

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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**Abstract:** Athletes spend their whole lives training to make it to the college level. However, many end up quitting before their senior year. This paper aims to understand motivational factors in college athletics to help curb this problem. Five separate factors were looked at: perceived ability, achievement, feedback, emotions, scholarships and their relation to motivation in sports. Research shows that higher perceived ability leads to better self-esteem and performance and task-oriented achievement gives athletes a better experience and leads to longer participation in their sport. Feedback, both positive and negative, can have a positive effect on players motivation and performance if it is not perceived as controlling. An athlete's perception of whether a scholarship validates their skill level or controls their level of participation is a factor that impacts motivation. Finally, all types of emotions can be utilized to improve performance in athletics. However, if the emotions negatively impact the athlete's actions, then performance is hindered. The final chapter of the paper lists major takeaways and some actionable recommendations that coaches, and athletic departments can implement in their programs.

**Keywords:** motivation, ability, achievement, feedback, emotions, scholarships, performance

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## Chapter 1

In the United States there are approximately 600,000 college athletes competing every year. 490,000 compete in the NCAA (“Student-Athletes”, n.d.), 65,000 at the NAIA level (“ABOUT THE NAIA”, 2016), and about 60,000 in the NJCAA (“Official Sponsors and Partners,” n.d.). Throughout the years, colleges have commercialized these student athletes and the focus on winning has increased. Many college athletes have spent a significant time commitment to training to enhance their skills with the hope of playing at the college level. However, the time, sacrifice, and effort athletes have put into achieving their goals have caused them to burnout, and many end up quitting every year. The shift into the commercialization of student athletes has created an environment where having a successful program takes precedence above everything else (Holmberg & Sheridan, 2013). Athletes must spend as much time, if not more, for their sport as they do for classes. They must schedule their classes in the morning so they can make it to practice in the afternoon. Most practices last at least two hours, and if athletes are injured, they need to go to the training room before and after practice for treatment. There are daily weights/conditioning workouts that happen either early in the morning before class or right after practice. Other requirements are team meetings, study hall, volunteering hours, and film sessions. The pressure put on student athletes causes many to quit every year. Research done at Brown University showed that around 30% of their student athletes quit before reaching their senior year (Shumate, 2016). Some reasons for quitting, like injuries, are unavoidable, but most can be helped by creating the right environment for the athletes. One way to do this is by keeping the athletes motivated. It is important for coaches and the athletic department to understand they are responsible for the physical and mental wellbeing of athletes and to know what best motivates their athletes to reach their goals. If they can create the proper motivational climate,

they will be able to get the most out of their players while keeping it fun (Tapps, Beck, Cho, & Volberding, 2013).

The purpose of this paper is to understand different ways coaches and athletic departments can keep college athletes motivated. Five factors of motivation; perceived ability, achievement, feedback, emotions, and scholarships were chosen to understand how they influence college athlete's motivation. To begin, I will break down the different kinds and levels of motivation and how they are related to sports. Then, I will discuss the importance of the self-determination theory and how it fits into motivation. Next, I present an overview of research findings based on the five antecedents and their effect on motivation. Finally, I list major takeaways from the research, actionable recommendations for coaches, and opportunities for future research.

## Chapter 2

### Motivation

Motivation is defined as “the hypothetical construct used to describe the internal and/or external forces that produce the initiation, direction, intensity, and persistence of behavior” (Vallerand, 2007). There are three types of motivation. The two main types of motivation are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and the third is amotivation. Intrinsic motivation is doing something for its own sake and the pleasure/satisfaction you get from participation. Intrinsic motivation can be broken down into three different types: intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish things, and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation (Vallerand, 2007).

