by achievement goal theorists: mastery, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance. Performance-approach and mastery goals both represent approach orientations according to potential positive outcomes, such as the attainment of competence and task mastery. These forms of behavior and self-regulation commonly produce a variety of affective and perceptual-cognitive processes that facilitate optimal task engagement. They challenge sensitivity to information relevant to success and effective concentration in the activity, leading to the mastery set of motivational responses described by achievement goal theorists. The performance-avoidance goal is conceptualized as an avoidance orientation according to potential negative outcomes. This form of regulation evokes self-protective mental processes that interfere with optimal task engagement. It creates sensitivity to failure-relevant information and invokes an anxiety-based preoccupation with the appearance of oneself rather than the concerns of the task, which can lead to the helpless set of motivational responses. The three goal theories presented are very process oriented in nature. Approach and avoidance goals are viewed as exerting their different effects on achievement.
behavior by activating opposing sets of motivational processes (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

**Intrinsic Motivation and Achievement Goals**

Intrinsic motivation is defined as the enjoyment of and interest in an activity for its own sake. Fundamentally viewed as an approach form of motivation, intrinsic motivation is identified as an important component of achievement goal theory. Most achievement goal and intrinsic motivational theorists argue that mastery goals are facilitative of intrinsic motivation and related mental processes and performance goals create negative effects. Mastery goals are said to promote intrinsic motivation by fostering perceptions of challenge, encouraging task involvement, generating excitement, and supporting self-determination while performance goals are the opposite. Performance goals are portrayed as undermining intrinsic motivation by instilling perceptions of threat, disrupting task involvement, and creating anxiety and pressure (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

An alternative set of predictions may be derived from the approach-avoidance framework. Both performance-approach and mastery goals are focused on attaining competence and foster intrinsic motivation. More specifically, in performance-approach or mastery orientations, individuals perceive the achievement setting as a challenge, and this likely will create excitement, encourage cognitive functioning, increase concentration and task absorption, and direct the person toward success and mastery of information which facilitates intrinsic motivation. The performance-avoidance goal is focused on avoiding incompetence, where individuals see the achievement setting as a threat and seek to escape it (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996). This orientation is likely to elicit anxiety and withdrawal of effort and cognitive resources while disrupting concentration and motivation.

**Personal Goals Analysis**

In recent years, theorists have increasingly relied on various goal constructs to account for action in achievement settings. Four levels of goal representation have been introduced: task-specific guidelines for performance, such as performing a certain action, situation-specific orientations that represent the purpose of achievement activity, such as
demonstrating competence relative to others in a situation, personal goals that symbolize achievement pursuits, such as getting good grades, and self-standards and future self-images, including planning for future goals and successes. These goal-based achievement motivation theories have focused almost exclusively on approach forms behavior but in recent years have shifted more toward avoidance (Elliot & Sheldon, 1997).

Motivation is an important factor in everyday life. Our basic behaviors and feelings are affected by our inner drive to succeed over life's challenges while we set goals for ourselves. Our motivation also promotes our feelings of competence and self-worth as we achieve our goals. It provides us with means to compete with others in order to better ourselves and to seek out new information to learn and absorb. Individuals experience motivation in different ways, whether it is task- or ego-based in nature. Some people strive to achieve their goals for personal satisfaction and self-improvement while others compete with their surroundings in achievement settings to simply be classified as the best. Motivation and the resulting behavior are both affected by the many different models of achievement motivation. These models, although separate, are very similar in nature and theory. The mastery and performance achievement settings each have a considerable effect on how an individual is motivated. Each theorist has made a contribution to the existing theories in today’s achievement studies. More often than not, theorists build off of each other’s work to expand old ideas and create new ones. Achievement motivation is an intriguing field, and I find myself more interested after reviewing similar theories from different perspectives.

5.2 Current perspectives of motivation theories

Atkinson’s Expectation-value theory

The basic underlying expectancy-value theory is that motivated behavior results from the combination of individual needs and the value of goals available in the environment. Expectancy-value theories also stress the idea
that the probability of behavior depends not only on the value of the goal for the individual but also upon the person's expectancy of obtaining the goal. According to Atkinson's expectation-value theory, he assumed that the tendency the tendency to engage in a particular activity consequences.

