

QUALITATIVE EXAMINATION OF ATHLETES' SOURCES OF MOTIVATION TO
PARTICIPATE IN A COMPETITIVE ENVIRONMENT USING GROUNDED
THEORY

By

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Abstract of Thesis Presented to the Graduate School
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How athletes are motivated is a question that has been explored since the infancy of sport psychology. However, most of the current theories of sport motivation have been adopted from other areas of psychology. We examined the predominant theories of sport motivation including cognitive evaluation theory, self-determination theory, the hierarchical model of motivation achievement goal theory . We also examined studies that have tested these theoretical frameworks are discussed. The sport psychology literature needs more information on what motivates athletes and on new theories that explain the motivation of athletes.

Therefore, the purpose of my study was to use grounded theory analytic procedures to explore and assess National Collegiate Athletic Association athletes' and club athletes' sources of motivation to participate in sport. A secondary purpose was to explore and assess the participants' sources of motivation to compete in sport. Finally, a grounded theory was inductively developed to explain how contextual features of the sport

environment influenced the participants' thoughts, feelings, and behaviors toward their sport participation. We used this grounded theory to organize the participants' sources of sport motivation which were influenced by environmental opportunities and significant others such as coaches and family members.

Semi-structured interviews we conducted with 7 male and 7 female athletes who participated in N.C.A.A. Division I/ collegiate athletics, or club-level sports. The interviews were analyzed using grounded-theory analytic procedures. Results produced two major overarching sources of motivation; internal and external. Higher order themes that emerged as internal sources of motivation were goals, anger, and sport as an outlet for stress and aggression. The higher order themes that were defined as external sources of motivation were family, friends, team aspects of sport, coaches, pressure and high expectations, benefits of participation, competition, and pre-competition motivators. All of these themes were organized into a theoretical framework that helped define relationships among the sources of motivation.

Finally we derived a grounded theory showing athletes' sources of motivation to participate in sport from a developmental perspective was produced. Our findings support ideas from the extant literature, however there were some contradictions. Athletes in my study were found to have more external sources of motivation, including competition, a factor that decreases motivation. Sources of motivation also differed for athletes at the two competitive levels.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Michael Jordan built a reputation as one of the most complete players in professional basketball. Yet at age 39, he was still playing in the NBA (Clarkson, 1999). He played through injury and sickness and even scored 69 points in a game in which he suffered severe symptoms from the flu. With little left to accomplish in the game of basketball, and at the risk of tarnishing his stellar career, his motivation to play the sport he loved did not dwindle. Any account of Michael Jordan's tremendous career is incomplete without mention of his ferocious competitive spirit. Teammates and opponents alike testify to his tireless, almost manic, drive to win on or off the court.

Instances of athletes who physically and mentally push themselves to the brink of their human potential in the name of competition are common. Over the past 60 years, the type of drive that enables a person to excel in the face of adversity, or propels him or her to overcome performance obstacles has been extensively debated and analyzed in a large number of research studies (Deci, 1972; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Freud, 1969; Vallerand, 1997; White, 1959). While manifested in many forms, motivation has been loosely defined as an internal or external force that causes a specific behavior to occur and persist (Vallerand & Thill, 1993). My study focused on the motivational forces that sustain long-term participation in competitive sport and physical activity settings.

We reviewed the literature to summarize research progress in the area of motivation. We specifically examined cognitive evaluation theory (Deci, 1972), self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), the Hierarchical model of motivation

(Vallerand, 1997), Achievement goal theory (Nicholls, 1984, 1989) and studies that have tested these theoretical frameworks. We also examined measurement issues in current research (Harwood, 2002; Petruzzello, 2001), a push within the field to expand acceptable methods for knowledge construction (Hoshand & Polkinghorn, 1992; Martens, 1987), and current debates on theories of motivation (Harwood & Hardy, 2001; Harwood, Hardy, & Swain, 2000; Treasure et al., 2001).

Glossary of Terms

We developed a list of terms and definitions used in our study. These terms are used throughout the remainder of this thesis.

- Axial coding: The process of relating categories to their subcategories, termed “axial” because coding occurs around the axis of a category, linking categories at the level of properties and dimensions (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).
- Coding: The analytic processes through which data are fractured, conceptualized, and integrated to form theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).
- Dimensionalizing: The process of organizing data to better understand the relationships and characteristics within and among higher-order themes and categories (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).
- Grounded theory: Theory that was derived from data taken directly from participant interviews. The data are analyzed and organized into a framework that explains relationships between major and minor themes in the text (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).
- Open coding: The analytic process through which concepts are identified and their properties and dimensions are discovered in the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).
- Qualitative research: Any type of research that produces findings not arrived at by statistical procedures or other means of quantification (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).
- Theoretical sampling: Sampling on the basis of emerging concepts, with the aim being to explore the dimensional range or varied conditions along which the properties of concepts vary (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Early History of Theories on Motivation

Research on the topic of motivation progressed from two separate schools of thought in general psychology. The first (psychoanalytic instinct theory) was proposed by Freud (1969) who held a mechanistic view of individuals. According to Freud (1969), people play a passive role in their interaction with the environment, and are guided by basic instincts (e.g., hunger, thirst). In a second conceptualization of motivation framed by White (1959), people were portrayed as active members in constant interaction with their surroundings. White (1959) said that individuals were propelled by instinct to act, and also guided by a natural curiosity and propensity to learn and explore, which he labeled competence. The idea of an internally fueled cognitive tendency toward discovery led to the concept of intrinsic motivation (White, 1959).

Intrinsic motivation involves the performance of an activity for the enjoyment and fulfillment derived solely from participation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Ryan and Deci (2000) consider intrinsic motivation an idealistic manifestation of the human propensity toward learning and creativity. Simply stated, an intrinsically motivated athlete plays purely for the joy of the game. An individual's enjoyment (which contributes to the maintenance of intrinsic motivation) is contingent solely on participation in the activity. Intrinsic motivation is self-sufficient; therefore if one participates in an activity for intrinsic reasons one is inclined toward further participation. Continued participation in turn increases intrinsic motivation to participate in the activity (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Intrinsic motivation is considered the most beneficial type of motivation because of an individual's internal locus of control. When motives for participation are fully integrated into the value system of an individual (intrinsic motivation), that person is likely to put

forth greater effort for longer periods of time (Ryan & Connell, 1989). These actions are positive bi-products of an individual being internally motivated.

Research in a broad spectrum of contexts has explored the dimensions of intrinsic motivation. Fields such as psychology, business, and education linked this internal driving force to a variety of positive behaviors. For example, Lawler and Hall (1970) tested laboratory scientists' job-involvement attitudes, higher-order-need satisfaction attitudes, and intrinsic motivation attitudes. Results linked intrinsically motivated attitudes with characteristics such as prolonged effort and increased performance. Also in the business context, a study by Meir (1972) investigated job persistence of women in Israel according to the fulfillment of intrinsic and extrinsic needs. Fulfillment of intrinsic needs was highly correlated with persistence in a single occupation.

Creativity is another positive factor associated with high levels of intrinsic motivation. A study by Krop (1969) compared the creativity of college students categorized as high, medium, and low in intrinsic motivation. High intrinsic motivation was closely correlated to high levels of creativity. Moneta and Siu (2002) found a greater propensity for creativity while engaged in a writing task for students high in intrinsic motivation than for students more extrinsically focused.

Intrinsic motivation has also been linked to elevated performance and productivity. A study by Yip and Chung (2002) identified significantly higher levels of trait intrinsic motivation in high academic achievers when compared to the dispositions of their lower achievement counterparts. Conversely, Struman and Thibodeau (2001) found a positive correlation between decreased intrinsic motivation and decreased performance in free agent baseball players.

Finally, feelings of satisfaction were observed to be indicative of community volunteers who displayed high levels of intrinsic motivation in a longitudinal study by Davis, Hall, and Meyer (2003). Likewise, Hirschfeld (2000) found correlations in job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation while testing a revised version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, & England, 1967). The research listed above, gives further credence to a view of intrinsic motivation as an ideal driving force behind activities.

Expanding on the ideas put forth by Freud (1969) and White (1959), Deci (1972) completed experiments on motivation that analyzed the affects of the extrinsic rewards (i.e., money and positive feedback) on intrinsic motivation. The results of those experiments demonstrated a decrease in intrinsic motivation when a monetary (external) reward was tied to an activity. In contrast, when positive reinforcement was applied in the form of verbal feedback, intrinsic motivation increased. In light of these findings, Deci (1972) was inclined to propose an alternative perspective than that of either White (1959), or Freud (1969). Guided by the empirical data gathered from his own study, Deci (1972) ushered in a new theoretical framework structured around a cognitive approach. The new theory, called Cognitive Evaluation theory, focused on the nature and type of the extrinsic reward as predictors of intrinsic motivation. Included in Cognitive Evaluation theory was ideas about the nature of intrinsic motivation and conditions in which intrinsic motivation would flourish and diminish. The focus of this review will now turn to more cognitively oriented theories of motivation.

Cognitive Evaluation Theory

Cognitive Evaluation theory (Deci, 1972) advanced motivation research in two ways. First, Cognitive Evaluation theory identified factors and conditions such as task

non-contingent rewards, task contingent rewards, performance contingent rewards, and competitively contingent rewards that affect intrinsic motivation. The second innovation was the ability of the theory to predict and describe how an individual's interpretation of these factors would affect motivation.

The first major tenet of Cognitive Evaluation theory describes four types of contingent rewards that affect intrinsic motivation (Ryan, Mims, & Koestner, 1983). The first, task non-contingent rewards, are received for participating in an activity, independent of performance. For instance, a puzzle solving activity in which everyone gets a dollar simply for participating would be considered a task non-contingent reward.

A second type of reward, task contingent, refers to rewards received for completing a task. It is important to note that payment of a task contingent reward does not take into account the quality of completion. Building on the previous example, a contingent reward would be receiving a dollar only after the puzzle was completed not simply attempted (Deci, 1972).

A reward given when a specified level of achievement is met would be considered a performance contingent reward. Giving a two-dollar prize for each puzzle completed within a designated time frame would be an example of a performance contingent reward. This type of reward varies in size depending on the success of the participant. Success and competence can easily be assessed through the comparison to norms or set standards through this type of award system (Ryan et al., 1983).

The final type of contingent reward was defined as a competitively contingent reward. Also called a zero-sum reward, this form of compensation is dependent on winning while in direct competition with other participants. For instance, receiving five

dollars for being the first competitor to successfully complete four puzzles would be considered a competitively contingent reward (Pritchard, Campbell, & Campbell, 1977).

The second major conceptual component of Cognitive Evaluation theory involves the explanation of the cognitive processes, which determine the impact of the previously outlined reward scenarios on intrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan (1980) coined the terms informational or controlling to describe the two ways a reward can be interpreted. Any award or communication that is construed as feedback indicative of competence would be considered informational and thus lead to feelings of intrinsic motivation. Conversely, rewards identified as controlling cause feelings of external pressure to act or perform to meet outside expectations and lead to decrements in intrinsic motivation. An example of how a reward can be interpreted as either informational or controlling might be an athlete who is elected captain of the volleyball team. An award of this nature could be construed by the athlete to mean that she possesses leadership qualities worthy of respect from teammates and coaches (e.g., competence). In this case, the player may feel encouraged to continue or step up effort. However, the athlete might feel that the role of team captain has been forced upon her meaning that she must now conform to others' expectations about what a team captain should be (e.g., controlling). Interpreting the situation in this way could cause decreases in the athlete's motivation to work hard and display leadership. From a cognitive evaluation theory perspective there are clear individual differences in how individuals perceive and interpret rewards and information about their performance and/or competence.

There have been numerous studies that have examined the relationship between contingent rewards and intrinsic motivation. For example, Ryan, Mims, and Koestner

(1983) examined the relationship between informational and controlling performance-contingent rewards of college psychology students (N=96) on hidden figure puzzles. Results from the experiment revealed that performance-contingent rewards undermine intrinsic motivation when contrasted to the control group (no feedback/ no reward). The data also lent support for the hypothesis predicting controlling feedback and controlling rewards would deplete intrinsic motivation when compared to informational feedback and rewards. A third significant finding was that informationally transmitted feedback and rewards enhanced intrinsic motivation, while controlling and task-contingent rewards did not increase intrinsic motivation. The key finding of this study was that an individuals' interpretation of rewards predicted whether that reward would undermine, or enhance intrinsic motivation.