Intrinsic motivation to know means engaging in an activity for the pleasure experienced while learning something new. An example is a wide receiver practicing because they enjoy learning new plays or routes to run. Intrinsic motivation to accomplish things is when pleasure is experienced while attempting to surpass oneself. An example is a track athlete going to practice trying to beat their personal best in the 100-meter dash. The final type, intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation, happens when someone does an activity because they enjoy the sensations experienced. Baseball and softball players who enjoy hitting because they like the feeling of the ball hitting the bat experience this kind of intrinsic motivation.

Extrinsic motivation is doing an activity as a means to an end. This means that someone chooses to do an activity because they want to receive some type of award or they experience an outside pressure. There are four types of extrinsic motivation: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation (Vallerand, 2007). External regulation



means someone's behavior is based on receiving rewards; for example, athletes going to practice so they can play in the game. During introjected regulation people start to internalize why they are doing something but experience pressure from themselves like guilt. An example is an athlete finishing all their reps during a workout because they would feel guilty if they did not. When experiencing identified regulation, people freely complete an activity even if they do not like it. This occurs when an athlete does not enjoy running but still does it because they know it will make them better. Finally, integrated regulation means someone makes a choice to keep all aspects of their self-balanced. An example is a basketball player going to bed early the night before a big game instead of hanging out with friends. Another type of motivation is amotivation. This happens when someone has no purpose to complete an activity hence, no motivation.

All three types of motivation can be experienced at three levels of generality: global, contextual, and situational. Motivation at the global level is when someone's intention is to interact with the environment around them. Motivation at the contextual level is a person's natural reaction to a specific context or activity. Finally, situational motivation is what is experienced during an activity at a certain moment (Vallerand, 2007). Creating optimal motivation in athletes is vital to have good physical and psychological health. Mouratidis, Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Sideridis (2008) define optimal motivation as "consisting of high quality and a high level of motivation". They stated high quality of motivation as having "self-endorsed and autonomous engagement in a physical activity" and a high level of motivation as "the extent one is motivated to put effort into such activities." Based on the self-determination theory, being in an environment that satisfies an individual's psychological needs will lead to optimal motivation (Mouratidis Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Sideridis, 2008).

**Self-Determination Theory.** Self-determination theory (SDT) is a motivation theory that covers issues like self-regulation, psychological needs, life goals, and the impact of culture and social environment on motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). It is used as a guide to understand the conditions that increase or decrease intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Mallett & Hanrahan, 2004). SDT states that the type or quality of motivation is more important in predicting outcomes than the total amount of motivation. It breaks down motivation into two distinct ideas: autonomous motivation and controlled motivation. Autonomous motivation covers intrinsic motivation and two of the four kinds of external motivation: identified and integrated regulation. Controlled motivation covers the other two types of external motivation: external and introjected regulation. When people are autonomously motivated, they feel a sense of self within their actions. In contrast, when they experience controlled motivation, they feel pressure to behave in a certain way. Past research has shown that autonomous motivation leads to greater psychological health, more effective performance, and long-term performance (Deci & Ryan, 2008). SDT states that humans have three major psychological needs to satisfy. They are self-determination, competence, and relatedness (Mallett & Hanrahan, 2004). These psychological needs represent the energy that someone will put into a certain behavior and why changes in a person's motivation occur. This means that people perform activities' in order to satisfy a need. When that need is met, they will be more motivated to continue performing the activity because they want to (autonomous motivation) not because they must (Vallerand, 2007). Looking into factors that satisfy a persons' psychological needs will show the influence they have on motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). This paper will investigate five factors: perceived ability, feedback, achievement, emotions, and scholarships in relation to how they motivate college athletes.