In achievement theory, the symbolizes the tendency to approach (or avoid) an achievement-related situation. Although this tendency is influenced by external rewards (money, approval), most research emphasis has focused on intrinsic (internal) variables such as pride associated with achievement or the shame associated with failure. The tendency to approach or avoid achievement situation is thought to result from 4 variable:

- the motive for success (Ms),
- the motive to avoid failure (MaF),
- the probability of success (Ps)
- the incentive value (Is) of achieving success.

Goal-directed behavior is jointly determined by the strength of the person expectation the particular behavior will lead to a goal and by the incentive value the individual places on that goal. (Brehm and Self, 1989)

Two factor are multiplied:

- motivation = expectancy x incentive value

A cognitive theories stating that goal-directed behavior is jointly influenced by:

The person's expectancy that a particular behavior will contribute to reaching the goal, and how positively or negatively the person values the goal.

**Source of value achievement**

Assigns causality to an outsider factor; "external"+ "internal"

Relate to the proximal determent of motivation (expectation and value)

Example:

1. "I did badly on the test because it was hard and I had a headache"
2. In classic dissonance paradigm, if a person believes that they did something counter attitudinal (say, a student writing and essay in favour of rising tuition prices, because they CHOOSE to do it (i.e. they make an internal attribution), then they tend to change their mind and believe that they really do support higher tuition. If, however, they write that same counterattitudinal essay but they believe they were FORCED to write it, (i.e. they make an external
Weiner's attribution theory of achievement

Weiner, attribution theory was interested in the caused and consequences of the sorts of attributions made for people's success or failure in asocial psychology examination. He believed that in making an achievement attribution consider 3 performance dimensions:

1) **Locus**: Was the performance caused by the actor (internal) or situation (external). Internal locus is related to confidence and self-esteem, or loss of self-esteem

   Students with internal locus feel responsible for success through skill and effort

   Students with external locus prefer to work in situations governed by luck

2) **Stability**: Was the internal or external cause a stable & unstable dimensions is related to expectations about the future.

   If success is attributed to stable factors, similar expectation of past to future

   If success is attributed to unstable factors, expectation is that the future differ from the past

3) **Controllability**: To extent is future task performance under the actor’s control it is related to emotional reaction

   If attribution is that success or failure is due to controllable factors, the outcome is feeling of pride or shame

   If attribution is to uncontrollable factors, outcome will be gratitude for good luck

Attribution theory maintains that expected performance depends upon the perception that the individual hold for the causes of their success or failure

   Example: Failure in a social psychology examination might be attributed to unusual hindrance from other. If the student was
intelligent (therefore failure is external) and was disturbed by a nearby student sneezing from hayfever (unstable and controllable, because in future examinations the sneezing student might not be present, and/or one could choose to sit in a place away from seeing student). Weiner model is a dynamic one, in that people assess whether someone has succeeded and failed accordingly experience positive or negative emotion.

Attribution measurement

Causal Dimension Scale

The Causal Dimension Scale was designed to assess the perceptions of causal attributions for events, in terms of the underlying dimensions identified by Weiner (1979) in his model of attribution processes. In the original version of the scale (Russell, 1982) causal explanations for events were rated on nine scales, which yielded measures of locus of causality, stability, and controllability. More recently, the scale has been revised, with the controllability dimension being separated into internal-controllable and external-controllable dimensions (McAuley, Duncan, & Russell, 1992). Due to this revision of the measure, the scale now consists of 12 rating scales.

Scores on the Causal Dimension Scale have been found to predict a variety of affective and cognitive variables, in both achievement and non-achievement settings. It should be noted that this measure is designed to assess perceptions of the cause or causes of a specific event, in contrast to measures designed to assess attributional style (see discussion by Russell, 1991; Cutrona, Russell, & Jones, 1984). A copy of the most recent version of the scale can be obtained in the article by McAuley et al. (1992).

