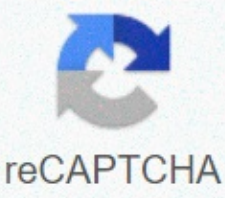




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Motivation is defined by psychologists as

Naim 6:44 AP Psychology Chapter 11 A) cause of behavior. B) a need or dere that energizes and directs behavior towards a goal. C) a pulse to make something meaningful. D) rigid behavior patterns characteristic of everyone. Answer: B Motivation describes the desires or needs that act directly towards a goal. Determining motivation on drive, engine, and in-house versus external motor Key Takeaways Key Points Motivation is an urge to behave or act in a way that will meet certain conditions, such as desire, desire, or goal. Psychologists believe that motivation stems from a fundamental impulse to optimize well-being, minimize physical pain and maximize pleasure. Motivation is often separated into drives (mostly biological, such as thirst or hunger) and motivation (mainly driven by social and psychological mechanisms). In addition to biological drives, the dynamics can be inland (arising from internal) or external factors (arising from external factors). In fact, our motivation is usually a mix of both inland and external factors, and the nature of the mixture may change over time. Main terms of motivation: A motivation or reason to do something. psychoso psychologist: There are both psychological and social aspects. Driving: Behaviors of motivation such as thirst or hunger are primarily biological purposes. Motivation describes the desires or needs that act directly towards a goal. It is an urge to behave or act in a way that will meet certain conditions, such as desire, desire, or goal. The old theory of motivation says that reasonable thought and reason are guiding factors in human motivation; however, psychologists now believe that motivation can stem from basic impulses to optimize well-being, minimize physical pain and maximize pleasure. Drives and Engines are often separated into drives and engines. The mostly biological drives, like thirst, hunger, drowsiness, and the need for reproduction –all of which lead us to seek and engage in certain activities. The drive is believed to originate in a person and may not require external stimuli to encourage behavior. Motivation, on the other side, is primarily driven by social and psychological mechanisms, such as work, family and relationships. These include factors such as praise and approval. Both the drive and the motor can be manipulated by irritation and deprivation. Motivation can be provoked by unpleasant or aversive conditions or events (shock, loud noises, or excessive heat or cold that may motivate us to seek better conditions) or by attractions to positive or interesting conditions or events (such as food or sex). We also become active when we are deprived of something that we want or need, like adequate nutrition or social contact. Internal and external dynamics can be inward (arising slowly external factors (arising from external factors). Motivational behaviors are actually created by the personal sense of satisfaction they bring. They are motivated by interest or enjoyment in the mission itself that comes from individuals, not society. For example, if you're in college because you like to study and want to make yourself a more totaleable individual, you're really motivated. In-house motivation is an important factor in cognitive, social and physical development; motivated individuals are actually capable of performing better and improving their skills at a certain task. Conversely, motor acts are actually done to get something from someone else. They don't come from within individuals, but from society- others. For example, employees can do their job because they want the company to pay for them, not because they love the job. Many athletes are motivated by the goal of winning, beating the competition and receiving praise from fans; they are not motivated by the in-house satisfaction they get from playing the sport. Like that, if you're in college because you want to make yourself more marketable for a high-paying career or to meet the needs of your parents, then your motivation is outside in nature. Inward and external dynamics: Internal motivation comes from within the individual and results in a sense of autonomy, mastery, and purpose. External motivations such as penalties, rewards, and other types of compensation, come from outside the individual. In fact, our motivation is usually a mix of both inland and external factors, and the nature of the mixture may change over time. For example, saying cooking is one of your favorite holes: you like to cook for others whenever you have the chance, and you can easily spend hours in the kitchen. You really have the motivation to cook. Then you decide to go to culinary school and finally get a job working as a chef in a good restaurant. Now you are getting external enhancements (for example, getting paid) for your work, and maybe over time become more external than is essentially the engine. Sometimes, internal dynamics can be diminished when external dynamics are given- a process known as an over-adjustment effect. This can lead to extinguishing in-house motivation and creating an dependence on external rewards to continue to perform. Motivation versus emotion While motivation and emotions can be complexly linked, they are two fundamentally different things. Motivation describes the desires or needs that act directly towards a goal; conversely, an emotion is