

Psychology

December 15-19 VQ Work

Day 1

Read 12-1

Create Two Column Notes on the section

Day 2

Complete 12-1 Study Guide handout

Complete 12-1 Section Review at the end of the Section

Day 3

Read 12-2

Create Two-Column Notes on the Section

Day 4

Complete 12-2 Study Guide

Complete 12-2 Section Review

Day 5

Complete 12-3 Study Guide

Complete Chapter 12 Review at the end of the Chapter

Study Guide 12-1

Theories of Motivation

For use with textbook pages 313–317

Key Terms

motivation an internal state that activates behavior and directs it toward a goal (page 314)

instincts innate tendencies that determine behavior (page 314)

need a biological or psychological requirement of an organism (page 314)

drive a state of tension produced by a need that motivates an organism toward a goal (page 315)

homeostasis the tendency of all organisms to correct imbalances and deviations from their normal state (page 315)

incentive an external stimulus, reinforcer, or reward that motivates behavior (page 316)

extrinsic motivation engaging in activities that either reduce biological needs or help us obtain external incentives (page 316)

intrinsic motivation engaging in activities because they are personally rewarding or because they fulfill our beliefs and expectations (page 316)

Drawing From Experience

Have you ever done something and then wondered why you did it? If you have a job, why do you work? Have you ever done something just for the fun of it? This section describes different theories about why we do what we do. You will learn about needs, drives, and rewards both inside and outside of you that prompt you to act.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes as you read the summaries that follow. Think about the four theories of motivation presented in the chapter. For each theory listed below, give an example that supports it.

Theory	Supporting Example
Instinct Theory	1.
Drive-Reduction Theory	2.
Incentive Theory	3.
Cognitive Theory	4.

Read to Learn

Introduction (page 313)

Research on motivation and emotion focuses on why we behave the way we do. **Motivation** is an internal state that prompts us to act toward achieving a

goal. We can not see motivation directly, so we assume it from the behavior we observe. For example, we see Mikko working after school at a job he doesn't like. We know he wants to buy a car, so we assume he is "motivated" to earn money for the car. Motivations can come from outside or inside of us.

5. You have been working so hard that you forgot to eat lunch. Now your stomach is growling in protest. What might this internal state motivate you to do?
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Instinct Theory (page 314)

In the 1900s, William McDougall proposed that instincts motivate human behavior. Instincts are inborn tendencies that determine how an animal will behave in certain situations. Instincts do not involve reason. Instinctive behavior will be about the same for all members of a species. For example, salmon have instinctive urges to swim up rivers to reproduce in the exact spot where they were spawned. Instincts do not explain human behavior, however. Psychologists have since focused on other theories.

6. Deer have a mating season, a time every year when males and females get together to reproduce. Do you think this is instinctive behavior? Explain.
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Drive-Reduction Theory (page 314)

Something that motivates us moves us to action. That "something" starts with a need and leads to a drive. A need is a physical or psychological requirement. We need oxygen and food to survive (physical needs). We may also need love and the approval of our friends (psychological needs).

A need produces a drive. A drive is a feeling of tension caused by an unmet need. This tension motivates us to do something to meet the need. We have different drives with different goals. For example, hunger drives us to eat. Curiosity drives us to find out something.

Drive-reduction theory came from the work of Clark Hull. According to Hull, when an organism (living thing) is missing something it needs, it becomes tense and restless. This state of tension throws the organism out of its normal, balanced state. When an organism finds itself out of balance, it tries to correct the imbalances to return to homeostasis, its normal state. So to relieve the tension and return to homeostasis, the organism takes random actions. If a behavior reduces the drive, the behavior becomes a habit. That is, when the organism feels the drive again, it will first try the behavior that worked before. In short, drive-reduction theory states that physical needs drive an organism to act randomly or according to habit until it satisfies its needs.