Expectation

The act or state of expecting or looking forward to an event as about to happen that which is expected to happen; prospect of anything good to come, esp of property or rank. The value of any chance (as the prospect of prize or property) which depends upon same contingent event.
Expectations are computed for against event. The leaving of the disease principally to the efforts of nature to effect a core. For example, Tolman (1932) proposed that rewards did not just "stamp in" associations between stimuli and behavior, but that even animals learn expectancies about what will happen to them if they perform a certain behavior. They then come to expect the reward (or punishment) when they engage in the behavior in the situation. For Tolman, this cognitive notion of expectancy replaced the mechanistic concept of habit from Hullian drive models (Weiner, 1992).

Underachievement
The most common component of the various definitions of underachievement involves identifying a discrepancy between ability and achievement (Baum, Renzulli, & Hebert, 1995a; Butler-Por, 1987; Dowdall & Colangelo, 1982; Emerick, 1992; Redding, 1990; Rimm, 1997a; Supplee, 1990; Whitmore, 1980; Wolfe, 1991).

Covington’s theory
Suggest that human have an innate desire to want to protect their sense of self-worth. Self-worth is a person’s appraisal of their own value. There many problem and stress that can result from this. Many of these are found in a learning environment. Failure can be more problematic for those believing in the entity concept of ability, because they perceive it as reflection of themselves, who they are, rather than as a lack of effort on their part.

When self-worth is threatened, when they may appear incompetent, people are often motivated to take on maladaptive behaviors to maintain their self-worth:

- Minimize one’s participation
- Avoid effort (or at least appear as though one is not trying)
- False effort- pretend to be attentive, ask questions to which the answers are known, appear to be thinking
- Use of excuses
- Procrastination
Set unrealistically high goals
Select unrealistically difficult tasks

Miller's (1985) interesting experiment: Give children a task and tell them it is very difficult- alleviated their stress and allowed them to exert more effort
Cheating
Attempt only easy tasks
Use of distractions Over-involvement in other activities
Rehearsing answers
Overstriving- excessive attention to detail (make students fear they must exert too much effort too much effort to succeed, thus must not be very bright)

Self-value/Worth
Pride in oneself in which one becomes aware and accepting of one's imperfections while cherishing one's inherent strength and positives qualities. (Andrea Parechi, 1991).

Often employed to capture the idea that the outcome of this process can produce profoundly positive or profoundly negative feelings.

Success Without Learning
Success without learning is response that occurs at some natural rate (often called the Operant rate) can be made to occur at higher rate if the receipt of a reward is a made to contingent on a higher rate of responding.
If a reward is to work, an appropriate motivational system must be activated.
Example:
When you were the child, your parents did the same thing when they fed you. As a result, when they express praise for you now, it makes you feel good, just as the food you ate as child made you feel good.

The second line of the argument is simply that since human can think and reason, you know that "very good" or an "A" at the top of your paper means
that you are acquiring a skill that has value. This skill can be used to earn money or simply to earn the love and respect you want from people who matter to you. This is success without learning we can have from another factors like environment, experience and some motivation.

Source of attribution
Assigns causality to an outsider factor; "external" + "internal"
Relate to the proximal determent of motivation (expectation and value)

Example:
“I did badly on the test because it so hard and A had a headache”

In classic dissonance paradigm, if a person believes that they did something counterattitudinal (say, a student writing and essay in favour of rising tuition prices, because they CHOOSE to do it (i.e. they make an internal attribution), then they tend to chance their mind and believe that they really do support higher tuition. If, however, they write that same counterattitudinal essay but they believe they were FORCED to write it, (i.e. they make an external attribution for their behaviour), then they are unlikely to chance their attitude.

Atkinson’s Expectation-value theory
The basic idea underlying expectancy-value theory is that motivated behavior results from the combination of individual needs and the value of goals available in the environment. Expectancy-value theories also stress the idea that the probability of behavior depends not only on the value of the goal for the individual but also upon the person’s expectancy of obtaining the goal. According to Atkinson’s expectation-value theory, he assumed that the tendency to engage in a particular activity is related to the strength of an expectation (belief) that the behavior will lead to a particular consequences.