a subjective state of being which we often describe as a feeling. Emotions and motivations are linked in many ways: both influence behavior and can lead us to act and the emotions themselves can act as a motivation. For example, Feelings of fear can motivate a person to leave a stressful situation, while feelings of well-being can motivate a person to work more efficiently in a project that reinforces that emotion. Motivation to engage in a certain behavior can come from internal and/or external factors. There are many theories that have been put in place regarding theoretically oriented dynamics that say that the need to maintain body homeostasis promotes behavior, Bandura's idea that our self-consciousness effectively promotes behavior, and others focus on the social aspects of motivation. In this section, you will learn about these theories as well as the famous work of Abraham Maslow and his needs hierarchy. Learning Objectives Inward and External Motivation Illustrations Describing fundamental theories of motivation, including concepts such as instinct, drive reduction, and self-efficiency Explain basic concepts related to Maslow's demand hierarchy Explain how different compliments and thoughts can lead to different levels of performance Why do we do the things we do? What motivation underways our behavior? Motivation describes the desires or needs that act directly towards a goal. In addition to biological engines, the motor can be inland (arising from internal) or external factors (arising from external factors) (Figure 1). Essentially motivational behaviors are performed because of the personal sense of satisfaction they bring, while motor acts are actually performed to receive something from others. Chart 1. Inland motivation comes from within the individual, while external motivation comes from outside the individual. Think about why you are currently in college. Are you here because you enjoy learning and want to pursue an education to make yourself a more totaletly individual? If so, then you are intrinsically motor. However, if you are here because you want to get a college degree to make yourself more marketable for a high-paying career or to meet the needs of your parents, then your motivation is outside in nature. In fact, our motivation is usually a mix of both inland and external factors, but the nature of the blend of these factors can change over time (often in ways that seem counter-intuitive). There's an old saying: Choose a job that you love, and you'll never have to work a day in your life, which means that if you enjoy your career, the job doesn't seem like a mnx, work. Some research suggests that this is not necessarily the case (Daniel & Esser, 1980; Deci, 1972; Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999). According to this study, getting some kind of external enhancement (i.e., getting paid) to engage in the behaviors that we leads to behaviors considered work that no longer provide the same pleasure. As a result, we can spend less time participating in re-decentralized behavior in the event that there is no external enhancement. For example, Odessa likes to bake cakes, so in her spare time she bakes for fun. Usually, after dropping shelves at her grocery store job, she usually whips up pastries in the evenings because she likes to bake cakes. When a colleague in the bakery department of the store left his job, Odessa applied for his position and was transferred to the bakery department. Although she likes what she does in her new job, after a few months she no longer desires to prepare delicious dishes in her spare time. Baking has become work in a way that changes her motivation to do it (Figure 2). What Odessa has experienced is called the inland overjustification-dynamic effect that is diminished when external dynamics are given. This can lead to extinguishing in-house motivation and creating an dependence on external rewards to continue performing (Deci et al., 1999). Chart 2. Research shows that when something we like to do, like icing cakes, becomes our job, our inland and external motivation to do that can change. (credit: Agustín Ruiz) Other studies have shown that internal motivation may not be susceptible to external reinforcements, and in fact, reinforcements such as verbal praise may actually increase internal motivation (Arnold, 1976; Cameron & Pierce, 1994). In that case, Odessa's motivation to bake in her spare time may remain high if, for example, customers regularly compliment her baking or decorating skills. The obvious differences in the researchers' findings can be understood by considering a number of factors. For one, physical enhancement (such as money) and verbal enhancement (such as praise) can affect an individual in very different ways. In fact, tangible rewards (i.e. money) tend to have more of a negative impact on in-house motivation than invisible rewards (i.e. praise). Moreover, the expectation of an individual's external motivation is very important: If the person expects to receive an external reward, then the inward motivation for the task tends to decrease. However, without such expectations, and external motivation presented as a surprise, then the in-house motivation for the task tends to exist (Deci et al., 1999). In educational institutions, students are more likely to experience in-house motivation to learn when they feel belonged to and respected in the classroom. This internalization can be enhanced if the evaluation