Later research showed some flaws in this theory. According to drive-reduction theory, infants become attached to their mothers because their mothers relieve drives such as hunger and thirst. In an experiment, Harry Harlow took baby monkeys away from their mothers and put them in cages with two substitute mothers made of wire. One wire mother had a bottle attached. The other had no bottle but was covered with soft cloth. If drive-reduction theory was

correct, the babies would become attached to the wire mother with the bottle, because this was their only source of food. But in test after test, the babies preferred to cling to the cloth mother, especially when frightened.

Another argument against drive-reduction theory is that people sometimes intentionally do things that increase tension rather than try to relieve it. For example, you may enjoy riding roller coasters or watching scary movies.

7. According to drive-reduction theory, how would an elephant act if it were thirsty and needed to find water?
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Incentive Theory (page 316)

Incentive theory stresses the role of the environment in motivating behavior. A drive is something inside us that causes us to act, but our actions are directed toward a goal, or incentive. An incentive is the result we are trying to achieve by our actions. Drives push us to reduce needs, but the results we are after pull us toward obtaining the incentives. For example, hunger may cause you to walk to the cafeteria, but the incentive is the sandwich you intend to eat. If your drive (hunger) is very strong, you may eat the sandwich even if you know it won't be very tasty. But if your drive (hunger) is weak, the incentive must be strong to motivate you to action. So, if you aren't very hungry but you really like peanut butter sandwiches, you may eat one anyway.

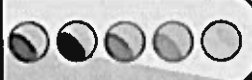
8. When you ask your teacher for help in solving a math problem, what is the drive and what is the incentive?
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Cognitive Theory (page 316)

Cognitive theory proposes that we act because of **extrinsic** and **intrinsic** motivations. *Extrinsic* means "outside ourselves." So **extrinsic motivation** means that we do things to reduce physical needs or to obtain incentives or rewards from our environment (that is, from outside ourselves). *Intrinsic* means "inside ourselves." So **intrinsic motivation** means that we do things because the activities are personally rewarding or because they meet our own internal goals. For example, if you spend hours playing basketball because you want to excel at the sport, you are following intrinsic motivation. If you spend hours playing basketball because your parents want you to excel at the sport, you are following extrinsic motivation. But if you play basketball just for the fun of it, you are following intrinsic motivation.

You are often motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards at the same time. For example, you may go out to dinner with friends because you need to satisfy your hunger (an extrinsic motivation), but you also do it because you like to socialize with them (an intrinsic motivation).

9. What extrinsic and intrinsic rewards are motivating you to take this course?
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**Study
Guide****12-2****Biological and
Social Motives***For use with textbook pages 319–327***Key Terms**

lateral hypothalamus (LH) the part of the hypothalamus that produces hunger signals (page 320)

ventromedial hypothalamus (VMH) the part of the hypothalamus that can cause one to stop eating (page 321)

fundamental needs biological drives that must be satisfied to maintain life (page 326)

psychological needs the urge to belong and to give and receive love, and the urge to acquire esteem (page 326)

self-actualization needs the pursuit of knowledge and beauty or whatever else is required for the realization of one's unique potential (page 326)

Drawing From Experience

When someone invites you to eat, have you ever looked at your watch to see if it is “time” to be hungry? When you face a difficult task, do you tackle it with all you’ve got, or do you avoid it because you think you can’t do it?

The last section discussed different theories of human motivation. In this section, you will learn about motivations that come from inside your body and those that come from your experiences with other people.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes as you read the summaries that follow. Think about the motivations that we learn from our environment. Complete each statement below.

1. A person with high need for achievement _____.
2. A person who fears failure might _____.
3. A person who fears success might _____.
4. A person trying to satisfy psychological needs might _____.

Read to Learn

Introduction (page 319)

Eating satisfies a physical need for food, but it also satisfies psychological or social needs. We may eat when we feel stressed (psychological). Eating is also a form of entertainment, such as eating lunch with friends (social). Social needs, such as achievement, also influence our behavior.