Strong empirical support for many aspects of Cognitive Evaluation theory has influenced research in a variety of areas of psychology. Leadership (Charbanneau, Barling, & Kelloway, 2001), coaching style (Goudas, Biddle, Fox, & Underwood, 1995; Gould, Hodge, Peterson, & Giannini, 1989), education and teaching style (Black & Deci, 2000; Flink, Goggiano, & Barrett, 1990; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987), physical activity (Kavussanu & Roberts, 1996), and sport (Alexandris, Tsorbatzoudis, & Grouios, 2002; Baric, Erpic, & Babic, 2002) have all adapted Cognitive Evaluation theory into their frame of reference.

The broad range of research mentioned above has provided support for the nature of intrinsic motivation outlined in Cognitive Evaluation theory (Deci, 1972). The role that intrinsic motivation and competition play within the context of sport and physical activity represents an important area of interest within the field of sport psychology. One

study by Vallerand, Gauvin, and Halliwell (1986) lends strong support to Cognitive Evaluation theory by showing competition to be detrimental to intrinsic motivation as well as competence. Vallerand et al. (1986) examined the effects of competition on the intrinsic motivation and competence of 5th and 6th grade Canadian boys ($N = 26$). Participants were randomly selected into conditions of winning or losing a contrived competition. The participants were then tested on a stabilometer motor task. Each participant was told that their times were being compared to other children their age and if their overall time was better than the preexisting best score they would receive a reward of one dollar. One group of participants was told that they achieved the best score (winning) and were rewarded with the dollar. The second group of children was told their times were not better than the established best score (losing) and did not receive the dollar. The experimenter then left the room and the children were told that they could spend time however they wanted (a “free choice period”). Measures of intrinsic motivation were two fold. First, intrinsic motivation was measured by how much time was spent on the stabilometer during the “free choice period.” The second measure of intrinsic motivation was an initial choice measure in which the students were observed to see if they went to the stabilometer first, or did other things first. Competence was measured using the Perceived Competence Scale (PCS; Harter, 1982). Results revealed that the winning group had a higher score on the initial choice measurement, and spent significantly more time engaged in the stabilometer task during the free choice period. Both of these measures supported the hypothesis that the winning group would be more intrinsically motivated than the losing group. Data analysis from the PCS also indicated the losing group perceived themselves as less competent than the winning group.

Cognitive Evaluation theory contributed valuable insight about the role perceptions of rewards play in establishing and maintaining intrinsic motivation. However, ideas put forth by Deci (1972) could not account for extrinsic motives for participation. For instance, a basketball player who plays on the team because of pressure from his father has motives that extend outside of his pure enjoyment of the game. In light of this need to expand the limited scope of Cognitive Evaluation theory, Deci and Ryan (1985) introduced Self-determination theory, which viewed motivation as a multidimensional construct.

Self-Determination Theory

Building upon previous research, Deci and Ryan (1985) outlined Self-determination theory, a two-part theory, which incorporated the ideas posited by Cognitive Evaluation theory. The purpose behind the Self-determination theory framework was two fold. First, was the necessity to develop a cognitive behavioral theory that took into account individual's motives derived from external as well as internal sources. The second reason arose from the need to understand in more depth the cognitive processes that mediated individual's interpretation of the environment. Therefore, Self-determination theory made two major advancements beyond Cognitive Evaluation theory. The first was the recognition of three distinct types of motivation: intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation. The relationship between these three types of motivation was predicted to exist along a continuum. The second advancement was to identify the fulfillment of three needs, namely competence, autonomy, and relatedness, as important predictors of motivation. These two advancements will be elaborated on below.

The construct of motivation possesses such an array of meaning that having a theory that encompasses a multitude of aspects was paramount. The introduction of Self-determination theory not only explained intrinsically motivated actions, but also accounted for motives that lay outside the individual's own value system (extrinsic), as well as non-motivated behavior. The extended framework enabled researchers to explore motivation in a larger variety of circumstances and environments (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

As discussed earlier, intrinsic motivation refers to taking part in an activity purely for the enjoyment of the activity itself. Purely self-determined action represents the ideal expression of an individual's desire to experience and learn about his or her surroundings (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Actions, intrinsic in nature, were posited to be highly autonomous, and exist on one polar end of the motivation continuum. In the middle of the continuum were extrinsic actions, which involve performance of an activity in order to attain some external reward, or as a means to an end (Deci & Ryan, 1985). For example, professional football players often leave one team because they can make more money playing for another. Their action is prompted by the desire for greater external rewards and therefore viewed as externally motivated.

At the far end of the continuum were amotivated actions. Deci and Ryan (1985) defined amotivation as the lack of desire to perform. Most commonly described as "going through the motions," a person experiencing the effects of amotivation either does not perform, or puts forth very little effort toward completion of tasks. Athletes who continually feel their effort, the strategies they employ, or a combination of the two, will make no difference in the outcome of their activities, would be classified as amotivated. In fact, previous research has shown that athletes who experienced amotivation for

extended periods of time also suffered performance deterioration and feelings of helplessness (Flink, Boggiano, & Barrett, 1990).

Researchers using Self-determination theory organized these three forms of motivation into a system that could identify the motives of an individual by the degree of autonomy felt by the actor (Deci & Ryan, 2000). As shown in Figure 1, Self-determination theory posits that intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation exist on a continuum of decreasing autonomy. At one extreme is pure intrinsic motivation, representing an entirely self-determined or freely chosen action. A volleyball player who is experiencing intrinsic motivation might participate in practice because he or she really enjoys learning and understanding new strategies. At the midpoint of the continuum is extrinsic motivation. Actions falling into this region are posited to be initiated by factors that exist outside the locus of the actor. For example, a player who's motivation to participate in a sport comes from the desire to attain the notoriety that comes to professional athletes is driven by extrinsic motivation. Actions with little or no autonomy lay at the polar opposite end of the continuum from intrinsic motivation, and are categorized under the label amotivation. Amotivation might occur, if a basketball player feels no amount of practice can supply the type of skill he or she needs to compete with a particular opponent.

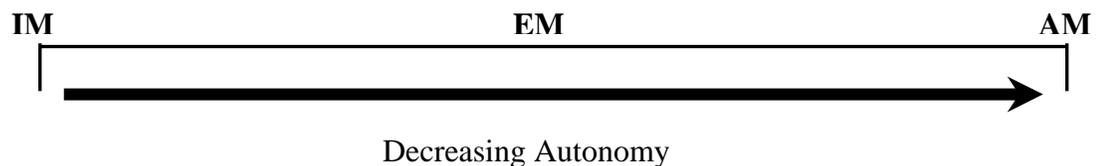


Figure 1. Motivation continuum

The second advancement Self-determination theory made over Cognitive Evaluation theory was to identify the fulfillment of three needs as important predictors of

motivation. Self-determination theory theorizes that all actions fall somewhere on the motivation continuum depending on the degree of fulfillment of the need for perceived competence, autonomy and relatedness. Within the Self-determination theory framework, an individual can only develop interpersonally and experience successful interactions in social settings when he or she possesses high personal perceived competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Frederick-Recascino, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000). In other words, an individual who feels he or she has the skills necessary to meet the demands of a task, feels ownership in the outcome, and perceives support from family and friends, is likely to feel high intrinsic motivation toward that activity. The above aspects of Self-determination theory will be more extensively discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

Competence refers to the belief that one has the necessary skills to accomplish a given task (Deci & Ryan, 1985). A person with high-perceived competence feels they have an adequate amount of skill or ability to achieve a desired outcome. Self-determination theory posits that facilitation of competency by using positive feedback for a particular task will result in higher levels of integration (Deci & Ryan, 1995). For example, a football player who feels that he does not have enough ability and skill to compete with the other players at his position would be considered to have low perceived competence. If a coach compliments the athlete on his work ethic, then the player may begin to see himself as more competent because of the positive feedback from the coach.

Autonomy refers to the degree to which a person feels they have control over the outcome of an activity. It also pertains to how much ownership a person takes in an activity (Deci & Ryan, 1985). When the source of motivation behind action comes from

within, one experiences the highest levels of autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Take for instance the football player from the above example. If he felt that being a starter for the upcoming season was extremely important he might feel highly autonomous about putting in extra time during the off-season to reach his goal. However, the athlete may also experience very low feelings of autonomy during off-season workouts if the goal of being a starter was brought about by the fear of disappointing a coach or parents.

Finally, relatedness is defined as the need to belong and feel connected with others (e.g., family, friends). Relatedness is considered an important factor when looking at the internalization of extrinsically motivated behaviors because fulfillment of this need is a tremendous predictor of internalization. Ryan and Deci (2000) hypothesized that relatedness becomes a mediating variable in motivation because the perceived value of behaviors typically stems from the prompting or value system of significant others. An illustration of this comes from the previous example with the football player who wanted to be a starter because he felt pressure to assimilate the values of others deemed important, in this case a coach or parents. Therefore, he adopted and internalized others' goals to fulfill his own need for relatedness.

Internalization of behavior is an important part of Self-determination theory. A behavior is said to be internalized when it is recognized as important, and taken into one's own value system. Often internalization refers to the assimilation of goals, ideas, or beliefs from an outside source. Integration alludes to the prioritization of the external values into a personal value, and is a key to understanding motivated behaviors (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The central concept behind motivation is that for action to occur, the activity must have some degree of importance to the individual. If an activity were not important, then there would be no action. It is easy to see that even the least self-determined (externally regulated) activities must have some degree of identification and integration. The level to which integration and identification take place depends on the degree to which a person perceives his or her own competence, autonomy, and relatedness. These three needs are considered the primary contributors to the internalization of activities, especially those that fall in the extrinsic motivation zone of the motivation continuum. As the extrinsic value of an action becomes more internalized and integrated, the motivation of that action becomes more intrinsic in nature (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Each of the determinants (e.g., competence, autonomy, relatedness), when increased or decreased, causes a slide to the left or right of the motivation continuum, based on whether the three needs are being more or less fulfilled. Take for example the football player who had the extrinsically motivated goal to become a starter on the team. If the hard work during the off-season paid off and his goal was reached, he may have more perceived competence because he demonstrated enough skill to win the job. He may also have experienced higher levels of autonomy due to the satisfaction he gained from accomplishing his goal through his own efforts. The athlete would also likely perceive more relatedness with his coaches, parents, and teammates due to his successful integration and internalization of their expectations. According to Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), experiencing higher perceptions of competence, autonomy, and relatedness would mean that the motivation of the athlete would shift from a less

self-determined form of motivation (extrinsic motivation) to a more intrinsic type of motivation.

As previously discussed, Self-determination theory's multidimensional view of motivation has a great deal of explanatory power. The ability to predict behavior by understanding the sources of motivation has broad reaching implication in many fields. One context where the Self-determination theory research has been applied is sport. The ensuing paragraphs discuss some of the pertinent studies, which have used Self-determination theory as the guiding framework.

Self-Determination Research in Sport

In the context of sport, researchers have studied Self-determination theory to examine the role of motivation as it pertains to athlete's perceptions of their athletic scholarships as controlling versus competence supporting (Vallerand, 2000). According to Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), an award can be either perceived as promoting competence in which case intrinsic motivation would increase, or perceived to be controlling, in which case intrinsic motivation would decrease. For example, a study by Ryan (1977) investigated the intrinsic motivation of collegiate male football players by verbally surveying them about their interest and enjoyment of playing sport. Ryan (1977) posited that scholarship athletes would have lower levels of intrinsic motivation than non-scholarship players. Results from the study lent support to the hypothesis that rewards decrease intrinsic motivation.

A follow up study (Ryan, 1980) extended previous research by comparing the intrinsic motivation of scholarship and non-scholarship male athletes from both football and wrestling, and female athletes from various other sports. The results indicated that non-scholarship football players had higher intrinsic motivation than their teammates on

scholarship. However, the scholarship athletes from all of the female sports, and the male athletes from the wrestling team reported higher levels of intrinsic motivation than the non-scholarship athletes in their respective sports. According to Ryan (1980) the contrary results were due to differing perceptions of the reward (scholarship). Ryan (1980) hypothesized that since fewer scholarships were awarded to male and female athletes in their respective sports, they perceived their scholarships as positive feedback about competence. In high-profile sports such as football, the athletes tended to feel that there were more scholarships given out within the team; therefore, a scholarship was not perceived as proof of competence. In contrast, athletes in lower-profile sports such as wrestling and most women's athletics at the time of the study, scholarships were viewed as evidence of competence, because within their respective team, fewer were given out.