aspects of the class are de-emphasized and if students feel that they exercise some control over the learning environment. Moreover, providing students with challenging activities, but being able to perform along with a reason to participate in various learning activities can enhance the in-house motivation for those tasks (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). Consider Hakim, a first-year rule with two courses this semester: Family Law and Criminal Law. The Family Law Professor has a rather scary class: He likes to put students in place with difficult questions, which often makes students feel despised or embarrassed. Scores are based solely on quizzes and quizzes, and the instructor posts the results of each test on the classroom door. In contrast, the Criminal Law professor facilitates classroom discussions and respectful debates in small groups. The majority of classes are not exam-based, but focus on a student-designed research project on a crime-suspected issue of student choice. Research shows that Hakim will be less motivated in its Family Law course, where students are threatened in the classroom context, and have an emphasis on teacher-directed assessments. Hakim is likely to experience a higher level of in-house motivation in his Criminal Law course, where class settings encourage comprehensive collaboration and respect for ideas, and where students are more influential in their academic activities. William James (1842–1910) was an important contributor to early research on dynamics, and he is often referred to as the father of psychology in the United States. James hypothesized that such behavior was motivated by some instincts, supporting survival (Figure 3). From a biological perspective, instinct is a specific pattern of behavior of the species that is not studied. However, there was considerable controversy between James and his conscepts over the correct definition of instinct. James proposes several dozen special human instincts, but many of his consynames have their own different lists. A mother protecting her baby, the urge to lick sugar, and hunting is one of the human behaviors proposed as real instincts in James's era. This view - that human behavior is driven by instinct - has received a reasonable amount of criticism for the undeniable role of learning in the shape of all kinds of human behavior. In fact, as early as the 1900s, some instinctive behaviors were shown to be the result of combined learning (remember when you learned about Watson's conditioning of the fear response in Little Albert) (Farris, 1921). Chart 3. (a) William James proposes the instinctive theory of motivation, asserting that behavior is motivated by instinct. (b) In humans, instinct may include behaviors such as infant roots for nipples and sucking. (credit b: mothering touch/Flickr job modifications) An early theory of motivation suggests that maintaining homeostasis is particularly important in steering behavior. You may recall from your earlier reading that homeostasis is the tendency to maintain a balance, or optimal level, in a biological system. In a system control center (usually part of the brain) of the brain) inputs from receptors (often complex neurons). The control center directs effectors (which may be other neurons) to correct any imbalance detected by the control center. According to the drive theory of motivation, deviation from homeostasis creates a need for fertility. These needs lead to psychological driving states that direct behavior to meet demand and, ultimately, bring the system back homeostasis. For example, if it's been a while since you eat, your blood sugar will drop below normal levels. This low blood sugar will cause a corresponding erevity and driving state (i.e. hunger) that will guide you to search and consume food (Figure 4). Eating will eliminate hunger, and eventually, your blood sugar will return to normal. Interestingly, driving theory also emphasizes the role of habit in the type of behavior response we engage in. A habit is a pattern of behavior that we regularly engage in. Once we have engaged in a behavior that successfully reduces a drive, we are more likely to engage in that behavior whenever faced with that drive in the future (Graham & Weiner, 1996). Chart 4. Hunger and eating are followed by the result of complex erervo processes that maintain homeoeyley balance. (credit left: gracie and Viv/Flickr's work modification; credit center: steven Depolo's work modification; credit right: revised work by Monica Renata) Extensions of drive theory take into account the level of stimulus as potential motivation. Just as the drive theory aims to return the body to homeostasis, stimulation theory aims to find optimal levels of stimulation. If we are underaroused, we become bored and will figure out some kind of stimulus. On the other hand, if we are over-awakened, we will engage in behaviors to reduce our excitement (Berlyne, 1960). Most students have experienced this need to maintain optimal levels of stimulation throughout their academic careers. Think about how much stress students experience at the end of the spring semester. They feel overwhelmed with seemingly endless exams, papers, and large exercises that must be completed on time. They may want to rest and relax waiting for them during the extended summer vacation. However, once they finish the semester, it doesn't take too long before they start to get bored. In general, by the time the