## **Perceived Ability**

Ability is defined as an individual's potential for achieving success in sport and factors that limit the skill level an individual can achieve. It is believed that a person's ability determines their potential for success in sports. In recent years, researchers have examined how people's beliefs about their ability affect their motivation and performance (Wulf & Lewthwaite, 2009). Harter's competence motivation theory states that individuals are more motivated to show they are competent in activities they believe to have a high ability in (Salguero, Gonzalez-Boto, Tuero, & Marquez, 2004). Based on this theory, a person's perception of their competence is an important factor in their motivation to participate. Those who believe they are competent in sports will be more motivated to continue playing. In contrast, when perceived competence is low, people are more likely to quit playing the sport. (Klint & Weiss, 1987). The feeling of competence or success can be conveyed in two ways. The first one is by establishing superiority over others. This is done by revealing a higher ability than peers or avoiding showing lower competence. Their success is based on comparing their result with those around them. The second way is by establishing personal progress. Success is based on improving ability and mastering a task (Cury, Biddle, Sarrazin, & Famose, 1997). Past research studies have used Harter's model of competence motivation to better understand why people participate in sports. Klint and Weiss (1987) looked at how people's perception of their competence related to their participation motives. Their participants were gymnasts between the ages of 8 and 16. They measured their motives for participation in gymnastics as well as their perceived competence in physical, social, and cognitive achievement. The results showed that competence-related motives and fitness-related motives were in the top ten reasons for participation. This study supports the competence motivation theory by showing that those who have higher perceived competence are

more motivated to participate and show their competence (Klint & Weiss, 1987). Roberts, Kleiber, and Duda (1981) studied the relationship between sport participation and perceived competence. They believed that children who participate in sports have higher perceived competence and a greater willingness to continue playing the sport. The researchers used Harter's (1982) Perceived Competence Scale for Children (Klint & Weiss, 1987) to measure cognitive competence, social competence, physical competence, and general sense of worth. They also conducted interviews to group the children into participants and nonparticipants as well as measure their sense of ability, expectations of success/failure, and willingness to continue playing. The results support the competence motivation theory. Children who participated in sports had much higher perceived physical competence than those who did not participate, and those with a high sense of perceived ability had higher expectations to do well and continue playing longer (Klint & Weiss, 1987). Ryckman (1982) studied individuals' perceived competence of physical skills and how they related to their confidence in performing those skills. Results showed that those with high perceptions of physical ability had higher self-esteem and perceived control of outcomes and scored low on self-consciousness and anxiety. Also, participants with higher perceived competence performed better in physical skills than those who had lower competence levels. (Ryckman, 1982). A study by Salguero (2004) looked at the relationship between participating motives and perceived physical ability in swimmers and whether their perceived competence had an effect on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Each athlete filled out a questionnaire about their motives and perceived ability. They found that in all cases, swimmers with high perceived physical ability had motivational components significantly higher than those with medium/low perceived physical ability (Salguero, Gonzalez-Boto, Tuero, & Marquez, 2004).

Perceived ability can also impact how well new information is learned. Research by Wulf and Lewthwaite (2009) looked at the effects of induced conceptions of ability on learning. Participants were put into an inherent ability, acquirable skill, or control group depending on the instructions given to them. Individuals in the inherent ability group were led to believe that balance was based on people's natural ability, while those in the acquirable skill group were told that balance is a learnable skill. They were then required to perform a balance test on a stabilometer. The results showed that learning can be affected by the conception of ability. Individuals in the inherent ability group showed less learning than those in the acquirable skill group. Having a higher sense of perceived ability increases performance which increases motivation to continue performing (Wulf & Lewthwaite, 2009).

### **Achievement**

Achievement Goal Theory states that when working towards achievement, the goal of the individual depends on situational factors and a predisposition to a certain motivation orientation. The predisposition is based on socialization experiences in their sport (Cury, Biddle, Sarrazin, & Famose, 1997). The motivational orientations can be broken down in ability-oriented motivation (ego-oriented), task-oriented motivation, and social approval-oriented motivation. Ego-oriented motivation occurs when success is thought to be superiority over others (Hardwood & Biddle, 2002). Someone who is ego-oriented shows ability by being successful with minimal effort and being better than others (Treasure & Roberts, 1995). The goal of task-oriented motivation is to complete an activity for its own sake rather than showing ability (Hardwood & Biddle, 2002). Task-oriented people focus on developing/learning new skills and demonstrating mastery of those skills (Treasure & Roberts, 1995). Finally, social approval-oriented motivation is conforming to norms. Social approval-oriented motivation is researched less in sport psychology