More recently, Amrose and Horn (2000) tested the hypothesis of Ryan (1980) by assessing whether intrinsic motivation of scholarship and non-scholarship athletes' from a broad range of sports varied as a function of their perception of the number of athletes on their team receiving scholarships. The Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI; McAuley & Tammen, 1989) was used to assess the athletes' intrinsic motivation. The results indicated that athletes on scholarship had significantly higher intrinsic motivation than non-scholarship athletes, which refutes previous research (Ryan 1977, 1980) stating athletic scholarships undermine intrinsic motivation. The authors (Amrose & Horn, 2000) suggested the discrepant findings might be due to two major differences between the two studies. First, the sample used in the Amrose and Horn (2000) study consisted of athletes from a broader range of sports than the E. Ryan (1977, 1980) studies. Second, the instrumentation used to measure intrinsic motivation in the Ryan (1977, 1980) studies

was different than that used by Amrose and Horn (2000). Ryan (1977, 1980) verbally interviewed the participants, asking a series of survey questions about athlete's enjoyment and interest in their respective sport, while Amrose and Horn (2000) employed the IMI (McAuley & Tammen, 1989).

Another facet of the sporting context to which Self-determination theory has been applied involves the role of motivation as it pertains to athletic performance. For instance, Chantal, Guay, Dobрева-Martinova, and Vallerand (1996) compared the types of motivation of medal winning and non-medal winning elite Bulgarian athletes. In alignment with Self-determination theory, Chantal et al. (1996) hypothesized that the medal winning performers would display lower levels of intrinsic motivation and higher levels of extrinsic motivation and amotivation than the less successful athletes. The athletes (N=98) were given the Bulgarian version of the Sport Motivation Scale (SMS; Briere, Vallerand, Blais, & Pelletier, 1995), which was based on the tenets of Self-determination theory, and employed a multidimensional view of motivation. The results from the study (Chantal et al., 1996) partially supported the stated hypothesis. While the findings indicated the most successful athletes exhibited higher levels of non self-determined motivation than the less successful competitors, no significant differences were found in the levels of intrinsic motivation between the two groups. Chantal, Guay, Dobрева-Martinova, and Vallerand (1996) attributed the contrary findings to the possibility that athletes' motivations were a bi-product of socialization of participants through a communist reward system. Chantal et al. (1996) surmised that the data supported a proposal by Fortier, Vallerand, Briere, and Provencher (1995) to extend Self-determination theory to include situational factors as elements that foster non self-

determined forms of motivation. Fortier et al's. (1995) predictions have important implications for my study and therefore will be discussed later in this review.

The introduction of concepts embedded in Self-determination theory, such as the previously described motivation continuum, has led to a more complete understanding of the complexity of motivation. Likewise, the identification of competence, autonomy, and relatedness has supplied a conceptual framework for the processes individuals use to mediate self-determined action. Recently, Vallerand (1997) recognized the need to break down motivation into distinct levels according to their overall impact on the individual. Vallerand (1997, 2000) proposed the Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation as an extension to the basic components of Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) into three levels of generality. The focus will now turn to the Vallerand's theory of motivation.

Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

While there is much support for Self-determination theory, many felt that a larger, more extensive framework was needed in order to more completely understand motivation. Vallerand (1997, 2000) modified the ideas of Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000), and extended them into the three-tier model that is shown in Figure 2. The Hierarchical model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (Vallerand, 1997; Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002) revolves around five basic assumptions.

The first, labeled Postulate 1, states that any comprehensive assessment of motivation must consider all three types of motivation, intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation. Postulate 1 reiterates the importance of adopting Deci and Ryan's (1985) perspective by examining all three forms of motivation: intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation. When viewed as a multidimensional construct, motivation can cover an

extremely broad range of purposeful action. For instance, an athlete who normally exhibits great effort during practice may be fueled by internal or external sources. The motives for an abrupt change in the player's efforts may not be able to be explained simply by viewing his or her motivation from one perspective.

Postulate 2 of the Hierarchical Model posits that motivation must be viewed as existing on three levels of generality, global, contextual, and situational (Vallerand, 1997). The global level is considered a trait level of motivation, the semi-permanent disposition of individuals toward all activities. The Hierarchical Model proposed by Vallerand views global motivation as the propensity of individuals to engage in activities with either an intrinsic or extrinsic orientation (Vallerand & Rousseau, 2001). Simply put, global motivation is indicative of the rewards a person receives from his or her everyday activities (Figure 2). If an athlete tends to participate in mostly interesting tasks, then likely he or she has a more globally intrinsic disposition. Inversely, an individual who gravitates toward rewarded activities or situations where recognition is inherent may have a more extrinsic global orientation. One could consider global motivation as a function of personality.

The Hierarchical Model identifies a second level from which motivation can exist; the contextual level. Vallerand's model predicts multiple life contexts for which a person can have separate feelings of motivation. For example, education, work environment, personal relationships, and sport are all individual contexts within a person's life. Hierarchical Model predicts that within each of these individual aspects of life, separate levels of motivation exist (Figure 2). For instance, a person may feel extremely intrinsically motivated when they play sports because they participate solely for

recreation and enjoyment. The same person might feel coerced, and extrinsically motivated toward their work context, because they feel their only purpose for being there is so they can pay rent and buy food. The above hypothetical situation is a simplistic demonstration of one person having multiple motivations toward separate contexts in their life (Vallerand & Rousseau, 2001).

The third level of generality outlined by Hierarchical Model is the situational level. State feelings of motivation, which are time and place specific are considered situational (Figure 2). Whereas global motivation was very stable and consistent, situational motivation changes constantly according to how the individual feels about what he or she is doing at that exact moment. For instance, a female soccer player might globally feel intrinsically motivated. The same player might also feel intrinsically motivated toward the context of soccer practice while one particular part of practice, possibly conditioning, may be perceived in a different manner. Thus, her situational motivation during that part of practice may be extrinsic for that day.

Postulates 3 makes three predictions about motivation. The first states that motivation is determined by social factors that exist in the environment surrounding an individual. Determinants such as place of residence, motivational climate (Lloyd & Fox, 1992), the interactional style a coach utilizes with athletes (Deci & Ryan, 1987), and sport structure (Fortier, Vallerand, Briere, & Provencher, 1995) are all considered social factors that potentially influence motivation. Corollary 3.1 predicts social factors can be global, contextual, or situational, and affect the corresponding level of generality. For example, the place where an athlete lives could be considered a global social factor

impacting global motivation because a residence can affect virtually every facet of life for that athlete (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002).

The second hypothesis found in Postulate 3 predicts that perceptions of competence, autonomy, and relatedness mediate the impact social factors have on motivation (Corollary 3.2). This postulate highlights the role that internal needs play in interpreting the impact social factors have on motivation. An example of this might be an athlete who lives in a home that is supportive of his/her efforts on the field of play. That environment could increase the athlete's perceptions of competence, autonomy, and relatedness, which in turn increase their intrinsic motivation toward the sport context.

The last prediction Postulate 3 makes is outlined by Corollary 3.3, which states that motivation can be affected by a top-down interaction from the proximally higher level of generality. In other words, the type of global motivation (intrinsic vs. extrinsic) a person possesses has an impact on motivation in the different contexts of life and in specific situations within those contexts (Vallerand & Rousseau, 2001). To demonstrate the chain reaction effects posited by Corollary 3.3 imagine a softball player who is having problems getting along with her parents. An overarching factor such as difficulty at home may affect the global motivation of the athlete. Prolonged unrest at home may begin to influence her desire to be part of the softball team. Her curbed motivation toward the context of sport could in turn, cause friction with the coach when she does not put forth her usual effort during conditioning. The top-down effects predicted by Corollary 3.3 outline an important characteristic of motivation previously not accounted for by motivation theories such as Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Like Postulate 3, Postulate 4 identifies interactions among the three levels of generality. The Hierarchical model (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002; Vallerand & Rousseau, 2001) posits a bottom-up effect on motivation from lower levels of generality to the level immediately above (Postulate 4). Vallerand and Rousseau (2001) suggest incidents that occur on the situational level could over time have an impact on contextual motivation, and possibly global disposition. An instance where this might occur would be a sprinter who continually has problems beating opponents in big races. Situational social factors such as competition, which are inherent in sport, can interfere with performance and erode situational competence. If the athlete continues to have problems at the situational level his or her motivation toward the context of sport could be affected. Within the sport context, amotivation may grow and the athlete may decide to quit racing all together. Postulate 4 of Hierarchical Model predicts that eventually, global motivation could be impacted.

From a Hierarchical Model perspective, every action has some sort of outcome or consequence one one's motivation. Hierarchical Model categorizes outcomes into three classifications: affective (enjoyment), cognitive (high levels of concentration), and behavioral (persistence in an activity). Postulate 5 describes the nature of consequences of the different types of motivation.

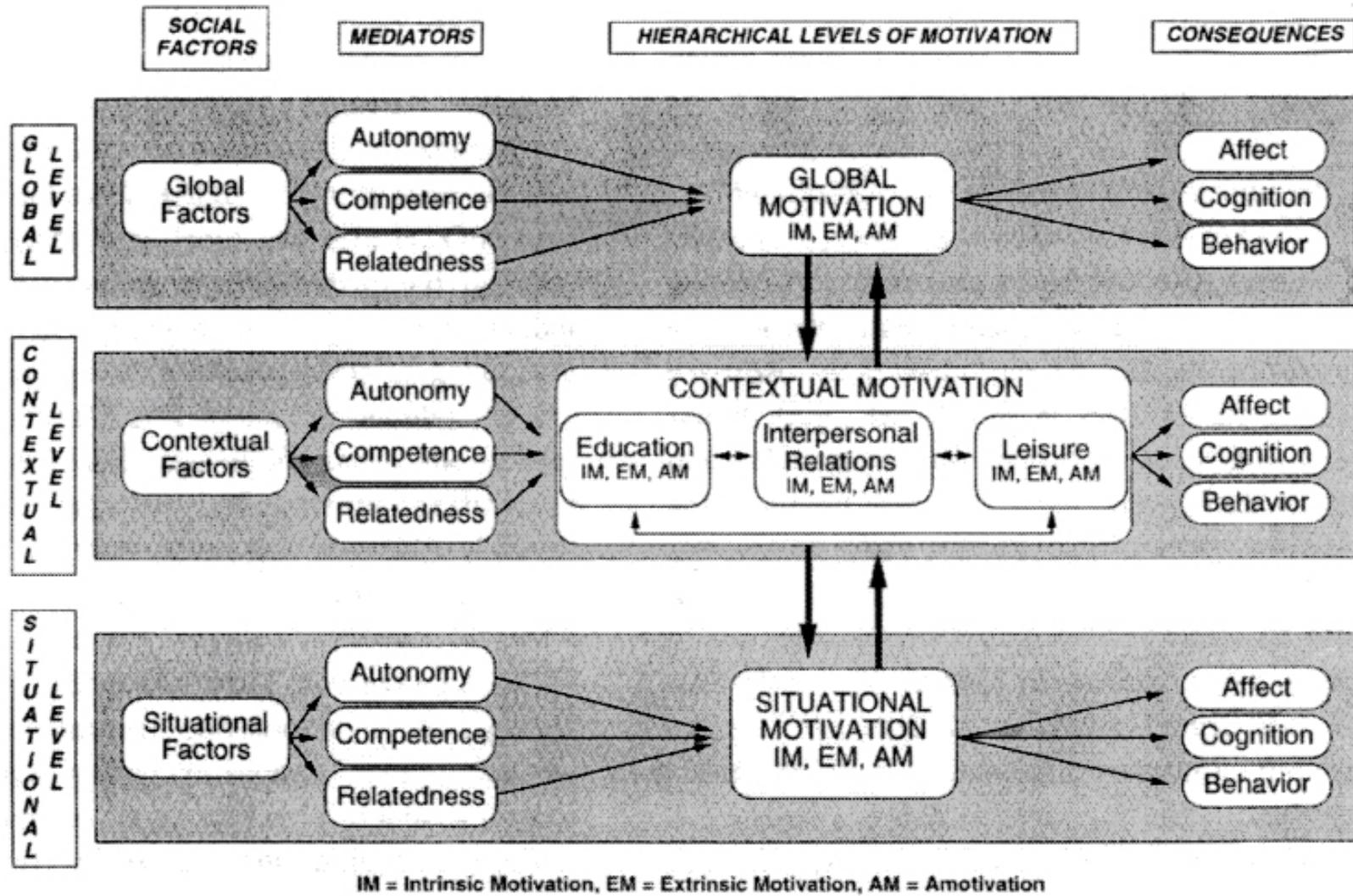


Figure 2. Hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

First, Corollary 5.1 hypothesizes the increasingly negative consequences of motivation as it moves across the continuum from intrinsic to amotivation. For instance, the previously discussed Vallerand et al. (1986) study used behavioral consequences to determine the type of motivation children experienced during a stabilometer task. Children high in intrinsic motivation toward the task spent a greater amount of free time doing the activity, than children who were extrinsically motivated to participate. In the described case, positive behavioral consequences (persistence) were correlated with highly self-determined forms of motivation. Corollary 5.2 attributes consequences at a particular level of generality to be indicative of the motivation at the same level of generality (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002). Simply stated, global, contextual, and situational motivation will best predict consequences at their respective level.

The Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (Vallerand, 1997) framework envelops a broad spectrum of motivational aspects. The theory's flexibility to make predictions about factors which affect motivation, as well as outcomes of motivated action that make Hierarchical Model a valuable asset to the field of sport psychology. One facet of the model of particular interest to the context of sport is Corollary 3.1.

Corollary 3.1 of the Hierarchical Model predicts social factors, which exist at each of the three levels of generality, influence motivation at the corresponding level (Vallerand, 2000). One important factor identified by Hierarchical Model, which could play an important role within the context of sport is sport structure. According to Vallerand and Rousseau (2001), athletes who participate in sport leagues in which high levels of competition are encouraged (i.e., college and professional sports), are likely to experience decreases in intrinsic motivation. The above hypothesis has only been tested

in two studies (Cornelius, Silva, & Molotsky, 1991; Fortier, Vallerand, Briere, & Provencher, 1995), with only the latter being published.

Fortier et al. (1995) assessed and compared the motivation levels of 221 competitive and recreational intramural French Canadian college student athletes for differences in motivation between sport structures. The intrinsic motivation levels of each participant were assessed using the French version of the SMS (Briere et al., 1995). This validated measure of motivation has 7 subscales that measure the types of motivation suggested by Cognitive Evaluation theory, (e.g., 3 types of intrinsic motivation, 3 types of extrinsic motivation, and amotivation). Results from the study indicated competitive athletes have lower intrinsic motivation toward their sport activity than intramural participants. The data also supported predictions made by Cognitive Evaluation theory and Self-determination theory about competition as a situational factor that undermines intrinsic motivation. One finding, which was contrary to expectations, suggested competitive athletes' demonstrated higher identified regulation (a self-determined form of extrinsic motivation) than their recreational counterparts. Fortier et al. (1995) speculated that the reason competitive sport athletes felt more identified regulation than recreational athletes was due to long term goals set by athletes in a competitive sport structure.

As previously discussed, little research has been done on the social and contextual factors that might influence motivation within a structured sport environment. However, another perspective on motivation, achievement goal theory (Duda, 1992; Nicholls, 1984), has been applied to the investigation of competitive sport structures, as well as individual's approaches to competition. Achievement goal theory has received

considerable research attention in the sport psychology literature, and this literature review will now focus on this perspective.

Achievement Goal Theory

Achievement goal theory, put forth by Nicholls (1984) and elaborated on by Duda (1992), uses a divergent line of thinking from Self-determination theory and the hierarchical model. While Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and Hierarchical Model (Vallerand, 1997) freely use the terms intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, achievement goal theory ascribes the terms task and ego to define motives behind activity involvement. Achievement goal theory predicts cognitive, affective, and behavioral responses by examining how individuals subjectively define success or failure in a given context (Duda & Hall, 2001). Nicholls (1984, 1989) proposed that individuals give meaning to their actions in any achievement context (e.g., the academics, athletics, business) by the goals they endorse. These goals are directly linked to the beliefs of the person about ability, and manifest into a global or trait disposition toward achievement.

Nicholls (1984, 1989) posits conceptions about ability and competence stem from either a differentiated or undifferentiated view of success. An individual whose view of ability is undifferentiated (task-oriented) assumes applying high effort to an activity will result in more learning therefore improving competence. In contrast, a person with a differentiated (ego-oriented) conception of ability believes effort can only increase performance up to the limit of their present capacity.

A task-oriented action is performed due to the belief that effort and competence maintain a direct relationship. An athlete successfully fulfills a task-oriented goal when he or she feels that effort will directly impact his or her goal of competence development and mastery (Ames, 1992). An ego-oriented goal describes intentions of an individual to

display superior competence to others. For example, an athlete acting with a task-goal perspective would feel successful while engaging in a jump- shooting drill when he or she becomes more comfortable with the particular shot being practiced. In the converse, someone taking part in the same drill with ego-oriented involvement would only feel successful if he exhibited more skill than others who were participating, or equal skill with less effort.

Achievement goal orientations are not only viewed as a global construct, but can also be applied to a specific context. Similar to Hierarchical Model of motivation (Vallerand, 1997), task and ego goals can exist in separate facets of the life of an individual. Achievement motivation in sport situations is a widely studied area (Nicholls, 1989; Ames, 1992).

Research examining achievement goal orientations in sport and physical activity has identified differing behavioral consequences between task and ego orientations. For instance, a study by Lochbaum and Roberts (1993) found that high school athletes with a task orientation focused on adaptive achievement strategies (e.g., focus on task mastery, prolonged engagement, exertion of effort), whereas ego-oriented athletes tended to employ more maladaptive achievement strategies (e.g., reduced effort, selection of easy tasks, give up more quickly).

An ego-goal perspective can prove to be a double edged sword, depending on the strategy employed to prove competence (Covington, 1992). For example, a player could exhibit superior competence by outperforming his peers in the activity (i.e., winning); but an outcome goal such as this, with an external locus, cannot always be controlled by one single individual because of the myriad factors involved in an athletic competition. A

maladaptive strategy an athlete might use to demonstrate overt competence involves an individual displaying comparable ability to others in the game without appearing to apply as much effort (Duda & Hall, 2001). Ego-goals such as this have obvious dangerous consequences in terms of an athlete giving effort no matter the game situation.

Another line of inquiry that has been addressed in the literature is the nature of the sport as a social environment. Social situational factors within a particular context influence an athlete's states of task and ego involvement, as well as the perception an athlete has of his or her environment (White & Duda, 1994). A variety of factors such as relationships with coaches and teammates, perception of the motivational climate, and competition, have been identified as key components in interpreting and understanding motivational goals and behaviors (Ames, 1992; Duda & Hall, 2001).

Several studies have explored social relationships as possible situational factors that influence motivation within sport situations. Research conducted by Alderman and Wood (1976) and Gill, Gross, and Huddleston (1983) indicated that making friends was an important motive for participation in youth hockey players, and youth sport camp participants respectively. Likewise, a study by Gould, Feltz, and Weiss (1985) assessed the motives of competitive youth swimmers. The findings showed that achievement status, team atmosphere, and friendship were strong motives for participation in competitive youth swimming leagues.

Another social factor that affects goal orientation is motivational climate. Ames (1992) defined motivational climate as an environment that promotes either a task, or ego orientation. Most often, the greatest influence on the motivational climate comes from teachers or coaches interactions with students and athletes. Walling, Duda, and Chi

(1993) investigated high level competitive youth sport participant's perceptions of motivational climate from a variety of sports. The results demonstrated that athletes who perceived a mastery (task) climate also experienced higher levels of satisfaction with being a member on the team and experienced lower amounts of performance worry. In contrast, a performance based (ego) climate was positively associated with concerns about failing and adequacy of one's performance and negatively correlated with team satisfaction.

As noted previously, research shows that the context of sport contains multiple factors, which interact to create a unique and complex environment. One factor inherent in many achievement settings, competition, has received a considerable amount of research attention. Studies inquiring into the nature of competition in sport and physical activity settings have predominantly observed individual's goal orientation in youth sport settings. Furthermore, recent studies provided evidence that point to differences in motives for participation in physical activity and competitive sport as individuals mature. The subsequent sections will discuss this issue in more depth.

Participation Motives From A Developmental Perspective

Achievement Goal theory research indicates that individual's motivational goals change as they develop from children to adults (Butler, 1989a, 1989b). Gould, Feltz, and Weiss (1985) emphasized the need for studies that explore the motives of athletes in different age groups as well as at different competitive levels. Their study compared the motives of male and female competitive youth swimmers (N=365) from different age groups. Results indicated that younger swimmers maintained more external motives (e.g., achievement status, pressure from parents/friends, like the coach) than older

swimmers who rated developing fitness and excitement-challenge as important reasons they participate in competitive swimming.

A study by Brodtkin and Weiss (1990) assessed the motives of competitive swimmers (N=100) whose ages ranged from 6 to 74 years of age using the Participation Motivation Questionnaire (Gill et al., 1983). Analysis of the data revealed that youth swimmers (ages 6-14) identified competition as a strong motive for participation, high school and college age participants rated social status and significant others as important, while young and middle adults (ages 23-59) rated health and fitness as primary motives for involvement. All of these results lend support to the idea that motives for participation may be a developmental process.

Butt and Cox (1992) compared the sources of motivation of (N=46) college age (18-23 yrs.) tennis players from three separate competitive levels (e.g., Davis Cup, intercollegiate, recreational players). Each of the participants was given The Sport Protocol (Butt, 1987) to assess sport motivation, affect, socialization, and needs. The results from the study indicated that the elite level athletes (Davis Cup players) endorsed more feelings of aggression, conflict, competence, and competition than players at the collegiate or recreational levels. The elite level players also scored higher than collegiate and recreational athletes on negative affect, and feelings of frustration. With respect to the discussed results, the authors cited the low reliability of The Sport Protocol as a limitation of the study.

Another study, which investigated the relationship of level of sport involvement and task and ego-orientation, was conducted by White and Duda (1994). This study used the TEOSQ (Duda, 1992) to assess male and female sport participants at four competitive

levels (e.g., youth, high school, intercollegiate, recreational). Results revealed that athletes at the highest competitive levels (e.g., intercollegiate sports) exhibited higher ego-orientation than recreational athletes in the same age group, or the younger sport participants (e.g., youth, high school).

The studies reviewed above indicated that athletes in different age groups may have differing motives for participating in sport. Therefore, specific age groups should be targeted during inquiry into participation motives. The previous section focused on studies, which target athletes in a variety of age groups. It is important to note that studies involving college age sport participants are most relevant to the proposed study. However, there has been relatively little research, which investigates the motives of participation of college age athletes within varying sport structures.

In light of previous discovery, application of a qualitative approach would be beneficial to investigate athlete's motives for sport participation, as well as their perceptions of their sport environment. A grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) approach could provide alternative knowledge construction to the limited inquiry of previous theory driven research. A qualitative study would be ideal to explore the known dimensions of motivation and this approach may result in the discovery of new constructs (Eccles, Walsh, & Ingledew, 2002; Streaun, 1998). The open-ended question format used in a grounded theory approach could provide thick description about the motives of athletes to participate in sport, and uncover insight into the complex interactions of the sport context through the eyes of its participants.

Qualitative Rationale

Toward the goal of understanding how social factors influence motivation, qualitative inquiry could be one of the most effective methods for gathering data on a

subjective issue such as athlete perceptions of the sport structure. Streat and Roberts (1992) suggested that the complexity of a competitive-sport domain must be included in the research design. To understand how athletes interact within a sport context, they must be studied in a sport setting. They also emphasized the need to use less conventional methods (e.g., qualitative inquiry), and multi-method approaches to capture the richness of the sport context.

Philosophical Issues Related to Knowledge Construction in Sport Psychology

In recent years, scientists from diverse disciplines have questioned predominant philosophical approaches to research in sport psychology and encouraged the use of new ideas and theories to shape future directions (Hoshand & Polkinghorn, 1992; Kuhn, 1969; Martens, 1987; Petruzzello, 2000; Sparkes, 1998). For instance, Martens (1987) urged researchers to break out of the traditional scientific methodology, which dominates the field, and more readily embrace new, applicable schemas for knowledge. Martens (1987) cited the false assumption of objectivity in traditional scientific methods for the necessity to break the “orthodox science paradigm” (p. 31), which he believed has failed in the human behavioral sciences.

Sparkes (1998) also cited the need for varying forms of knowledge construction to be embraced in order for the science of sport psychology to grow. He advocates the use of qualitative inquiry to expand understanding in a variety of sport psychology related topics. Sparkes (1998) suggested that exploring new ways to understand athletes’ experiences in might enable sport scientists to answer questions that are more in line with applied interests.

In line with Martens (1987) and Sparkes (1998), Hoshand and Polkinghorn (1992) emphasized the strengths of post-modern and constructivist epistemologies as necessary

additions to sport psychology literature. Cautioning against the broadening gap between the academy researcher and the practicing psychologist, Hoshand and Polkinghorn (1992) suggested qualitative approaches might act as a bridge to bring scientists and practitioners back to a common ground.