next semester begins in the fall, many students are quite happy to return to school. This is an example of how stimulus theory works. Chart 5. The optimal stimulus concept involves performance on a task described here. Performance is maximized at optimal levels of stimulation, and it tapers off in under and overarousal. So what is the optimal level of stimulation? what results in the best performance? Research shows that moderate stimulation is generally the best; When When is very high or very low performance tends to suffer (Yerkes & Dodson, 1908). Think about how much your stimulation involves taking an exam for this class. If your level is very low, such as boredom and lethargy, your performance will probably be affected. Similarly, a very high level, such as extreme anxiety, can be paralyzed and hinder performance. Consider the example of a soft team facing a league. They are favored to win their first game by a large margin, so they go into the game with a lower level of stimulation and get beaten by a less skilled team. But the optimal level of stimulation is more complicated than a simple answer that the average level is always the best. Researchers Robert Yerkes (pronounced Yerk-EES) and John Dodson found that the optimal level of stimulation depends on the complexity and difficulty of the task performed (Figure 6). This relationship, known as the Yerkes-Dodson Law, argues that a simple task is best performed when the level of stimulation is relatively high and complex tasks are best performed when the level of stimulation is lower. Chart 6. Mission performance is best when the stimulus levels are in an average range, with difficult tasks best performed below the lower level of stimulating tasks and simply performed best below higher stimulation levels. Self-effectiveness is an individual's belief in his or her ability to complete a task, which may include an earlier successful completion of the correct task or a similar task. Albert Bandura (1994) theory that an individual's sense of self-effectiveness plays an important role in promoting behavior. Bandura argues that motivation comes from the expectations we have about the consequences of our behavior, and ultimately, it is appreciating our ability to engage in a certain behavior that will determine what we do and the future goals that we set for ourselves. For example, if you have a sincere belief in your ability to achieve at the highest level, you are more likely to take on challenging tasks and not let failures prevent you from seeing the task through to the finish. Some theo the theo theoeians have focused their research on understanding social motivation (McAdams & Constantian, 1983; McClelland & Liberman, 1949; Murray et al., 1938). Among the engness they describe are the need for achievement, solidarity and intimacy. It is the need for achievements that drive completion and performance. The need for linking encourages positive interaction with others, and the need for intimacy makes us look for deep, meaningful relationships. Henry Murray et al. (1938) fields. For example, the need to achieve and recognize is within the scope of ambition. Dominate and aggression have been recognized as needs under the realm of human power, and play is a recognized need in the field of affection between individuals. Watch this video from Dan Pink's Ted talking about The Surprising Truth what motivates us. Think about the things that motivate you, and how you anticipate that you can respond to the kind of incentives explained in the conversation. While previously described theories of motivation relate to basic biological drives, personal characteristics, or social contexts, Abraham Maslow (1943) proposed a hierarchy of needs that spans the motor spectrum from biological to personal to social. These needs are often described as a pyramid (Figure 7). Chart 7. Maslow's demand hierarchy is illustrated here. In some versions of the pyramid, cognitive and aesthetic needs are also included between self-esteem and self-realization. Others include another floor at the top of the pyramid for transcendental self-. At the base of the pyramid are all the necessary habitat needs for survival. Then there are the basic needs of security and safety, the need to be loved and consciously belonged to, and the need to value ourselves and confidence. The top floor of the pyramid is self-realization, which is a need basically equivalent to achieving a person's full potential, and it can only be done when lower demands on the pyramid have been met. For Maslow and humanist theo theoeontors, self-realization reflects the humanist emphasis on positive aspects of human nature. Maslow suggests that this is a continuous, lifelong process and only a small percentage of people actually achieve self-made status (Francis & Kritisson, 2006; Maslow, 1943). According to Maslow (1943), one must meet the lower level demand before addressing the higher occurring needs in the pyramid. So, for example, if someone is struggling to find enough food to meet his nutritional needs, it is quite unlikely that he will spend an in mode mode0 of time thinking about whether others view him as a good person or not. Instead, all his energy will be directed towards finding something to eat. However, it should be pointed out that Maslow's theory has been criticized for its subjective nature and its inability to account for phenomena occurring in the real world (Leonard, 1982). Other recent studies have