than the other two. The two main goals researched, task and ego, are based on how people define competence (Hardwood & Biddle, 2002). This means the choice of task, difficulty, effort given, perseverance, and search for information all depend on the interaction between the goal pursued and perception of competence (Cury, Biddle, Sarrazin, & Famose, 1997). Treasure and Roberts (1995) thought that manipulating the structure of the physical education context to be either task or ego focused would affect motivation climate in children. They found that the kids in the task condition had task-involving motivation and those in the ego condition had ego-involving motivation. This shows that writing down task goals increases motivation to learn a specific skill and writing down ego goals increases motivation to outperform others. Writing down achievement goals will help increase motivation to get to the desired outcome (Treasure & Roberts, 1995). Another study by Fry and Newton (2003) examined the relationship between motivational responses of tennis players and their goal orientations/perceptions of motivational climate. Each participant filled out a survey that measured goal orientations, perceived motivational climate, sportsmanship attitudes, and feelings about tennis, their instructor, and other players. The players who perceived their environment as task-oriented had better attitudes towards their instructor and other players. The opposite was found regarding ego-oriented environments. These results show that when an environment is thought to be task-oriented, players have more worthwhile experiences. They have better social and moral development and will be more likely to participate for a longer period of time (Fry & Newton, 2003).

## **Feedback**

Feedback can be defined as “information conveyed to athletes about the extent to which their behaviors and performance correspond to expectations” (Carpentier & Mageau, 2013). Positive feedback (promotion-oriented) tries to confirm and reinforce wanted behaviors, while

negative feedback (change-oriented) points out behaviors that need to be changed and poor performance (Carpentier & Mageau, 2013). Kluger and DeNisi (1996) proposed the Feedback Intervention Theory to describe how behavior is impacted by the relationship of feedback and goals. When behaviors do not match a goal, there is an adjustment to that behavior in order to reach the end goal. They stated that goals are organized into task-learning goals, task-motivation goals, and meta-task processes. Within this theory, it is believed that negative feedback can be effective when trying to increase performance because it shows the gap between the behavior and goal. Positive feedback influences behavior because of the need for satisfaction. It provides affirmation of competence, feelings of autonomy, and desire to increase goals which can increase performance (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Krenn, Wurth, and Hergovich (2013) studied how the use of positive and negative feedback influenced task-motivation processes: performance and goal setting. Participants in the negative feedback group were told they scored way below average on a selective attention task and individuals in the positive feedback group were told they scored way above average. After the task was performed and feedback was given, they were able to either stay at the same difficulty level, raise the difficulty level, or stop participating. They found that after receiving positive feedback, participants raised the difficulty level more often than those who received negative feedback. However, no difference was found in the level of performance for each group (Krenn, Wurth, & Hergovich, 2013).

Along with positive and negative feedback, there are three different types of feedback: descriptive, comparative, and evaluative. Descriptive feedback sums up someone's attitude or behavior by using their input or observation. Comparative feedback provides information based on a comparison to others. And finally, evaluative feedback uses judgement to describe performance.