One of Atkinson’s important contributions to work on achievement motivation was his suggestion that the need to achieve is always tempered by another fundamental need, the need to avoid failure. That is, one cannot set out to
achieve a goal without considering the consequences of failure. Atkinson’s theory recognizes that people may differ in the strength of these two motives, but the final analysis, goal-directed behavior is determined by the joint action of the two motives. It is assumed that if the motive to succeed is greater than the motive to failure, a person will strive to attain a particular goal; if the motive to avoid failure is greater than the motive to succeed, the person will select goals that minimize the chance of failure. In other words, fear to failure may alter the goals a person selects. Rather than selecting a goal that would bring the greatest satisfaction, a person may prefer a second-best goal involves less risk of failure.

In achievement motivation theory for Atkinson, Ta is symbolized the tendency to approach (or avoid) an achievement-related situation. Although this tendency is influenced by external rewards (money, approval), most research emphasis has focused on intrinsic (internal) variables such as pride associated with achievement or the shame associated with failure. The tendency to approach or avoid achievement situation is thought to result from 4 variable:

- the motive for success (Ms),
- the motive to avoid failure (Ma),
- the probability of success (Ps)
- the incentive value (Is) of achieving success.

Value effect

_Hope of Success_

Can be expressed as a quantity.
Can be calculated for a variety of task-it is possible to predict which task a person will select.
Three factors or value:

It is necessary to obtain a measure of the general personality disposition that motivates a person to succeed (Ms). TAT has been adapted for this purpose.
It is necessary to determine the difficulty of the task. This can be expressed as the probability of success ($P_s$). If success is certain, $P_s$ is 1; if failure is certain $P_s$ is 0.

It is necessary to assess the pleasure or pride that a person may experience following success.

This factor has been called the incentive value of success ($ln_s$). Both theory and empirical reasons, it is assumed that $ln_s$, is simply $1 - P_s$.

The task is difficult (the probability of success is low), the incentive value is high, and when the task is easy (the probability of success is high), the incentive value is low.

**FORMULA: HOPE OF SUCCESS**

$$T_s = M_s \times P_s \times ln_s$$

Where

- $T_s$ = tendency to achieve success, or simply hope of success
- $M_s$ = motive to achieve success
- $P_s$ = perceived probability of success
- $ln_s$ = incentive value of success ($1 - P_s$)

**Fear to failure**

Can also be expressed as a quantity

Again three factors are assumed to be involved. It is assumed that there is a general personality disposition, or motive, to avoid failure ($M_f$).

Atkinson has, for purposes of obtaining a measure of tendency , used the Test Anxiety Questionnaire (Mandler & Cohen, 1968; Mandler & Sarason, 1952).

Task difficulty and incentive are assumed to play important roles in fear of failure.

**FORMULA: FEAR OF FAILURE**

$$T_f = M_f \times P_f \times ln_f$$

Where
\[ T_{F} = \text{tendency to avoid failure} \]
\[ M_{F} = \text{motive to avoid failure} \]
\[ P_{F} = \text{probability of failure} \]
\[ P_{T} = \text{probability of failure} (1 - P_{F}) \]
\[ In_{T} = \text{negative incentive value of failure} \]

**Resultant Achievement motivation**

Whereas success can lead to feelings of pride and satisfaction, failure can lead to feeling a shame.

The expectation of success and failure, acting together, lead a person to undertake or not undertake a given task.

Atkinson maintain that these two motives are additive. Resultant motivation can be expressed as follows:

\[ T_{S} = T_{F} = (M_{S} \times P_{S} \times In_{S}) + (M_{F} \times P_{T} \times In_{T}) \]

Since \( In_{T} \) is negative, motivation to undertake a task can be positive, negative, or zero, depending on whether hope of success is stronger than fear of failure, fear of failure is stronger than hope of success, or the two are equal.

To illustrate this fact, different values have been substituted into the above equitation.

**Weiner's attribution theory of achievement**

Weiner and his colleagues developed an attributional theory that was explain achievement motivation. Recall that in an expectancy-value framework, achievement behavior is explained in terms several factors, one of which one's likelihood of future success. Instead of concentrating on expectations of future success or failure, Weiner turned the question around and focused on attributions that we make when attempting to explain pas success or failure.