mentioned that at the end of his life, Maslow proposed a degree of transcendental self-realization – to represent striving for meaning and purpose beyond his own concerns (Koltko-Rivera, 2006). For example, sometimes people sacrifice themselves to make a political statement or in an attempt to improve the conditions of others. Mohandas K. Gandhi, a world-renowned independence advocate through non-violent protests, has repeatedly went on a visa to protest a particular situation. People can starve themselves or put themselves in danger higher-level engines in addition to their own needs. Take a look at this interactive exercise that illustrates some of the concepts in Maslow's needs hierarchy. Review Maslow's demand hierarchy as well as other motivational theories in this Crash Course video. Think It Over How can you think of recent examples of Maslow's demand hierarchy that can influence your behavior in some way? How Mindset affects performance Imagine that you are a parent and your child has just brought home a report card from grade 4 which is really good. You look over it and feel proud of your son or daughter. With a wide smile on your face, you turn to your child and say: I am very proud of you! This report card is great! You \_\_\_\_\_Chũng hope you didn't choose jelly statement. Between the other two options, would you be more likely to be dimmed? It indicates that your choice may be important. Carol Dweck, now Professor of Psychology at Stanford University, has been studying the factors that drive or interfere with achievement since the 1970s. During this time, and especially since the mid-1990s, she realized that the way we deal with the world and especially our behavior in trying to achieve our own goals is influenced by what she calls the theory of self: the belief we have about the possibility, their own strengths and weaknesses, and potential. These self theories influence the decisions we make about what can be either reasonable or reasonable to make to achieve our goals. Before we discuss Carol Dweck's work, please answer a few questions about your own beliefs. Try to answer based on how you really think. The questions are a bit repetitive, but answer each one without involving your previous answer. Take the 8-question thinking test here or here Figure 1. Growth-minded people are optimistic about how the environment, experience, and attitudes can affect intelligence. Dr. Dweck and her colleagues used questions like the questions you just answered to organize people into groups based on their beliefs about intelligence (and other abilities and skills). She has found that people tend to adopt either general set of beliefs about intelligence. People with fixed thinking tend to think of intelligence as an element – something that is part of a person's essential nature. According to those who have this belief, intelligence does not change much no matter what we do or what we experience. Others have developmental thinking, and they tend to think of intelligence as in increasing – a quality that can change for better or worse depending on what we do and the experiences we have. Some people are strongly committed to one or the other end of the growth mindset scale compared to while others fall in the middle to varying degrees. Study 1: Mueller & Dweck (1998) If Professor Dweck is right, our thinking has a big impact on how we reach our potential in schools and in many other areas of our lives (for sports, music and business). But where do different thoughts come from? There may be many reasons that a person believes that intelligence is fixed or can change, but one that clearly influences how we think about ourselves is the messages we hear from adults as we grow older. Dweck and her university student Claudia Mueller want to see if they can influence children's thinking, if only for a short period of time, by giving different kinds of praise to children. Their starting point is that the idea is not surprising and well-established that praise is driving. When we do something and receive praise, we are more likely to want to do the same thing again. But Mueller and Dweck wonder if all the praise is equal. In particular, can some of the types of praise that parents and teachers often use really reduce a child's academic motivation and resilience when faced with challenges? Researchers recruited 128 fifth graders (70 girls and 58 boys between the ages of 10 and 12) to participate in their study. Before we go into the details of the first experiment, please get a feel for the task that the children had to perform. You will have one minute to solve as many problems below as possible. For each issue, you'll see a set of templates sorted by × 3. Each matrix has a missing item, and your task is to find the missing item based on the patterns that change in rows, columns, and diagonals. Before we start, here's a practice item. Matrix 3×3 at the top and the model at the bottom right is missing. Find out one of the eight patterns at the bottom, labeled 1 to 8, is the missing model. The problem-solving task you've just tried is based on a widely used psychological test called raven's Progress Matrix. Most people find the test challenging, requiring close attention to detail and careful logical thinking. Mueller and Dweck chose this task because it can be adjusted relatively easily or extremely difficult by changing the complexity of the models needed for the solution. The experiment has three stages, each based