The above observations have important implications for motivation researchers. The body of motivation literature, as a whole has been limited by a unidimensional approach to knowledge construction. All of the studies in this review of literature tested aspects of the multidimensional construct of motivation by applying quantitative methods (e.g., survey and/or experimental designs). More specifically, a great majority of all the research done in the area of motivation uses some type of survey (e.g., IMI, McAuley et al., 1989; SMS, Pelletier et al., 1995), or behavioral measure (Deci, 1971,1972; Vallerand et al., 1986) to assess the different forms of motivation. Employment of measures such as these has been criticized by a variety of sources. For instance, Streaun (1998) cautioned that entering a research setting with predetermined variables to observe could blind researchers to new data outside the scope of expectation. This is an important point when considering that surveys were designed to assess aspects of a specific theory (e.g., Self-Determination theory and the SMS). The behavioral approach, in which observations are made on how much time participants spend doing some type of experimental activity in a contrived setting using designated “free choice periods” (Deci, 1971), have also been considered inadequate motivation researchers (Harwood, 2002). The broad interpretation of a behavioral measure is that people only choose to do intrinsically motivated activities during periods in which they choose their own use of time (Deci, 1971). In sum, these two types of measurements (e.g., survey data and “free choice” observation periods)

cannot possibly cover all the aspects of motivation, and are extremely limited in their contribution to the bigger picture of motivation in sport.

Various researchers have emphasized the danger of widely employing similar research methods. Krane, Streaan, and Anderson (1997) alluded to the need to expand the resources used to construct knowledge in the field of sport psychology. Specifically, Krane et al. (1997) cited qualitative research as one possible avenue to avoid the suffocation of knowledge advancement that can occur from a mono-method approach. Similarly, Streaan and Roberts (1992) emphasized the benefits of using a variety of theories and methods within sport psychology. They warned that unchecked conformity to prior methodologies discourages valuable creativity in scientific investigations. Many feel that scientific progress necessitates a departure from accepted practices, and to dismiss a variety of methodologies is to miss out on possible new means of advancing the field of sport psychology (Streaan & Roberts, 1992). In line with these viewpoints, the present study will use an alternative qualitative research paradigm: grounded theory.

Need for New Theories of Motivation

Recently, issues involving interpretations of major concepts within the motivation literature have brought to light some dissatisfaction with current theories of motivation. Harwood and Hardy (2001) discussed the unrest with inadequate assessment techniques, emphasizing the present as an opportune time to conduct studies, which employ divergent methodologies. The use of qualitative methods to advance the motivation literature could serve to answer their call for “innovative research” and advance new ideas about motivation in sport (Harwood & Hardy, 2001, p. 330) Treasure et al. (2001) talk about subjective perception of the athletic domain as key to understanding the motivation of athletes. The use of a grounded theory approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), which

employs the use of open-ended questions to attain subjective responses, appears to be a timely approach to current research to motivation in sport.

Rationale

The proposed study would extend current research in three ways. First, Corollary 3.1 of the Hierarchical model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (Vallerand, 1997) identified sport structures as one of the social factors that potentially may have a negative affect on intrinsic motivation. Results from the Fortier et al. (1995) study supported Hierarchical Model, and indicated that competitive sport structures diminish the intrinsic motivation of the athletes who participate. However, the quantitative nature of the study allowed the researchers only to speculate on the reasons that athletes in competitive leagues experience lower intrinsic motivation than athletes in recreational leagues. Exploring the motives behind sport participation for competitive athletes and club sport athletes would provide insight into the role competition plays in affecting motivation at the contextual level.

The next way the proposed study would benefit motivation research is by approaching motivation from an alternative perspective than that of the vast majority of research. In line with the views expressed by Krane et al. (1997), Streat & Roberts (1992), Hoshand and Polkinghorn (1992), Martens (1987), and Sparkes (1998), viewing the multidimensional construct of motivation from a grounded theory approach would be a step in expanding knowledge construction in the area of motivation research. More specifically, the present grounded theory study would allow for an in-depth and contextually specific understanding about how individual's thoughts and feelings about their motivation have been and currently are influenced by the social context of sport.

The third potential contribution of the present study involves the lack of theories derived specifically from the sport context. The present study may be ideally suited to answer the calls for new motivational frameworks by Harwood et al. (2000, 2001), and Treasure et al. (2001). The grounded theory techniques (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) employed in the study, which are discussed in Chapter 2, will produce a theoretical framework that integrates raw data themes taken directly from the athlete interviews.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of my study is to use grounded theory analytic procedures (e.g., Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to explore and assess N.C.A.A. athletes' and club athletes' sources of motivation to participate in sport. A secondary purpose will be to explore and assess the participants' sources of motivation to compete in sport. Finally, a grounded theory will be inductively developed to explain how contextual features of the sport environment influenced the participants' thoughts, feelings, and behaviors towards their sport participation. More specifically, the grounded theory will be used understand how the participants sources of sport motivation were influenced by environmental opportunities and significant others such as coaches and family members.

Personal Interest

My interest in motivation in sport comes from my background as a competitive athlete in various sports, and my coaching experiences at the high school as well as collegiate levels. Throughout my athletic experiences I was inclined to orient my entire life around the sports which I loved and dedicated my time and effort. I view all of my endeavors on the playing field as an intricate part in developing into the person I am today. To see workouts, practices, meetings, and game study culminate into one competitive performance is truly fascinating and gratifying. While my enjoyment of the

preparation stages varied from day to day, week-to-week, season-to-season, my love for sport competition never wavered. The above fact has helped raise the questions, which the following study attempts to explore. What is it about sports play that drives athletes to sacrifice other priorities in their lives in order to participate? It is this multidimensional construct that I desire to probe and examine within the methodology of grounded theory order to understand more extensively the nuances of the motivation of athletes toward the context of competitive environments.

CHAPTER 2 METHODS

To achieve the goals of exploring the motivation of athletes to participate and compete, as well as developing a sport specific theory of motivation; it was important to go directly to the source of the question, the athletes (Krane, Streaan, & Andersen, 1997). The entire basis of the study hinged on using the techniques outlined by grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to gain insight into the complex set of motives driving athletes to participate in competitive environments. As can be seen by the review of the literature, grounded theory provides a much-needed change of perspective, and a unique yet validated method to qualitatively assess athlete's experiences, and organize them into a usable framework. The use of an alternative perspective to guide exploration has helped to alleviate possible biases in previous studies of an established framework such as Hierarchical Model (Schilling & Hayashi, 2001).

Participants

The participants in my study were 14 male ($\underline{n} = 7$) and female ($\underline{n} = 7$) athletes who had competed at either the NCAA Division I or club sport level for a large southeastern school. The mean age for participants was 22.5 years. The ethnic breakdown of the participants was as follows: Caucasian ($n=9$), Black ($n=3$), Filipino ($n=1$), American Indian ($n=1$). Each athlete was taken on a voluntary basis, and only interviewed one time for a total of 14 interviews. Each participant was given an informed consent agreement (see appendix A) to read and sign. The document outlined the purpose of the study as well as the expectations put upon the participant. The informed consent also guaranteed

complete anonymity to each participant and explained the steps that would be taken to uphold confidentiality.

Procedure

Selection of all the athletes was done through a 4-step process that was approved by the University of Florida Institutional Review Board. First, a letter was sent out to the coaches and directors of the athletic programs asking for possible candidates for the study. Next, possible participants were contacted through letter or electronic mail explaining the purpose and requirements of the study. Each participant then signed the informed consent. The last pre- interview expectation of the participant was to set up a time for the 30 to 60 minute interview (Schilling & Hayashi, 2001).

Purposeful Sampling and Theoretical Sampling

All the participants were selected through purposeful (Patton, 1990) and theoretical sampling. Purposeful sampling allowed the researcher the freedom to select participants whose rich, thick description of experiences was most relevant to the line of inquiry. Theoretical sampling enabled the researcher to select future participants who provided insight into any unknown constructs, which emerged from the data. Sampling in this manner was a cumulative process, which was dependent on past data collection. Combining the two types of sampling afforded the researcher the ability to highlight particular areas of interest in the experiences of an athlete, and provided precisely the flexibility needed when the researcher was attempting to derive an entire conceptual framework from thick rich data text (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Each participant was selected on five criteria. First, all participants needed to be at least 18 years of age to participate in the research study. Second, each athlete must have competed for at the high school level, and continued participation for at least 1 year at the

collegiate level. A third consideration was the achievement of a balance of data between male and female athletes. The fourth criterion set forth by the principal investigator was the selection of participants based on the properties of the sport (team or individual) in which they competed. The intention of recognizing and accounting for athletes, who participate only in one type of sport, in this case the genre of individual sport, was to ensure the new theory integrated data on athletes with similar athletic experiences. The assessment of athletes who only participated in individual sports enabled the emerging categories and codes to be more precise and focused. While all sports have different aspects, which make them unique, including just individual sport athletes provided some stability and similarity from which to base the interview questions. The fifth and final consideration when selecting participants was to account for a variety of sports in order to add richness and diversity to the data collected (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Interview Procedures

Each participant sat down for a one on one interview with the researcher at a time deemed convenient by the participant. All of the interviews were audio taped by the principal investigator. The interviews were conducted using a semi- structured interview guide (Blumenfeld, 1992) consisting of open- ended questions designed to allow for thick descriptive data (Stean, 1998). The time allotted for each interview was set for between 30 and 60 minutes.

Interview Guide Design

The questions in the interview guide (see appendix B) were posed to the participants in order to gain insight into their perceptions about, and attitude toward athletic competition. The first set of questions was intended to gather personal information about the background of each participant and to develop rapport and trust

with the interviewee. The rest of the questions on the interview guide were loosely designed to give each athlete the opportunity describe in-depth their motives for competitive athletic participation. Along these same lines, the interview guide was designed in a manner which allowed the researcher freedom to probe new ideas presented by each participant in order to increase the richness of the content and further explore any new avenues opened by the athletes (Eccles, Walsh, & Ingledew, 2002; Schilling & Hayashi, 2001).

A key element in the design of any successful interview guide was the pilot testing of the questions. Because the interviewing process was so pertinent to the grounded theory data collection process, each question needed to supply relevant text thick with descriptive detail. In order to assure that the questions achieved that goal, they were pilot tested on two individuals in practice interviews before they are posed to participants in the study. Through this method, the researcher was afforded the ability to modify and develop the guide to ensure the focus remains on answering the questions outlined by the purpose statement of the study.

Member Checks

A member check was used to verify with the participant all of the statements he or she made during the interview. First, the researcher created a summary of statements made by the participants based on the recorded dialogue from the interview. The summarized interpretation was then given to the athlete for review. Providing a summary of the interview gave the respondent a chance to correct any misinterpretation of the data by the interviewer, and afford the researcher confidence that the overall feel for the data that guided the analysis was accurate.

Data Analysis

Although the ultimate goal of research conducted using grounded theory is a practical, useable theoretical framework, which is firmly grounded in the data, a scientist must take painstaking measures to ensure analysis of the data collected from the interviews is processed correctly. Procedures outlined by well-respected qualitative researchers (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Eccles et al. 2002; Streat, 1998) provide multiple methods which, when applied to the data, maintain the relationship between the original data, and emerging concepts incorporated into the new theory. My study was based on the assumption that accounts given by participants are generally accurate representations of their experiences (Schilling & Hayashi, 2001). The steps of the analyzing process, which were used in my study, included line-by-line and axial coding, multiple coders, constant comparison, member checks, and memo writing, and independent audit. The combination all of the tools at the disposal of researcher, provided a rigorous standard with which to comply in order to maintain the integrity and validity of the research. The following sections will discuss in-depth each step of the data analysis process.

Interviews and Data Transcription

All interviews were conducted by the principal investigator and audio-tape recorded. The principal investigator then transcribed each completed interview verbatim.

Line-by-Line Coding

The initial stage of analysis employed a technique labeled line-by-line coding. In this process, the researcher carefully fractured the data collected in the transcribed interviews into manageable chunks (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). By carefully scrutinizing every line of each interview, and pulling out significant words and phrases called raw data themes, the investigator was able to group like ideas from separate sections of the

same interview. The process also enabled the scientist to compare similar and dissimilar ideas from the interviews of different individuals, as well as synthesize the “chunks” of data into coherent categories and concepts.