5. What have you done because you wanted to achieve something?

Biological Motives (page 320)

Like other animals, humans must satisfy some physical needs to survive. The nervous system requires a balance of elements such as water, oxygen, salt, and vitamins to stay healthy. When your body senses an imbalance, it will motivate actions aimed at returning itself to balance. For example, when your body temperature falls below a certain level, you shiver, some blood vessels make themselves smaller, and you put on more clothes. These activities reduce heat loss and bring your body back to its correct temperature. When your body temperature gets too high, you sweat, some blood vessels expand, and you remove some clothes. These activities cool you. The body's tendency to correct imbalances and return to its normal state is *homeostasis*.

You eat for many reasons. The smell of a pizza may lure you into a restaurant. You may eat out of habit. For example, you may always eat lunch at 12:30. But if you go without food for a long time, your body will demand food. You will feel an ache in your stomach. A part of the hypothalamus called the **lateral hypothalamus (LH)** produces this hungry feeling. It provides the “go” signal that tells you to eat. Another part of the hypothalamus called the **ventromedial hypothalamus (VMH)** produces the feeling of being full. It provides the “off” signal that tells you to stop eating.

The *glucostatic theory* suggests that the hypothalamus watches the amount of glucose, a kind of sugar, in the blood. Glucose provides energy to the body. When the glucose level in the blood gets too low, the LH prompts you to eat. At the same time, the pancreas releases *insulin* to change incoming calories into energy. You will use some of this energy right away. Some will be stored as fat for later use. After your meal, as your glucose level drops, the pancreas releases *glucagon*, which converts stored energy back into useful energy.

Your body tends to keep a stable weight over a long time. This weight is your *set-point*. The hypothalamus considers your set-point, glucose level, and body temperature in determining whether or not to motivate you to eat.

We also eat for social reasons, called *psychosocial hunger factors*. When others are eating, we tend to eat more. You may eat popcorn at a movie because you always do. You may also choose not to eat because you want to look like a model. Psychosocial factors can lead to eating disorders, such as binge eating or self-starvation.

Growing evidence suggests that genes play a big role in a person's weight. The genes you inherit may give you a tendency to be overweight. People are overweight if they are 20 percent above their ideal weight. They are obese if they are 30 percent over their ideal weight. Studies show that obese people eat because of external cues (signals from their environment), not because they are hungry. For example, they may eat because a food looks good or because their watches tell them it is time to eat. Normal-weight people tend to respond more to internal signals, such as a feeling of hunger. Anxiety and depression are not causes of overeating. These conditions occur just as often among people of normal weight as among those who are overweight.

6. What would happen if you didn't have a ventromedial hypothalamus?

Social Motives (page 323)

Social motives are learned from our experiences with other people. The achievement motive is the desire to set challenging goals and keep trying to reach them, in spite of the roadblocks along the way. David McClelland used a Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) to try to measure achievement. In this test, researchers showed people a series of pictures. They told the people to describe what is happening in each picture. There were no right or wrong answers. It was not clear what was actually happening in the pictures. So, people's stories had to come from their own beliefs and attitudes. The researchers "coded" the stories for certain themes that related to needs, such as achievement, setting goals, and competing. For example, a story would be scored as high in achievement if the main character was concerned with excellence, high performance, or special accomplishments.

People who score high in achievement in the test tend to set difficult but realistic goals and pursue them strongly, compete to win, and choose challenging careers. McClelland followed the careers of people who scored high in achievement on the test as students. He found that 11 years after graduation, 83 percent of the people who scored high on achievement had chosen challenging careers.

Some people are motivated by a fear of failure. A person may not try out for the baseball team because she thinks she can't make it. People display fear of failure when they choose easy tasks in which failure is unlikely. The fear of failure may motivate a student to study only enough to pass an exam but not enough to get a good grade.