on a different set of matrix problems as the problems you worked on. Each child was examined one-on-one in another empty classroom by a research assistant. Stage 1: Pretest, Treatment, and MOTIVATION EVALUATION PRETEST The children were instructed and 10 problems which are quite easy to solve. At the end of 4 minutes, they were stopped and the research assistant scored their answer. On average, they attempted to answer 7.9 out of 10 questions, and the average number was 5.2. TREATMENT When you do something to manipulate an independent variable, that something you do (administer a pill, tell the participant something that could affect your etc.) called treatment. In this case, the treatment is the feedback that the child receives about his performance in the progressive matrix task. This treatment involves a little deception, because children receive randomly indicated feedback. In other words, regardless of the actual performance, the children heard one of three reports depending on random allocation for a treatment condition. First, every child is told: Wow, you've done very well on these issues. You have the right \_\_\_\_\_. It's a really high score. The minimum number of rights a child hears is 80%, obviously 51% higher than the actual average. If a child has more than 80% accuracy, the exact actual number has been used. The next step is based on the treatment condition that the child has been prescribed: Some children are praised for their ABILITIES: You must be smart about these problems.. Other children are praised for their efforts: You have to work these issues. The rest of the children are in critical condition. They did not receive any additional feedback, other than the general praise shown above. ASSESSMENT After receiving feedback and, for children under two conditions, additional praise, they were asked a series of questions. Experiments want to know if the success of children experienced in the first episode of the problem, along with the kind of praise, affects their choice of additional issues. They were told that they could get some more problems to solve and they were asked to pick up the difficulty of those issues. There are several options, but the choice has come down to this: Give me easy problems: The problem that I am quite good at, so I can show that I am smart. Give me challenging problems: Problems that I'll learn a lot from, even if I won't look very smart. The children were then told that there may be some time at the end of the session to work on the issues they had chosen, but the next issues they would work on were identified before the trial began. They have said this so that they will not solve the next issue set up as easy or challenging based on their choices. The results show that you are truly influenced by the praise you have received. The figure below shows the percentage of children who choose EASY issues, broken down by treatment conditions. Children who are praised for their intelligence (ability) are more likely to choose problems than those who are praised for working hard (hard). Controlled conditions, children were told they were doing well, but received no additional praise, were in between. Chart 2. The kind of praise given affects the types of problems students want to solve. This chart shows the number of students who choose easy issues after being praised. Stage 2: Negative feedback, and consequences of failure Next, the children tried to solve a new set of 10 matrix problems and again they had 4 minutes. On the surface, these problems look like the first episode, but they are significantly more difficult. After a 4-minute examination, the researchers scored the answers and, regardless of the actual performance, they told the children that they did poorly (much worse). No one was told that they had settled more than 50% correctly. In fact, this feedback is correct. The results showed that they found the problem difficult. On average, they tried 5.8 out of 10 problems and correctly solved only 1.8 of them. There was no significant difference in the number of issues resolved for the three groups (ability feedback, effort feedback, and unre feedback). CONSEQUENCES Now experiments want to know about the effect of failure on children's motivations (although the term failure was never used with children). Shortly after receiving the response, the children were asked a series of questions: How much do you want to bring these issues home to work with? [This is a measure of the task of perseverance] How much do you like working on the first set of problems? How much do you like working with the second set? How much fun are the problems? [The measured enjoying the task] Using a somewhat complex measure, the children were also asked to explain their difficulties with the second problem 4 characterized by a failure to be able to afford or lack of effort. This was done in such a way that they could explain their problems in the second set as partly due to low likelihood and a low effort. RESULTS How much do you want to take these issues home? They responded on a scale of 1 to 6, where higher numbers meant more interest in bringing issues home to practice. Chart 3. How praise affects students' desire to take matters home. Note statistics: the Ability group is significantly lower than the other two groups. There is no significant difference between the Control and Effort groups. How much fun are the problems? They answered on a scale of 1 to 6, where higher