Weiner argued that at least four elements are important in our interpretation of an achievement-related event. The elements are ability, effort, task difficulty and luck. When we engage in achievement-related behavior, we will ascribe our success or failure at the task to one or a combination of these four
elements. In addition, these elements differ along two dimensions; locus of control (internal or external) and stability (stable or unstable), and these dimensions form the basis of his model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Internal</th>
<th>External</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stable</td>
<td>Ability</td>
<td>Task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>difficulty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unstable</td>
<td>Effort</td>
<td>Luck</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The causal ascriptions of ability, task difficulty, effort, and luck as related to the dimensions of stability-instability and internality-externality. Adopted from 'An Attributional Interpretation of Expectancy-Value Theory,' by B. Weiner.

The four causal ascriptions and their two dimensions can be visualized as a fourfold square (as in figure). The internal-external dimension varies along top of the square, while the stable-unstable dimension varies along the side. Thus, for example, ability is regarded as internal and stable, while luck is considered external and unstable. Weiner’s analysis of ability, effort, task difficulty and luck as important factors in the causal attribution of behavior suggests that shifts in the expectancy of success (or failure) should depend on the attributed source of the success or failure.

For example, success attributed to ability should lead to increased expectancy of success ascribed to luck should lead to little change. Also, attributing an outcome to a stable characteristics (ability or task difficulty) leads to greater expectancy shifts than when it attribute to unstable factors such as effort or luck.
Attribution disposition

There are many different theories of attribution — primarily concern factors assumed by the general public to cause people's behavior. People thus "attribute" behavior to particular factors usually either to consistent personality characteristics (termed dispositions) or to aspects of the social situation of the persons involved.

Haider (1944) pointed out that dispositions include such as factors as needs, wishes, and emotions as well as abilities, intentions and one's willingness to work (exertion). Dispositions have usually divided into abilities and motivations, with motivation being further subdivided into intention (the cognitive plan to behave in a particular way) and exertion (the amount of effort that one is willing to put into behavior).

Example, we are driving on a crowded highway when another driver cuts in front of us without using his turn signal, causing us to slam on our brakes to avoid the collision. According to Heider, we can attribute the driver's behavior to dispositional factors (e.g., "he's a jerk" or "he's a bad driver"). A dispositional attribution could involve intention (e.g., "that jerk, he did that on purpose") or exertion(e.g., "he was too lazy to use a turn signal or to look at in his mirror").

Attribution measurement

The measurement of attribution is through causal attributions by the underlying dimensions common to all causal attributions based on three properties of causal attributions called causal structures. The three causal structures are: (a) locus of causality, (b) stability, and (c) controllability.

Every causal attribution has a locus of causality. Locus of causality is the source of the attribution, which can be either internal or external to the individual. An internal locus of causality indicates that the source of the causal attribution is a characteristic of the individual. An external locus of causality is one that is external to the individual. An example of a causal
attrition with an internal locus of causality is ability—ability is considered to be a characteristic of an individual. An example of a causal attribution with an external locus of causality is when a student attributes failure on an exam to a poor teacher. In this case, the perceived cause for the failure is external to the student.

The second causal structure, stability, is the length of duration of a causal attribution. Some causal attributions are perceived as being stable over time and others are perceived as being relatively unstable over time. Ability is usually considered a stable individual characteristic because it is perceived as being stable and invariant (i.e., fixed) for a particular task; but, some may consider ability as unstable if they perceive ability or intelligence as incremental. Typically, effort is viewed as an unstable characteristic because it can vary from task to task. At times, it also can be perceived as stable. An example in an achievement context is the student who perceives their ability to construct hypotheses in science as being stable over time and the amount of effort they exert in making observations in science to vary from time to time depending upon what they are observing.