Fear of success can also motivate people. Matina Horner found that the thought of succeeding in a traditionally male profession made many women anxious. The women seemed to think that success in traditionally "male" careers such as medicine or law must mean failure as a woman. Horner discovered that bright women who had a very good chance of high achievement showed a stronger fear of success than did average women. Fear of success is found in both men and women.

Expectancy-value theory states that how motivated we are depends on how likely we are to be successful in the task (*expectancy*) and how much the reward for success is worth to us (*value*). *Competency* theory suggests that we tend to choose tasks that are reasonably difficult, so we can find out how competent (skilled) we are. Tasks that are too easy or too hard will not tell us anything about our skill.

Abraham Maslow believed all people have certain needs. He arranged the needs in a hierarchy or triangle, ordered from the most basic needs to the highest needs. Maslow proposed that after we satisfy the needs at the bottom of the triangle, we advance to the next level and try to satisfy those needs.

Fundamental needs are the physical drives that must be satisfied to live, such as hunger. These needs are at the bottom of the triangle. If we are hungry, our main motivation will be to find food. Until we relieve our hunger, we will not be interested in other needs.

The second level of the triangle are the **psychological needs**. These are the needs to belong, to give and receive love, and to feel good about ourselves through achievement. Once these needs are met, we start trying to satisfy the highest level of needs: **self-actualization needs**. These include the pursuit of knowledge, beauty, and anything else that will help us reach our full potential. Other research suggests that while we may all have these needs, we may not have to satisfy them in a certain order.

7. Horner did her studies in the 1970s. Do you think women may not fear success as much now as they did then? Explain.

**Study
Guide 12-3****Emotions***For use with textbook pages 328–336***Key Term**

emotion a set of complex reactions to stimuli involving subjective feelings, physiological arousal, and observable behavior (page 329)

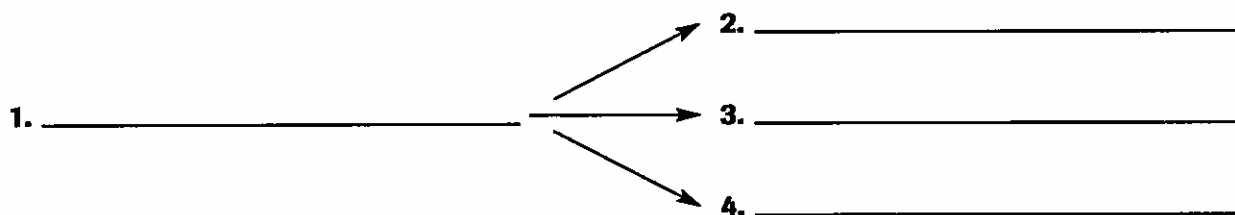
Drawing From Experience

When you have to speak in front of a group, what kinds of reactions do you feel in your body? Have you ever tried to “read” someone’s face or body language to try to figure out what the person is feeling?

In the last section, you learned about motivations, both physical and social. In this section, you will learn what emotions are and some theories about how they occur.

Organizing Your Thoughts

Use the diagram below to help you take notes as you read the summaries that follow. Think about the four things that happen when you experience an emotion.

**Read to Learn****Introduction (page 328)**

When a person is frightened, physical changes occur. The heart races, breathing quickens, the senses become more aware, and blood rushes toward the brain, heart, and other muscles. So with all these physical changes, why do we call fear an “emotion” instead of a physical drive? It depends on whether we want to describe the source of our behavior or the feelings that go with it. Physical drives and emotions go together. Sometimes emotions work like physical drives. Our feelings might push us to pursue a goal. Other times we do things we think will make us feel good. The good feelings we expect to receive

are the rewards of the behavior. Finally, emotions help us make decisions and communicate what is going on inside us.

Emotional intelligence is the ability to understand emotions and use that information to make decisions. For example, you want to tell your friends a joke. First you must judge whether they will like the joke or think it is in bad taste. Judging the emotions involved in this situation is a sign of your emotional intelligence.