A study by Burgers, Eden, Engelenburg, & Buningh (2015) looked at the two levels of feedback: positive and negative, and the three types: descriptive, comparative, and evaluative to understand the impact feedback has on intrinsic motivation and future play. Like the previous study, after the participants finished a task, they were given feedback dependent on what group they were in. In the descriptive group, they were told they either finished the game faster (positive) or slower (negative) than the average time. Participants in the evaluative group were told their time was excellent (positive) or poor (negative). And the comparative group were told if they finished faster (positive) or slower (negative) than their peers. They found that both positive and negative feedback can enhance willingness to continue playing. When receiving negative feedback, participants felt less competent and wanted to fix their mistakes, and while receiving positive feedback, they felt more competent and had a high desire to continue. Regarding the type of feedback used, evaluative feedback increased the desire to play the game again while comparative feedback decreased it (Burgers, Eden, Engelenburg, & Buningh, 2015). Other research has shown that positive feedback, compared to no feedback, created higher enjoyment, more free choice, and greater interest in doing an activity. Similarly, strong positive feedback positively affected intrinsic motivation by increasing perceptions of competence (Mouratidis, Vansteenkiste, Lens & Sideridis, 2008). A study by Vallerand and Reid (1988) looked at how positive and negative feedback affected the motivation in males and females. Each participant performed a balance test while receiving either positive or negative feedback then filled out a questionnaire measuring intrinsic motivation. Their results showed no differences between genders but did show that intrinsic motivation was higher for those who received positive feedback (Vallerand & Reid, 1988).



Regardless of what kind of feedback is being used, if it is not perceived as sincere it can have negative effects on the recipient (Vallerand, 2007). Research by Stein, Bloom, and Sabiston (2012) examined athletes' perceptions of feedback from their coach and the relationship between preferred/perceived feedback and the motivational climate of the team. The results showed that when preferred feedback and perceived feedback did not match there were effects on the motivational climate of the team (Stein, Bloom, & Sabiston, 2012). How the feedback is delivered is also extremely important. Feedback (positive and negative) must be seen as sincere by the athletes. Controlling statements undermine intrinsic motivation while supportive statements enhance it (Vallerand, 2007). Controlling positive feedback has been shown to decrease intrinsic motivation and free choice behavior compared to informational positive feedback (Mouratidis, Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Sideridis, 2008). There has also been evidence showing that where the feedback is directed influences athletes. An external focus of attention increases learning of skills. Research has shown that feedback is more effective when directing performer's attention to the effects of their movements rather than on their own movements. This means that rather than having an athlete focus on their arms while swinging a bat, have them focus on the bat and how it is supposed to move (Wulf, McConnel, Gartner, & Schwartz, 2002).

## **Emotions**

An emotion is defined as "a reaction to a stimulus event. It involves a change in the viscera and musculature of the person, is experienced subjectively in characteristic ways, is expressed through such means as facial changes and action tendencies and may mediate and energize subsequent behaviors" (McCarthy, 2001). Many emotions like anxiety, frustration, disappointment, happiness, hope, and anger have been researched and observed in sport, but research on anxiety has been done the most by far (Woodman, Davis, Hardy, Callow, Glasscock,

& Yuill-Proctor, 2009). Understanding how emotions influence athletes can help understand how to increase motivation and performance (McCarthy, 2001). The cognitive-motivational-relational (CMR) theory states that an athletes' emotions are guided by the interaction between the person and their environment. Based on this theory it is thought that emotions can influence performance depending on the relationship between the athlete and situation. This means that if an athlete experiences anger during a game this emotion can negatively affect their performance if it takes away resources needed for the task. However, anger could enhance performance if the task requires a "lashing out" motion at the opponent. Research by Woodman, Davis, Hardy, Callow, Glasscock, and Yuill-Proctor (2009) investigated the relationship between emotion and performance based on the CMR theory. They began by exploring how anger and happiness affect performance of a physical and cognitive task. Recorded tapes were played to elicit emotions of either happiness or anger and those emotions were measured with a happiness and anger questionnaire. They found that performance on the physical task was higher when experiencing anger. This supports the thought that anger can increase performance when the skill requires a "lashing out" to perform. Happiness had no effect on cognitive performance. Next, they studied how hope influences increased performance. The results showed that participants experiencing hope had greater effort and performance. The anger condition showed a significant increase in effort, but performance did not increase (Woodman, Davis, Hardy, Callow, Glasscock, & Yuill-Proctor, 2009). A study by Totterdell (2000) investigated how emotions and performance of individuals were related to the emotions of the team. Participants were two cricket teams during a championship series. Each player was to self-report their emotions and performance throughout the day. The results showed that feelings of happiness were related to the happy mood of the whole team, performance of individual players were positively affected by individual feelings of