Multiple Coders

The use of multiple coders was another method of maintaining validity in the analysis of data. The process calls for several trained qualitative researchers to critically analyze and code the interviews. Each member of the research team was given a copy of the interview that they individually coded. Research meetings were held in which the group of researchers reviewed each line of the interview, and discussed the codes they pulled from the text. Any discrepancy on a code was discussed and agreed upon before the data was applied to the existing framework. Application of this research tool afforded the primary investigator alternative viewpoints to his’ own perspective on the emerging themes. Critical questioning of coding is a valuable tool to control against bias. Quality control of this type also challenged the researcher to reevaluate every aspect of his interpretation of the data, and view coded material in a new light (Krane, Streat, & Anderson, 1997).

Independent Audit

Another procedure used to maintain validity was an independent audit. In this process, an independent researcher, who was familiar with the grounded theory methodology but not the current study, was presented with a list of raw data themes pulled directly from the text. They were told to match each data theme to the higher order theme they felt best encompassed the raw data theme. The results from the audit were 81% agreement with the categorization done by the multiple coders on the research team, which is an acceptable level.

A second audit was done with the same independent researcher in which broad themes from the current study were matched to long quotes that were taken from the results section. The auditor matched 74% of the long quotes to the same broad categories selected by the research group. The high percentage of agreement between the independent auditor and the research team on the classification and organization of data lends credibility to the analysis and coding done by the researcher and the multiple coders during the current study.

Axial Coding

Another process used to synthesize emerging data was axial coding. As broad categories began to form and similar themes arose in multiple interviews, axial coding was employed as a method to calculate the relationships between the broad categories and the corresponding subsidiary raw data themes. The initial theoretical framework began to take shape within this step. Each theme, when placed into a category of appropriate fit, helped to shape parameters, and outline another dimension of that category (Eccles et al., 2002). Axial coding was a stage in which theoretical relationships between corresponding data were not only grouped for similarity, but also scrutinized for instances of incongruence. In this step, analysis was directed by the evolving theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Constant Comparison

One of greatest strengths of grounded theory as a research tool and methodology lies in its reliance on comparative methods. Through the technique labeled constant comparison, the researcher had the ability to check the validity of emerging data in multiple ways. First, transcription of each interview immediately, allowed the scientist to stay “grounded” in the data, maintain intimacy, and familiarity with the text produced by

the participants. One advantage to the use of this strategy was the ability to compare statements made at the beginning of interviews with responses occurring later for discrepancies. A second beneficial quality of the comparative method was the validation of raw data themes from multiple sources. Triangulation of data from more than one participant in an open-ended interview format lent immediate credibility to the emerging codes and themes.

The tool of constant comparison fit into the grounded theory paradigm because comparison encouraged the researcher to draw on his or her, own experiences when viewing the data. Grounded theory not only acknowledges the problem of separating the scientist and the science, which is a big issue concerning quantitative research, but embraces the indivisibility as a characteristic vital to accurate synthesis of data. In their book *Basics of Qualitative Research*, Strauss and Corbin (1998) emphasized this by pointing to the fact many researchers who have followed the guidelines in the book were apt to incorporate their own knowledge. The ability to make real-life comparisons between the experimental material and other experiences was a key to discovering untapped dimensions and properties within the data.

Constant comparison was not one stage of analysis, through which the information was filtered. Instead, the strategy was just what the label suggests, a constant perspective that was upheld through out the process in order for the constructed theory to entirely represent the data from the initial to the final interview (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Memo Writing

Memo writing was a technique applied to the research from the initial stages of interviewing. Strauss and Corbin (1998), suggested a set up similar to a journal, which can be used as a record of the thoughts and ideas, which can guide each step of the theory

building process. The journal was a conglomeration of notations about behaviors of interviewees, surprising aspects of coded material, early sketching of possible frameworks, and any other musings about relationships concerning emerging categories and themes.

CHAPTER 3 RESULTS

The current study had three major purposes. The first was to use grounded theory analytic procedures (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to identify the sources of motivation of N.C.A.A. collegiate athletes and recreational/ club sport athletes. The second purpose was to investigate the participants' motives to compete in sport. The third purpose was to organize the data into a grounded theory of motivation for competitive athletes. This chapter begins with the athletes' perceptions of the definition of motivation. Next, descriptions of supporting quotes of higher order themes identified through the line-by-line, and open coding procedures will be presented. Then, competition is examined as an environmental and social-contextual factor of sport, as well as a primary source of motivation for athletes. Finally, the codes and themes gathered during my study are organized into a grounded theory of sport motivation based on athletes' conceptions of their sport. The presentation of the results is organized around Figure 3. Specifically, all of the higher order sources of motivation fell into one of two general dimensions, internal sources of motivation and external sources of motivation. Classified within the construct of internal sources of motivation were the themes goals and anger, and outlet for stress and aggression. The higher order themes of family, friends, team aspects of sport, coaches, pressure and high expectations, benefits of participation, competition, and pre-competition motivators were categorized as external sources of motivation.

How Athletes Define Motivation

An important first step in understanding athletes' sources of motivation to participate and compete in sport is to understand athletes' perceptions of motivation. All of the participants in the study were asked to define motivation in their own words. While the responses to this question were diverse there were some definite similarities within the participants' responses (Figure 3). One definition, the internal desire to do whatever it takes to accomplish a desired goal, incorporates two aspects of motivation most frequently noted by participants, internal drive and goals. For instance, Lynn, a swimmer at the Olympic level, stated "I think to be motivated is to want to do something. And think that in order to get it done you must be able to go through any obstacle that you come across...because you want to accomplish the goals." Cindy, a collegiate track athlete, defined motivation by saying "I guess it's just a drive inside of you that you just don't want to give up." Lester, a judo club athlete summed up motivation by identifying it as "To have a reason for doing something. To be motivated, is to set goals for yourself and then go after them. What motivates me is to achieve something. I guess to me it's a sense of accomplishment."

Other themes that came out in athlete's descriptions of motivation included "proving something," "having a goal in mind," "wanting to improve and get better," and "wanting to reach your optimal level of performance." The definitions of motivation given by the athletes in the current study lend credibility to their understanding of personal motivators and what drives them to participate in their respective sport. In a similar manner, athletes were also asked to give a personal definition and explain their views on competition.

How Athletes Define Competition

Another aspect of sport that the participants were asked about was their personal definition of competition (Figure 3). With respect to the various ideas about competition that exist in the motivation literature, it was deemed important to gain athletes' perspective on this component of their sport experience. There were a variety of responses from the participants that yielded three major perspectives on the dynamic role of competition within the lives of the participants. The most prominent conception about competition was that of beating an opponent in head to head competition. Eight of the 14 participants made reference to "putting your skills against someone else," or "going up against somebody or another team and seeing if you can beat them at whatever the game is." Jeff, a collegiate track athlete even went as far as to call competition a "war with your opponent." Five of the participants made reference to doing whatever was necessary to win or be the best.

Another facet of competition that was identified involved competition within a team and between teammates. The athletes in the current study produced evidence to suggest that competition is a healthy component of a team atmosphere. They made statements such as: "I can't imagine running without competition," and "The games are the funnest part." A final construct of competition included "competing against yourself," "doing your best," and "performing your best against the best teams." These varying views of competition encompass the important sources of motivation identified by a vast majority of the athletes and will be discussed in greater detail later in the chapter. The following sections discuss the higher order sources of motivation that emerged from the analysis of the interview text.

Internal Sources of Motivation

The first general dimension that was recognized during the grouping of data was internal sources of motivation. These were characterized as such because they were factors that acted as sources of motivation with an internal locus of control. Goals, anger, and sport as an outlet for stress and aggression were all constructs which the participants alone controlled. For example, goals that the participants set for themselves acted as a source of motivation only if they represented actions that the athletes had a strong desire to accomplish. They would not be a source of motivation if the participant did not identify with the goal and deem it important. The following sections will elaborate on the internal sources of motivation that the participants in the current study possessed.

Goals

The first important higher order theme that emerged from the axial coding was “goals” the athletes set for themselves. The general dimension of goals (Figure 3) was defined by “long term goals,” “performance goals,” “seeing improvement,” “fulfilling personal needs,” and “feeling of satisfaction and accomplishment.” The athletes in the current study tended to be heavily motivated by their goals. Eight of the participants described a variety of goals as major sources of motivation. The goals expressed by the participants encompassed a variety of goal types. For instance, Diane, a collegiate soccer player, revealed “I have a long term goal of actually signing with a semi-pro [soccer] team in Europe so I know that on a daily basis I have to go out and workout every day.” This statement illustrated how her long-term goal acted as a daily or short-term source of motivation.

Lucy, who threw the shot put at the collegiate level, described how she used her goals to increase her motivation when she was not performing at peak levels by saying “I

just go back to my goals I made. I write them down and stuff. And just look at them and just like this is just a tough time, you gotta push through.” Likewise, Cindy described how she employed goals when she was frustrated with periods of poor performance, “I just try to look at future goals and why I need to get motivated.” These statements identified athletes’ use of long-term goals to increase motivation when it was low. One athlete, Amy, a collegiate soccer player, even explained how her goal to be a collegiate athlete drove her to overcome pain from chronic illness:

I knew I really wanted to play soccer in college, and it got hard because I had to sit, or I couldn’t train as hard as I would like. But you know, it just motivated me to hang in there and stick with it, and just get through it regardless of how I felt. Just to get out there and play. It’s my motivation to keep going.

Performance Goals

Performance goals were another type of goal that emerged as a source of motivation. The athletes discussed the importance of being able to set incremental benchmarks tied to their performance in sport. Athletes looked at both practice and competition as an opportunity to set and achieve performance goals. Steve, who discussed how important hitting his target times during practice was said, “As a runner [practice times] that’s all you really have to indicate where you’re at race-shape wise, is what you do in practice.” Doug discussed his approach to goal setting during games in this quote, “I always have an idea when I step out on the floor how many assists I want to get and how many steals I need to get for us to win a game.”

A variety of quotes from the participants also gave insight into why performance goals were motivators. They discussed aspects such as “they are a huge factor in what you think you’re capable of,” and “it [setting performance goals] was the best situation for someone that really likes to see their work come to fruition. You can see how you’re

actually doing in comparison to what you're actually working towards." These statements supply important information about specific components of goal setting strategies that appeal to athletes. The above quotes not only describe how performance goals affect an athlete's confidence, but how they are used to maintain motivation.

Cindy, a high jumper, explained how she combined different types of goals to increase her motivation. She described melding performance and process goals in this quote, "I set goals, heights, like I want to clear a certain height [in the pole vault]. But I also set other goals with my technique and my form, that's so important." Terry, a distance runner at the collegiate level, said "I'm more interested not so much in place [in the race] as time." These types of goals carried a strong relationship with another higher order source of motivation, "seeing improvement."

Seeing Improvement

Ten of fourteen participants identified "seeing improvement" as an important source of motivation (Figure 3). As previously discussed, the participants in the study were definitely goal oriented. The participants used goals and goal setting as a system for marking improvement over a period of time. Accomplishing a series of goals established a step-by-step path which displayed progress which in turn increased motivation. For example, Ryan, a club judo player, indicated that "being able to see a definite improvement in my work and my abilities? Oh yeah, it really motivates me." Athletes at both the collegiate and club sport level attributed "seeing improvement" to increased motivation. A quote by Cindy displayed her perception of how "seeing improvement" impacted her motivation:

When I'm doing better, when I can see the results I'm more motivated. We do testing with all our drills and our [weight] lifting and stuff every 8 weeks in the fall. So you can actually see improvement from the first day you're in the weight room

on the weight card, and then you test it 8 weeks later and you see how much you've improved. That's really motivating!"

The preceding paragraphs show how the different types of goals set by athletes serve as sources of motivation. The next question that needed to be answered was, "Why are these goals a source of motivation?" The participants in the current study identified two constructs that gave value to the goals that had been set. The first was a set of needs that were satisfied by achieving goals. The second dimension was the feelings that the athletes experienced when their goals were accomplished. The following sections will focus on the reasons that goals are a source of motivation to the athletes.

Fulfilling Personal Needs

Throughout the interview process the participants discussed certain "needs" that drove them to set and achieve goals. One first order theme that arose was a need to "receive credit." Three athletes identified a need to be recognized for their talent or accomplishments as a source of motivation. David, a collegiate swimmer, explained one of the reasons that he worked hard for team instead of individual goals in this way, "It always seems like team champions get more credit." Another athlete discussed his goal to make the top traveling squad, attributing his desire in part to his need to affirm his place as one of the top runners and prove himself competent. Steve said:

But to be part of the group that was traveling, it was like oh yeah, we're going to California. Not because you want to go to California so much, but because it was a privilege that okay, if you were in the top three or four guys you were going to go to Stanford to go to THIS meet, and the rest of you guys... You're going to Western Michigan. Where would you rather go, San Francisco or Michigan? So part of it was being able to go to better places, and part of it was just being involved with the best guys on the team. And you're like, okay, I'm sort of in this upper-echelon of guys now.