numbers meant more enjoying the problems. Chart 4. Tye's kind of praise given there was a small, but remarkable, impact on how much students enjoyed the problems. Note statistics: all three groups differ significantly. Why do you perform poorly on the second set of problems? The children expressed their own explanation for their poor performance using a somewhat complex procedure. It is not a simple possibility compared to choice efforts and they can allocate their failures in part to cause either (refer to the initial study for more details). Chart 5. When asked how many of their failures are due to low likelihood, praised for their ability to blame their own inability. When asked how many of their failures were due to low effort, those praised for the possibility did not blame their efforts, rather than their abilities. STAGE 3: POSTTEST For the final stage of the experiment, the children were given a new set of issues that are similarly difficult to set up first. The problem is moderately difficult, and children have 4 minutes to solve as much as possible. The figure below shows the change in the average number of problems between the pretest (Stage 1) and the posttest (Stage 3). Instructions: Click and drag the circle on the right (Posttest) to where you think they should reflect the results of the experiment. When you're done, click the link below to see the actual results. Click here to see the results. Mueller and Dweck's experiments show how a single comment to a child can have at least a temporary effect. It is unlikely that these kids are still affected by a comment that (You're Smart! or You've worked hard!) a day later or even an hour later. But at least for a short time in a controlled setting, the children seemed to be affected by what adult researchers told them. Why is this important? If a child constantly and constantly hears one type of encouragement or another, the child can receive that way of thinking. Then, as a teenager and then as an adult, an individual's thinking can determine how he or she approaches new opportunities for learning and intellectual development. Before you continue, we want you to create a psychological theory. This may sound like a strange thing to do, because the theories are often presented to you in textbooks as the final summary of some research. Sometimes that's true, but the main use of theories in scientific research is actually as a temporary summary and a change of a researcher's ideas. Use the figure below, which shows a sequence of influences that begin with either praise for effort or praise for ability, building a psychological theory. This is a psychological theory based on Dr. Dweck's idea, showing how two different thinking leads to different outcomes. What this theory says is that different types of praise encourage the child to focus on different goals. Praise for the effort tells the child that the learning process is important and the reward comes from trying hard. Praise for the ability to tell the child that performance comes from something mysterious inside you (intelligence or talent) rather than from what you do. In theory (and supported by results), children who are praised for their efforts can focus on the learning process, failures at difficult issues can be seen as a challenge – even something interesting and failure can motivate them. Children are praised for their intelligence, their efforts can not change, feel smart when they have easy problems, but difficult problems have led to a disturbing perception: maybe I do not have that magical ability. At stage 3 of the experiment, the children were insodrivn by difficult problems that solved the final episode of the problem, quite easily, with enthusiasm that led to success. The kids were encouraged by the disability failure themselves on the final episode of the problem, making it worse than they had at the beginning of the study. Next, let's read about a second study by Dweck's team, although this study is described in more concise and less detailed. Study 2 is not an experiment because there are no variable manipulations. This was a longitudinal study, which meant that similar participants (in this case children) were examined several times over a long period of time. Study 2: Blackwell, Trzesniewski, and Dweck (2007) In this study, Dweck and her colleagues managed a questionnaire on beliefs and attitudes toward some 7th graders in public schools, and then they tracked 373 students from early 7th to late 8th grade. This period, which marks the transition from primary to middle school, is considered a particularly exciting time because it is a challenging, even stressful time, for students and the learning style and attitudes of children can now have a significant impact on their academic achievement. Chart 6. Students with a growth mindset have demonstrated behavior that leads to better mathematical performance. At the beginning of the 7th academic year, students were tested on their thinking (levels of commitment to fixed thinking or growth), learning goals (priority for easy or challenging work), belief in effort (whether it tends to lead to improvement or not) , and attitudes about failure (whether it's motivating or discouraging). The researchers focused on students' math scores during two years of research. They choose mathematics because students tend to have strong beliefs about their skills (I am good at math or I am not a mathematics person), influenced by their thinking