happiness as well as the team, and feelings of happiness were positively related to individual's batting average (Totterdell, 2000). Past research has shown the importance of SDT's motivational continuum and that less self-determined actions like external and internal regulation are related to higher levels of anxiety, inattentiveness, and negative moods in athletes (Medic, Mack, Wilson, & Starkes, 2007). One positive emotion that has received a lot of attention in sport psychology is sport enjoyment. Sport enjoyment is defined as "a positive affective response to the sport experience that reflects generalized feelings such as pleasure, liking, and fun" (McCarthy, 2001). Research by McCarthy and Jones (2007) studied the progression of sport enjoyment and nonenjoyment during youth sports. They used a focus group interview to understand the experiences, attitudes, and perceptions of the participants. Results from the interviews showed that children participating in youth sports experience enjoyment from intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in both achievement and non-achievement settings (McCarthy & Jones, 2007).

### **Scholarships**

A scholarship is a method by which tuition, room and board, books, and any other necessary goods are provided to the athlete in return for his/her services as an athlete. Scholarships give athletes more time for practice and school since they don't have to worry about getting a job. However, this can lead to athletes feeling controlled and that they must perform to stay on the team which can have negative effects on intrinsic motivation (Vallerand, 2007). Early research found that receiving rewards negatively affected free choice behaviors which decreases a person's intrinsic motivation. Offering rewards for participation in an activity someone already enjoys decreases intrinsic motivation because they end up connecting their participation with the reward instead of the feeling of joy. Intrinsic motivation can also be

decreased with the use of rewards because people feel like their behavior is being controlled with the reward (Medic, Mack, Wilson, & Starkes, 2007). Laboratory experiments found that rewards that are given based on engaging or finishing an activity all decrease intrinsic motivation, whereas rewards that are not expected or related to a task do not affect intrinsic motivation. Experiments regarding athletes who participate in sports where they receive a trophy or reward show decreased situational intrinsic motivation (Vallerand, 2007). Past research has been mixed in relation to scholarship's effect on motivation. This can be explained by the cognitive evaluation theory. This theory states that awards/rewards given to an individual can either enhance or undermine their intrinsic motivation. When the award is given to show the individual's competence it can enhance motivation. If it is perceived as controlling their behavior, intrinsic motivation is undermined. Amorose and Horn (2000) tested how intrinsic motivation varied as a result of gender, scholarship status, and perception of teammates scholarships.

Results showed no difference in intrinsic motivation between scholarship and non-scholarship athletes and full scholarship athletes scored higher in perceived competence than non-scholarship athletes. These results show that scholarships may enhance motivation by giving positive feedback about athletes' competence levels (Amorose & Horn, 2000). Another study by Amorose and Horn (2001) examined if intrinsic motivation changed from pre to post season based on scholarship status. Results showed no differences in intrinsic motivation between scholarship and nonscholarship athletes or pre to post season measures (Amorose and Horn, 2001). The study by Medic, Mack, Wilson & Starkes (2007) showed that motivational differences depended on scholarship status and gender. Scholarships affected the motivation for performance in the male basketball players the most. This shows that extrinsic factors and

internal pressures can have considerable motivational influence on performance. They also found that internal motivation decreased in non-scholarship when asked how they would feel if scholarships became available. These findings show that scholarships influence athlete's behaviors, but they do not necessarily have an effect as motivational incentives (Medic, Mack, Wilson, & Starke, 2007).

### Chapter 3

Every college athlete has certain needs that must be met in order to stay motivated to perform. It is the job of coaches and athletic departments to understand these needs to create the proper motivational climate for their athletes.