Controllability, as the third causal dimension, describes the degree of control an individual has over a causal attribution. For example, effort and hard work are presumed to be under the control of the student, while ability is often not considered to be under the control of the student (ability on a task is perceived as being fixed and uncontrollable). Table 1 shows the relationship between the three causal structures and the two most prominent causal attributions, ability and effort (see Table 1). Each causal attribution consists of some combination of the three causal structures (i.e., locus of causality, stability, and control).
Table 1

Summary chart of the causal structures associated with the causal attributions of ability and effort

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causal Structures</th>
<th>Ability</th>
<th>Effort</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Locus of Causality</td>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>Internal</td>
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What is self-worth

The World Book Dictionary defines self-worth as "a favorable estimate or opinion of oneself; self-esteem." The World Book Dictionary recognizes the distinction in concept, however, it does not recognize the distinction in meaning. Self-worth as a measure of the availability of our Spirit or Being Self to believe in ourselves. Self-worth comes from a source on the INSIDE of us. We create it through Faith, by acting on the singular belief that we matter. Self-worth is the foundation of our ability to believe in ourselves.

The worth of something is how much we value it and love it for itself, how important it is to us, and how much priority we give it compared to other things. Self-worth is an overall measure of how much we value ourselves
and give priority to our own needs and happiness. For example, our self-worth is a measure of our unconditional self-love.

High self-worth means loving ourselves unconditionally in all situations and in all areas of our lives. To have a high degree of self-worth, then we must still love ourselves even when we make mistakes or do dumb things—no matter how bad they were.

There are a lot of confusing "self" terms—self-worth, self-concept, self-esteem, self-confidence, etc. Think of self-esteem as composed of two parts—the unconditional part, and the conditional part. The unconditional self-valuing part is our self-worth. The conditional self-valuing part is our self-confidence. The most important part is the self-worth (unconditional) part.

**Self-worth is the portal through which self-esteem is received.**

Self-worth and self-esteem are vital beliefs for empowering oneself. A valid sense of self-worth is necessary in order to attain love, peace, joy, power, and a sound mind. A valid sense of self-worth precludes the possibility of committing suicide. Without self-worth, doubts and fears about our very existence will persist until they invalidate our dreams and vision, and undermine our greatest accomplishments.
Expectation:
Definition of expectation
The act or state of expecting or looking forward to an event as about to happen. That which is expected or looked for. The prospect of the future; grounds upon which something excellent is expected to happen; prospect of anything good to come, especially of property or rank. The value of any chance (as the prospect of prize or property) which depends upon some contingent event. Expectations are computed for or against the occurrence of the event. The leaving of the disease principally to the efforts of nature to effect a cure. The use of the expectancy construct springs from a general cognitive perspective on motivation and reflects the cognitive metaphor of the individual as an active and rational decision maker in contrast to earlier behavioral models of motivation. However, even early on in experimental psychology there were behavioral psychologists who stressed the cognitive nature of learning and utilized the expectancy construct in their models.

Underachievement:
Definition of underachievement
Poorer than expected performance (poorer than might have been predicted from intelligence tests). In general, underachievement is defined as a discrepancy between ability and performance. Underachievement, first and foremost, is a behavior and as such, it can change over time. Often underachievement is seen as a problem of attitude or work habits. However, neither habits nor attitude can be modified as directly as behaviors.
Underachievement is content and situation specific.
Underachievement is in the eyes of the beholder.
Underachievement is tied intimately to self-concept development.
5.3 SUMMARY

How motivated we are depends on (1) the strength of fairly consistent motives or needs inside of us, (2) our expectation of what outcomes certain actions will produce, and (3) how badly at this time we want a certain payoff over all the other wants we have and over the risks we face. The needs, expectations, and incentives are mostly learned; together these factors (our motivation) largely determine what we do and how far we get in life. Although the past experiences related to these factors are unalterable, these factors that influence our lives so enormously can be changed by us. That's the beauty of being human.

Parents and teachers train children to be independent and achievers (Winterbottom, 1958) and to fear failure (Teevan & McGhee, 1972). Being rewarded for striving increases our achievement motive; being punished for unsatisfactory behavior—and having our successes disregarded—leads to a fear of failure. To the extent we are self-reinforcing, we could presumably increase our achievement motivation by emphasizing our successes and simply using our failures as cues for us to try harder.