and because the level of mathematics can be examined and graded quite objectively. Although the study focused on mathematics, researchers were interested in any field of study or skill, not just mathematics. The figure below shows the average score of students with strong and fixed growth thinking based on the initial test. Students with mixed thinking are not included in this chart. At the end of the first semester, there is a very modest difference of less than two points in the math class. The trends for the two lines are obviously different. Students with fixed thinking (red salary) showed a slight decline in average scores over two years of study. Students with development mindset (green road) improved steadily over two years, with their average score rising nearly 3 points. Chart 7. The difference in math points between those with growth and fixed thinking. At the start of the study, the students - then just beginning the first semester of 7th grade - filled out a questionnaire table about their attitudes and beliefs about learning. The table below summarizes these differences. The reason for these questions is an important part of psychological learning. Thinking itself (fixed versus growing) does not cause better or worse performance. Thinking leads to behavior (the type of learning, reacting to failures) that in turn affects the quality of learning. The researchers found that children with growth thinking (related to THE praise in the first study) had a different attitude than fixed-minded children (related to THE PRAISE in the first study). The table below summarizes their findings. Fixed thinking growth Thinking Prioritizing difficulties at work Easy Success Belief in the value of effort Does not lead to improvement Leading to improved Attitudes about failure Preventing the promotion of the Table indicates that children with different thinking have found different types of experiences , with young growth thinking prefers challenging experiences, while those with fixed thinking prefer an easier learning experience that leads to easy success. The student development mindset believes that hard-working efforts lead to improvement, while those with fixed thinking tend to underestimate effort, citing that hard work is frustrating because we cannot do better than our talents or the innate ability that allows us to do. Ultimately, child developmental thinking finds hard work and not even an inspiration. They want to prove to themselves and others that they can do what is necessary to succeed. Fixed thoughts children tend to respond to difficulties and failures with boredom, ingesting that it simply reaffirms their own limitations. Takeaways Two studies we discussed are just two of dozens of research projects by Dweck and others that show how thinking is related to differences in achievement. In another study, Grant and Dweck (2003) tracked hundreds of college students taking a preparer organic chemistry course, as it was one of the most important and challenging courses for medical preparer students at most universities. Students with a better growth mindset than students with a fixed mindset, and two groups report differences in attitudes and beliefs similar to those shown in the table above. Thinking is just one factor influencing how we learn and how we deal with challenges. Whether you have a development mindset or a deliberate you can study hard and do well in school and in other areas. Here's a summary point from Carol Dweck: It should be noted that in Research... students have a fixed mindset but those who are well prepared and do not have difficulties can do well. However, when they encounter challenges or obstacles, they may be at a disadvantage. One last thing to remember is: you can change your mind. If you are often disabled yourself by your beliefs (I just don't have the talent for this) and attitudes about learning (I can't learn this), you can change those beliefs and attitudes. That change in mindset can be the difference between an effective response to challenges or avoiding those challenges. Remember that your beliefs and attitudes are the result of years of experience, so you won't change your mind overnight by simply making different decisions. You may have to work there. Especially, when you get stuck - a poor point in a test, an article that has some negative comments from your professor, or a reading exercise that confuses you - it's time that your thoughts can have a huge impact on what you do next. Don't let your thoughts stop you from recognizing your abilities or reaching your potential! Drive theory: deviations from homeostasis create psycho needs that lead to psychological drive states that act directly to meet demand and eventually bring the system back to external motivation homeostasis: motivation arising from external factors or inward motivation rewards : motivation based on inner emotions rather than external reward habits: patterns of behavior that we frequently engage in decentralized needs: universal needs varying from basic biological needs to social needs to self-actualization instincts: specific species behavior patterns that are unlearned motivations : want or need that behavior directly towards some self-effective goal: the individual's belief in his ability or capacity to complete a Yerkes-Dodson law task: simple tasks are best performed when the level of stimulation is relatively high, while complex tasks are best performed when stimulation is lower