Competence Motivation Theory states that people are more motivated to show competence in activities they think they have high ability in (Salguero, Gonzalez-Boto, Tuero, & Marquez, 2004). Ryckman (1982) found that high perceptions of ability lead to greater feelings of self-esteem and better performance in physical skills (Ryckman, 1982). If coaches can foster feelings of high ability in their athletes, performance levels and motivation will increase. To understand how coaches can do this we can look at a study by Wulf and Lewthwaite (2009). They found that individuals learned more when they were led to believe a skill was acquirable compared to inherent (Wulf & Lewthwaite, 2009). If coaches can give instructions in a way that shows every skill is learnable, their athletes will learn more, which will increase their feelings of ability.

Achievement Goal Theory states that goals depend on situational factors and motivational climate (Cury, Biddle, Sarrazin, & Famose, 1997). When a motivational climate is ego-oriented, individuals relate success to being better than others Task-oriented motivation focuses on developing and learning new skills (Treasure & Roberts, 1995). Fry and Newton (2003) found that when an environment is more task-oriented, players have a more worthwhile experience, better social and moral development, and are more likely to participate longer (Fry & Newton, 2003). Another study by Treasure and Roberts (1995) found that manipulating the environment to be either ego or task oriented affected the motivational climate in children (Treasure & Roberts, 1995). Using the ideas of this research, if coaches can make the practice

environment more focused on learning and developing skills, their players will develop task-oriented motivation and have a better experience in the program.

In some cases, it is not about what information is given to the athletes but how that information is perceived. Past research on feedback has shown that both positive and negative feedback can have a positive effect on motivation and performance. Negative feedback can show a gap between the behavior and desired goals and positive feedback can provide feelings of competence and a desire to increase goals (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Multiple research studies show that how feedback is delivered is extremely important. Athletes must feel that the feedback given by their coaches is sincere. When feedback is perceived to be controlling, intrinsic motivation is undermined, while supportive and informational statements enhance it (Vallerand, 2007). Stein, Bloom, and Sabiston (2012) suggest that coaches learn their athlete's feedback preferences and match their feedback style to those preferences (Stein, Bloom, & Sabiston, 2012). Similar methods can be used when dealing with scholarships. Scholarships are a useful tool in sports that allow athletes to spend more time practicing their sport or working on school without having to find time for a job. Past research has been mixed when looking at how scholarships effect motivation in athletes. However, research has shown that how an award/reward are perceived by an athlete can affect motivation. If an award is given to show competence, it can enhance motivation, but if it is perceived as controlling or based on performance, it can undermine motivation (Amorose & Horn, 2000). When coaches and athletic departments give out scholarships, they should portray to the athlete that they are based on past skills/competence shown.

If coaches understand how emotions affect their athletes, they can help increase motivation and performance. The Cognitive Motivational Relational Theory states that athletes'

emotions are influenced by the relationship between the player and their environment. Emotions impact performance depending on the situation regardless if they are negative or positive. This means that emotions could negatively affect performance if they take away resources needed to perform the task or enhance performance if they add resources needed (Woodman, Davis, Hardy, Callow, Glasscock, & Yuill-Proctor, 2009). For example, a football player that feels a little bit of anger during a game could find the emotion beneficial when needing to tackle the opponent, but a kicker feeling anger could negatively impact their performance when trying to kick a field goal. This will be different for every sport, and coaches need to help bring out the desired emotions that will be most beneficial for their specific sport.

Future research in this area could expand and look at these factors in the field. The current paper only looked at past research to understand each area of motivation. Surveying players who are actively playing in college will show how each area affects motivation in current players and teams. It could also demonstrate how they interact with each other in a real-world setting. Another area for future research is looking at other factors of motivation. The current paper only chose a few of the many ways athletes are motivated daily.



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Exploring Effective Motivating Factors for College Athletes