There have been several successful attempts to train people to have higher achievement needs (Burris, 1958; McClelland & Winter, 1969). People were taught to have frequent fantasies of achieving, observe models of successful people like themselves, play games or role-play situations involving taking risks and being a successful competitor. These researchers concluded that they were teaching self-confidence and that "knowledge gives confidence."
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Presentation Style and Format:
A number of you will have developed a consistent style for presenting information and using citations. Others may be uncertain about how they should do this. This course require you to use the American Psychological Association (APA) publication manual for your project or thesis, thus it is also required for your assignments. You should pay particular attention to the procedures for citing references in the text and listing them on a reference page.

Assignments submitted for grading to the FEM 4101 course are checked on receipt for correctness of citation formatting. Lack of attribution of pre-existing sources is considered in law to be plagiarism, and inappropriate citation formats can unwittingly give the impression of plagiarism even though this was not the student's intention. For this reason, all students should take care to absorb and apply the correct APA rules of citation before submitting an assignment. Further information is found at the following site: http://www.apastyle.org. The APA's recommendations for Electronic Reference Formats are available from the APA web site. Please contact the course instructor if you need further assistance.

Students should ensure that their assignments include the following information:
- Your name and metric number, course name, assignment name/number, instructor's name and date of submission.
Assignment Grading:
The instructor bases grading of assignments on the following:
Content - refers to topic definition and clarification; information, facts, data, examples and other illustrations; analysis and conceptual development of the argument, logic and coherence, persuasiveness, insights, writing skills; etc. This is really the core of the writing including achievement of the objectives of the writing as well as the quality and significance of the objectives.

The use of references in your essay to substantiate your position/viewpoint adds greatly to the strength of your argumentation.

Organization - includes the structure of the paper: the overall plan, internal organization and logical development; effective use of introductions, summarization, conclusions; appropriate use of tables; appropriate use of citations and references (APA Style); appropriate use of reference pages and appendices; and, use and placement of some of the content items (e.g., definitions, summaries).

Mechanics - includes spelling, grammar, word usage, punctuation, sentence structure, paragraphing and so forth. Errors in these areas can obscure good thinking, and, in any case, facility in writing, including the mechanics, is a basic requisite in graduate work and beyond.

Assignment Tasks:
Only one paper will be assigned for the semester, no more than ten typewritten pages in length (not including reference page/s, bibliography, appendices, or other relevant information), with 12-point Times New Roman font, double-spaced paragraphed, left-handed alignment, and numbered pages. The paper will be worth 30 marks (15% on critical analyses and 15% on theoretical presentation).
Purpose:
The purpose of this assignment is to increase your understanding of motivation and human achievement; and enhance your critical thinking and writing skills. Furthermore, the assignments are prepared to aid the student in learning skills necessary in forming policy-making decisions and to encourage the student to consider the integral relationship between theory, research, and social policy in developmental psychology.

Format:
The student may choose any issue of interest that is appropriate to the motivation and human achievement focus of the course, but the issue must be clearly stated and the student is advised to carefully limit the scope of the issue question.

There are three sections to the paper:

First:
First few pages will summarize two conflicting theoretical approaches to the chosen issue of motivation and human achievement. Summarize only what the selected theories may or would say about the particular question you've posed; do not try to summarize the entire theory. Make clear to a reader in what way the two theories disagree or contrast. Your text should provide you with the basic information to do this section.

Second:
On the next few pages, discuss and summarize (abstract) one relevant piece of current research. The research article must be chosen from a professional journal (not a secondary source) written within the last five years (after the year 2000). The article should be abstracted and then the student should clearly show how the research relates to the theoretical position(s) stated earlier, in particular, and to the motivation and human achievement issue chosen in general. Be sure the subjects used, methodology, and assumptions can be reasonably extended to your concern.
Third:
On the last few pages, the student will present a conclusion and some recommendations that can be supported by the information gained and presented in the first few pages. My advice is that you picture a specific audience and the final purpose or use of such scientific observation of analyses (for example to propose a certain policy guideline for an organization). For example, perhaps as a motivation specialist you have been requested to present an informed opinion to a federal or state committee whose charge is to develop a particular type of personnel development program or service). Be specific about your hypothetical situation and this will help you write a realistic recommendations or proposals.