5. Give an example of a decision you have made based on emotions.

Expressing Emotions (page 329)

An emotion is a feeling brought on by a real or imagined object or event that is important to you. Four things happen when you experience an emotion. (1) You are faced with a stimulus that causes you to react. (2) You have a feeling, such as fear or happiness. (3) You experience physical responses, such as an increased heart rate. (4) You display a visible behavior, such as smiling or crying.

All emotions have three parts: physical, behavioral, and cognitive. The physical part has to do with the changes inside the body caused by the emotion. The behavioral part is the outward expression of the emotion, such as body language and tone of voice. The cognitive part concerns the meaning we attach to the situation (stimulus) causing the emotion. For example, if someone says hello, we may think that the person is being friendly, hostile, or mocking. The meaning we apply affects our emotional response.

Charles Darwin argued that all people express basic feelings the same way. Without knowing a person's language, you can tell whether the person is pleased or angry just by looking at the person's face. Later research supported this view. It suggested that basic facial expressions are *innate*, that is, inherited as part of our physical makeup. For example, children born without sight and hearing cannot learn expressions from other people. Yet they laugh, frown, and pout like other children.

Carroll Izard identified 10 different emotional states from studying changes in parts of the face, such as eyebrows, eyes, and mouth. For example, when people are angry, their eyebrows go down and draw together and their eyes narrow.

James Averill believes that we learn our emotional reactions from social expectations and consequences. We learn to experience and express emotions in the company of other people. How others react to our emotional expressions help shape them. For example, parents shape their children's emotions by getting angry at some outbursts, giving sympathy with others, and occasionally ignoring them. In this way children learn which emotions are considered appropriate in different situations.

Learning explains the differences among cultures once we go beyond such

basic expressions as laughing or crying. Children imitate the expressions of the parents or caregivers. So, all of us are born with emotions and with some basic forms of expression, but when, where, and how we express different feelings are mostly learned.

Some psychologists believe emotions come from physical changes. Others believe they come from mental processes. William James was one psychologist who stressed the physical causes of emotions. He believed that emotions are the perception of certain changes within the body. While some psychologists thought that emotions trigger changes in the body, James saw it the other way around. He argued that the body's physical reactions occur first, and we feel emotions when we recognize these changes. Because Carl Lange came to the same conclusion at about the same time, the theory became known as the *James-Lange theory*.

Carroll Izard's theory is similar. He believed that the way we experience emotion results from what we feel the muscles in our faces doing. To check this out, smile for two minutes and notice how you feel. Then frown for two minutes and notice the difference.

One argument against the James-Lange theory is that some emotions, such as anger and fear, cause the same physical changes. Another argument is that complex emotions such as jealousy and love require thought.

William B. Cannon and Philip Bard opposed the James-Lange theory. According to the Cannon-Bard theory, the brain sends two reactions—one waking the body's processes and the other an experience of emotion. One does not cause the other. They occur together.

Psychologists who believe that emotions result from mental processes are cognitive theorists. They believe that the body's changes and thinking work together to produce emotions. Physical changes are only half the story. What you feel depends on the meaning or interpretation you apply to these changes. The Schachter-Singer experiment supported this view. It demonstrated that the internal parts of emotion affect a person differently, depending on the person's perception of the social situation. When people cannot explain their physical reactions, they take cues from their environment. Therefore, perception and physical changes work together to create emotions. Opponents of this theory say that sometimes you feel an emotion first, and then your body reacts.

The body has sympathetic and parasympathetic systems. The sympathetic system prepares the body for action. The parasympathetic system calms the body. The opponent-process theory states that these two systems act together to control our emotions. This process is similar to other ways that the body corrects imbalances to return to homeostasis. According to the opponent-process theory, proposed by Richard Solomon and John Corbit, when the stimulus for one emotion is removed, you feel the opposite emotion.

6. If someone pointed a gun at you, what physical, behavioral, and cognitive reactions might you have?