Athletes also revealed that their sport fulfilled a need to perform for others.

Specifically, Cindy explained that one of her motivations for participating in sport was, "I

enjoy performing and doing stuff like that.” Diane possessed a similar perspective when discussing what was motivating to her about her sport. She said, “[The games] That’s when you see the fans. The fans are one of the biggest motivations, especially at Florida, because they’re great. And they come out every single day, and every single game, just to come watch you play.”

It is important to note that the need fulfillment described by the participants in my study is similar to the ideas put forth in self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2000) and the Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (Vallerand, 1997). The quotes in the preceding paragraphs lend weight to the construct of need fulfillment as a factor in motivation. Each of the above athletes described particular aspects of their sport that satisfied in inner desire. Specifically, David and Steve both make reference to their need to feel competent or display competence, which is one of the three basic needs outlined by self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2000).

Feelings of Satisfaction and Accomplishment

The second reason goals served as a motivator was the feelings athletes received from achieving them. Six of the participants in the current study described their feelings of accomplishment and satisfaction when they reached a goal as important sources of motivation. A quote from Steve articulated those feelings, “[When I look back at] stuff I set out at the beginning of the year on that note card I was like I want to win as an individual and I want to win as a team and I actually accomplished both of those things. It’s the greatest feeling when you actually achieve that stuff.” Doug said, “It was just an amazing accomplishment for me to reach my goal of playing college basketball, but to actually get out on the floor and play in the first game felt unbelievable.” Lester gave insight into the feelings of satisfaction that he got from setting high standards for himself

during practices. He said, “I’m very satisfied when I get pushed so hard [in practice] I think I’m gonna die. Cause at the end I think, ahh, I made it through; I can do this again.” Steve echoes Lester’s mentality with his statements on difficult workouts:

Workouts were more fun than the easy days, because you knew you were going to get a lot out of it. You were going to be pushed to your max. I always liked that anyway. I actually liked the hardest workouts better than the easy workouts. I feel like I accomplish more, even if I wasn’t able to finish the whole thing.

The way in which the athletes above described their willingness to push their limits in order to gain a sense of satisfaction and accomplishment from goals lends depth to the strength of goals as a powerful source of motivation. The use of goals was a great example of an internal driving force for athletes, but it is not the only one. The participants in the current study also used their emotions to channel physical performance. The next section will discuss athletes’ use of one specific emotion, anger as a source of motivation.

Anger

Throughout the interview process a number of different emotions were linked to athletes’ experiences in their sport. The participants described feeling love, excitement, nervous, disappointed, and stressed just to name a few. One emotion that athletes’ isolated as a source of motivation for them was anger (Figure 3). Five of the athletes provided evidence to support the construct that athletes can use emotions such as anger as sources of motivation to succeed. Statements like, “If someone does that, pisses me off, I use it”, “Sometimes when I get mad it helps”, and “You know I’d get mad, just very mad and take it out”, show athletes’ awareness of their use of anger. The anger may come from a variety of sources for instance; Lucy talked about being mad at teammates and how she used that to supplement her performance. She explained the scenario in this

way, “You know to me I use it [anger] and I’ve done it before when some of my teammates might have said something so off the wall that makes me mad, I’m just going to like okay, I’m going to use it.” She commented that it gave her “some kind of extra adrenaline flow.” David further defined the link between the teammate dynamic and anger in this quote:

[When my teammates talked trash to me] then I’d get pissed off and I’d just go up and start swimming really fast and I’d just start screaming at him and I’d just say, “What’s up now?” kind of thing. And we were really competitive with each other and it helped us in practice.

Jeff described a time when he had personal issues that he drew on to perform better during a competition. He detailed the event like this, “I was so mad. I was just so mad that that last 200 meters I don’t think my feet even touched the ground I was running so hard...’Cause anger is a very strong feeling. It can be used in a positive way.” Lucy said, “I just use anger toward working hard basically instead of just feeling sorry for myself.” A statement such as this provided evidence which suggested that athletes consciously chose to use anger to accomplish something positive. The first order theme, something to prove, emerged to provide insight into the ways that athletes interpret the feelings and emotions associated with anger.

Something to Prove

Athletes in the current study who felt that anger was a source of motivation interpreted their feelings of anger in a way that translated into athletic success. When they felt slighted or threatened they channeled their emotions into physical performance. Five participants discussed how their need to show people that they were talented and good enough to participate in sport at a high level was a source of motivation. For instance, Jeff said:

I just want to prove something to people. I just wanted to show off basically. What I had in me; my talent. You just want to show to the best that you deserve to be at that level. I deserve to be here. You just want to say, “Hey I’m here and I’m going to be a force to be reckoned with.

David described one of his most memorable experiences as an instance where he and his swim team of “nobody’s” ended up as one of the top ranked teams in the country. He had this to say:

Probably my most memorable moment [of my athletic career] was my senior year [in college] when we got fourth in NCAA’s and that was a real big accomplishment for our team because we were a bunch of nobody’s. My teammates, the whole senior class, and most of the other people were just a bunch of nobody’s and no one recruited us out of high school, and we ended up getting fourth our senior year and we were ranked tenth or eleventh all year long. And we were the fourth best team in the nation was kind of an accomplishment.

Three of the athletes interviewed for the study struggled to get accepted to their universities, and were motivated to prove that they belonged in college. Jenny said, “[It] has definitely built my character. Having to show that I belong, having to prove that I could get into this school. Whether it be through the appeals process or whatever.” Jeff also had trouble meeting the academic requirements of his university. He said, “With the academics it was like I don’t even deserve to be here [college]. So I’m like I wanna show people what I’m made of.” David had the most revealing quote that tied his struggles with admittance to the university to his desire to prove himself. He described it this way:

I had good grades in high school; I just couldn’t get into UF. And my coach at the time, he is no longer here, gave me a little money to get accepted. It was something like a \$20 scholarship-athletic scholarship to get in. ‘Cause that was the only way I could get in. Anyway, my freshman year I wanted to prove myself and he didn’t get resigned [contract renewed] after my freshman year. And then the new coach came in, and my whole sophomore year I had to start all over. I had to prove myself all over again. And that was a big thing; proving to myself that I was a good athlete, that was pretty much it. I was trying to prove it to my coaches, but most of all I was proving it to myself. Because I’m not going to go around and say...Point to them and say “Look, look what I’ve done. I’ve done this all by myself. I just wanted to prove to myself that I’m capable of being better.

The athletes who felt they had been in some way underestimated were motivated to prove that they belonged. David explained how he used his feelings of being slighted as a source motivation. He said:

I guess you've got to get fuel from somewhere. I've been doing this for so long, I wouldn't call myself lazy, I'm just a relaxed easy-going guy, and if there's something that drives me, it helps a lot. I guess in swimming, showing the most and getting pissed off and proving my coaches wrong, especially my head coach [was big motivator].

Only one athlete who discussed anger did not feel that it was a source of motivation for her. Cindy acknowledged that athletes she knew used anger as a motivator, but did not feel that she had the disposition to employ such a source herself. She summed up her experiences with anger this way, "I don't really get angry about stuff or mad. I'm kind of laid back. So that doesn't work. I don't really get fired up about anything." Her choice to use emotions in a positive way leads one to wonder if the process was simply a beneficial mechanism for coping with emotions, or were athletes drawn to sport as a physical outlet for stress? There was evidence that supported the idea that athletes used their chosen sport as an outlet for stress, and this in turn acted as a motivator for them to continue in their participation.

Outlet for Stress/ Aggression

Participants in the current study described how participation in sport carried with it a certain degree of stress for the athletes, whether it is from high expectations or competition. However, the athletes in my study also indicated that their sport was an outlet for stress. Four first order themes defined this category (Figure 3), "Sport as an outlet," "Escaping problems through sport," "Release of emotional energy through physical activity," and "Feeling better after participation."

Sport as an Outlet

The participants in the current study cited the physical exertion required during participation as a major release for them. Both levels of athlete, collegiate and club sport athletes in particular identified this benefit as a source of motivation for participation. The athlete's sport served as an outlet for stress precisely for the reasons described in the previous section. Participating in a sport enabled individuals to separate themselves from their emotions and frustrations by refocusing their attention on a more enjoyable task, and allowed them to release and express their built up emotions through physical actions. The athletes from a broad range of sports conveyed some highly similar experiences involving their sport as an outlet for relieving stress.

Escaping from Problems through Sport

One aspect that received a considerable amount of focus was the participants' tendency to step away from outside problems while they were engrossed in the activity.

Diane expressed her experience as an escape:

Being able to forget everything else in your life and just being able to play on the field. For ninety minutes you don't have to worry about anything else. You can get a lot of aggression out; you can get a lot of anger out. And just having fun being surrounded by good people...

Similar ideas were expressed by Ryan, "Just being able to go to Judo, work hard, and not think about anything else, that's more my release." Kacy had this to say:

[Playing your sport] It kind of lets you; it's a way to let you relieve yourself from everything else. All your other pressures, and all that kind of stuff. You're out there and there's nothing else you have to worry about. You just out there to play and have fun. And I think for a lot of people that can be very therapeutic...It is [for me]. I guess what I'm saying about it being therapeutic. If things aren't going well, in your life, when you step out there and all of sudden you're doing all these things well; you're playing these great balls, it kind of lifts you up.

Release of Emotional Energy through the Release of Physical Energy

Another aspect of sport as an outlet that was emphasized was the release of emotional energy through the release of physical energy. One participant, Ryan expressed that exchange in this statement, “All your stresses, everything just bleeds out on the mat...” Lester described his release of aggression through sport by saying, “You don’t have to be aggressive in judo to get out aggression. It’s just the physical activity itself that helps relieve the aggression.” A very in-depth explanation of the interaction between physical and emotional energy release was displayed in a passage from Diane:

I guess it’s like a non-contact sport [soccer], if there’s someone else who has the ball in front of you and they’ve sort of knocked one of your friends over, you can get a lot of frustration out by just okay you’re going for the ball, but you’re also going to get half of the player as well. And it’s like a physical, very physically demanding game. If you’re angry, and like you’re really screwed up, like stuff inside you, like just to go run for 90 minutes; it just gives you a breath of fresh air. You just kind of get it all out. Then you’re too tired to be angry.

Lester provided a summative statement about the reasons that sport, being an outlet for stress and aggression, was a source of motivation. He said:

I find that my confrontation level goes way down when I use my sport as an outlet because that’s my confrontation out there [on the mat]. I don’t know whether it’s just an ego thing or what, because I always feel that I have to match wits with somebody or physical confrontation. What motivates me to work out is that I know I’m much easier to get along with in my personal life. I feel that my stress level is way down. I feel better. I just feel clearer. So it motivates me because I just feel better when I work out. So that’s definitely a high motivation factor for me...Yea so my mental health as well as my physical health is a big motivation for me.

Through the wide range of testimony given by athletes in various contexts, one begins to gain an understanding of how sport can serve as an outlet for stress release, and how this type of benefit could serve as a major source of motivation to participate. Up to this point this paper has discussed sources of motivation that exist internally within athletes; however there were also a variety of motivators with an external origin.

Important people in athletes' lives were another source of motivation. The next sections will focus on these and other external sources of motivation.

External Sources of Motivation

In the current study the external sources of motivation were defined as sources of motivation that exist outside of the athlete, but within the social context of sport. These include family, friends, team aspects of sport, coaches, pressure and high expectations, benefits of participation, competition, and pre-competition motivators. All of the factors listed above play a role providing motivation for athletes. Many of these sources supplement the athletes' motivation when internal motivators are not enough to maintain the type of effort necessary to compete in collegiate level and club level athletics. The first external motivator that most of the participants discussed was the role that family played in their motivation. The following section will provide a more in-depth look at family as an external source of motivation for athletes.

Family

Family was a significant source of motivation that participants in the current study deemed important on multiple levels. Figure 3 outlines four first order themes that fell under the category of family; "initial exposure to sports," "family as a support system," "father as coach," and "family as confidants." Each of these dimensions of the family construct instills depth to the category as a source of motivation.

Initial Exposure to Sports

One way that family served as a source of motivation to athletes was that parents and siblings acted as the mechanism for getting the athlete involved in sport for a majority of the participants (10 of 14 participants). Six of the participants described their

dad as being “athletic” or as having an “athletic background.” Two others were exposed to sports through the influence of the entire family. For example, Amy said:

I guess our family is just really into sports and pretty athletic. So once I started I just didn't want to stop. Sports was just something our family does all the time. We would also go to the pool and swim together and run together. And always play games outside when we were little, like soccer games...cause we have six people I our family I guess it kind of came naturally to us.

Kacy, a collegiate soccer athlete, described how she was first introduced to her sport through the participation of her older siblings. She said, “Everybody in my family is really athletic. My brother and sister both played soccer. All of us played a whole bunch of different sports. It [soccer] was the one that I always wanted to play when I first saw my brother and sister play I was like I want to play that!” Nine of the participants had brothers or sisters that participated in sports. It is also interesting to note that a majority of the participants competed in the same sport that other athletes in their family competed.

Family as a Support System

A second capacity in which family served as a source of motivation involved the support system that loved one provided for the athletes. Four athletes felt that their parents were a source of strength for them, especially when they struggled with their own motivation, or things did not go well with their sport. Athletes listed examples of support such as unconditional love as in this quote from Jenny, a walk on collegiate soccer player, “I call home and I talk to my parents, and they're there, you know the they're going to love you if you played the worst game, or if you played the best game, it's all going to be the same.” Lucy explained that her family was a source of inspiration to her because of the sacrifices her mother made to encourage and attend competitions. She

said, “She [my mom] is my biggest motivator. She is where I get most of my motivation from...she never missed a game, never missed anything.”

Father as Coach

Coach was another capacity that family fulfilled that served as sources of motivation. Two of the participant had parents who were involved coaching them during the beginning stages of their athletic participation, which served as a motivation to stay involved the sport. Lester discussed his father’s extensive background in judo, and his role in coaching him like this:

Over the years it was very difficult for me to get my black belt because of who my father was. He eventually promoted me, but it was like a lot of people surpassed me that I was in judo with for the same amount of time and got promoted before me, but...I was always expected to do things perfect, better than the average people, so I was held back a little longer. You know I’m my father’s son and I’m expected to do this perfect. And over the years I’ve beat 10’s, hundreds of black belts over the years before I was even promoted to black belt. While my skill level was certainly up there, it was just when my father felt it was the right time. I was always motivated to achieve by his expectations.

Family as a Confidant

Athletes also made mention of parents who listened to complaints and helped to provide perspective and wisdom when times were tough. A statement by Jenny illustrated this role, “I find it [motivation] from my family. My dad helps me out a lot. He’s like, ‘its okay, today shall pass too’ and that helps me. He does motivate me. He pushes me a lot [because he knows me so well], even though he doesn’t know anything about soccer.” The theme of “family” provided a variety of external resources that athletes used as sources of motivation. The next section explores the role of friends as another external source of motivation to athletes.

Friends

All of the athletes who participated in my study were influenced to participate by some outside force. Along with family, friends were a significant source of motivation for athletes' participation in sport (Figure 3.) Two first order themes pertaining to friends were identified by participants as playing a role in providing motivation for participation in sport, "motivated by friend's participation," and "comparison/ competition between friends."

Motivated by Friend's Participation

In the instances identified by the participants in the current study, they were inclined to participate in their chosen sport because a friend was already active. Terry described his reasoning like this, "[My friend was running] so I'm like okay, I join the track team too." David pointed to a similar experience when he said, "I guess one of the reasons why I started swimming competitively was to be around her [friend] more." Cindy cited a specific instance when she was already participating in one sport and she became interested in pole vault just because a friend thought it would be fun to do. She said, "I just remember her [a friend] talking about it, and I was doing gymnastics at the time, and another girl from gymnastics was doing pole vaulting also. And I just wanted to try it; it sounded neat."

Comparison and Competition between Friends

Not only did friends play a direct role in getting the athletes involved in sport, but they also served as a source to continue participation. "Comparison and competition between friends" was portrayed as a strong catalyst for one athlete's continued participation. Terry, discussed how he used his competitiveness with friends as a motivator in this passage:

I just always compare myself to a lot of my friends and how they're doing, and other elite athletes that I felt were not too far above me, but you know close where I would say, "Well this guy is a little bit better than me, so I better run faster or run harder, to more to catch up you know."

This statement supported the concept that comparison of self to successful others can drive athletes to be successful. This theme will become even more prominent in the upcoming section dealing with teammates and the team atmosphere.

Teammates and Team Atmosphere

The athletes in my study reported that they drew on the highly contextual resource of teammates to provide motivation in a variety of ways. The category "teammates" acted as a source of motivation when the participants felt their teammates were successful (Figure 3). In addition they used the support of the other athletes, as well as their seemingly contagious enthusiasm as sources of motivation. The participants in the current study also obtained motivation when they felt included by the team, and when they strove to separate themselves from the group in order to be the best. To better understand how athletes derive motivation from their teammates, one must first obtain an understanding of how the athletes perceived the environment in which they practiced and competed.

Team Aspects of Sport

Axial coding produced a higher order theme which was titled "team aspects of sport." It is important to note that in the methods section of my study, one of the sample criteria for the selection of the initial participants was that they were an individual sport participant. The primary reason for sampling athletes who competed in individual sports was to get a view of athletes' sources of motivation as they related to the athlete's personal experience with their sport. It was originally thought that participants who

competed in individual sports might provide more focused insight into the internal forces that drive athletes to participate and compete in sport. However, all of the initial participants cited sources of motivation embedded in relationships with teammates or some aspect of being part of a team. The emphasis placed on team by the individual sport athletes created the need to look at athletes involved in team sports for possible similarities and differences in motivation to participate. The following paragraphs will expand on the sources of motivation that existed within the team context for individual sport and team sport athletes.

Camaraderie of the Team/ Team Atmosphere

Athletes from both individual and team sports received motivation from contextual influences based on the social interactions that are inherent in sport. All fourteen participants in the current study alluded to particular aspects of being part of a team as important to their personal motivation. Athletes in individual sports as well as team sports made mention of the “camaraderie of the team” or “team atmosphere” as important sources of enjoyment and motivation within the sport context. Terry, a distance runner, described his experience with team in this way: “I just loved competing with three other guys against other teams. I liked it more than the individual races in track...I guess it’s just the team atmosphere that I enjoy better than the individual.” Diane, a soccer player said:

I think the biggest thing about soccer is that it’s a team sport. That was my best motivation. It’s like; okay you have a team around you that are going to take half the blame for it if you mess up. You have a responsibility to, you know...I like the camaraderie; I like being able to hang out, and the socializing aspect of it as well as the actually physical and mental playing wise.

These quotes from the individual and team sport athletes displayed the athletes' keen interest in contributing to the success of the team, and feelings of accountability for their performance.

Friendships and Loyalty

The reasons for feelings of commitment and dedication seemed to be tied to two factors. The first was friendships and loyalty developed within the team. Kacy, a soccer player elaborated on the importance of friendships with teammates in this statement:

Since I've been at Florida these are my closest friends...It definitely makes you want to play for the other person when you're out there...That's a good relationship to have. That's the best part. That is definitely by far the thing I have gotten the most of playing here is the friendships, for sure.

Another athlete referred to his club as a "second family." These athletes seemed to carry a strong sense of duty to their teammates. They felt that others on the team were depending on them, and their sense of responsibility and relatedness pushed them to practice and play at a high level.

Shared Goals

The second factor that appeared important to athletes' feelings of accountability was "shared goals". Four participants stated that they felt accountability to their teammates because they were working toward the same goals. Revealing personal motivators to teammates seemed to drive athletes to succeed even when their internal motivation is low. For instance, Steve recounted his feelings about team goal setting in this paragraph:

I think it's good especially when we shared our goals with our teammates and stuff. So there's sort of some accountability there. Like, alright everybody knows I want to place, such and such, at a state meet or national championships, and there's no getting off the hook now. When you're sort of hurting in practice they're going to say, "Hey, you want to be in the top 20 in this race you're going to have to step it up." I always use them as a motivational factor as well.

The previous statements show the motivating power of athletes playing for each other. The participants were more motivated when they felt that everyone on the team was playing for the common good of the team. The athletes viewed the idea that individuals play together as a team as being similar to a whole being stronger than the sum of its parts. They also indicated that dedication and commitment to the same goals and to teammates allowed for the greatest opportunity for success.

Jenny, a soccer player, also gave evidence that a lack of these types of feelings about team and teammates might have an equally damaging effect on individual motivation. She described her struggles with staying motivated during last season in this quote, “Sometimes I think I feel like the players make you feel that way [like you are not good], and that’s why I say it’s a blow to your confidence sometimes. And that’s why you can’t rely on them; you have to rely on yourself.” She elaborated by saying:

It’s high [the within team competition at the university level] and it’s...sometimes I feel like they’re going for me and I have the team behind me, and then sometimes I feel that they aren’t. And that might be because I’m not as skilled a player as everyone so I mess up more and getting yelled at more than I am getting cheered on or “good job”, you know, praised. It’s very different on this team. It’s different than any other team I’ve been on because I’ve never been in question of whether or not my team is behind me, and here I am.

Her statements were in sharp contrast to that of the other participants, but lend even more support to the importance athletes placed on commitment to the team and the motivation derived from the relationships, and the shared goals within the team structure.

Teammate Support

The support of teammates was also a team related dynamic that was cited as a contributor to the motivation of the participants in the current study. Based around the same beliefs that made the players feel accountable and committed to their teammates, the athletes’ confidence was bolstered when their teammates showed belief in their

ability. Five of the participants cited instances where they were not playing well, and demonstrations of support by their teammates provided them with the motivation to increase the level of intensity in their play. One athlete described an interaction involving teammate support like this:

With soccer if you're having an off day, then you have other teammates to lean on you know? I mean they're always going to be supportive, you know. You can tell if your friends are having a bad day, or you can tell if your friend's like touches aren't normal, or they're not pushing as hard as they can. They would always ask for, you just get to know each other more, you know? You don't want to let someone down again. You want to...they're your teammates you know, and they know you better than anyone else...So I definitely like to bounce off my teammates, and look to them for support.

Teammate Enthusiasm

Three participants in the study talked about the role that their teammates' enthusiasm played in keeping their own motivation high (Figure 3). The athletes discussed the enthusiasm of their teammates as an outside inspiration used to help get them motivated, especially during practices when their individual motivation was low. Kacy said, "I like the encouragement [of teammates]. When I'm out there [on the field], it helps. Lucy stated, "I can say that I get more motivated when I saw that the rest of my team was also getting motivated to do better. Cause when they weren't motivated it was kind of a struggle." She goes on to say, "Once one or two people get like that [being excited and motivated] it gets infectious. Cindy described the contagious effect of teammate enthusiasm this way:

I guess it's from everybody else. I think it feeds off each other, at practices when we're maybe not all there. You know, you've had a long day or something. I think you can feed off other teammates you know when they're all there, and they've got that motivation in them for the day, it kind of rubs off.

The term "feeding" off of teammates' enthusiasm was an interesting phrase that was repeated by multiple participants. It insinuated being hungry or in need of

enthusiasm and motivation. The infectious property of enthusiasm made it an important source from which athletes could draw the everyday motivation they needed to continue the rigorous workout routines required for high level competition.

Competing against Teammates

The aspect of the team context most frequently mentioned by the participants was the interpersonal competition between teammates. The higher order theme “competitive atmosphere of team” divulged insight into the inner workings of the athletes’ relationships with their teammates, and the constructs surrounding their sources of motivation within this context. Five of the athletes interviewed for the study made reference to comparing themselves to high level teammates. This competition between teammates seemed to motivate the athletes to work harder in the practice setting. David, a collegiate swimmer described his interactions with one of his teammates this way, “The guy I mentioned earlier, he was highly recruited out of high school, when we were both in the pool we were really competitive and we’d always I guess you could say talk c**p to each other during practice. And it helped motivate us.” Ryan detailed the benefits of his competitive relationship with his teammate in this statement, “Blake, he’s in Russia right now, the Ukraine to be exact, and he’s awesome. He’s better than me...when we go together we really push each other hard, and we’ve gotten to the point where we’re stalemating each other and we have to try new things.” The drive to best teammates seemed to come from an internal desire or need to compete. Some athletes in the study referred to this quality as competitive nature.

Competitive Nature

Three participants made reference to their “competitive nature.” This first order theme was strongly tied to a person’s need to win, another higher order theme that will be

described in more depth in the following sections. A majority of the athletes in my study (n= 9) admitted to being competitive in areas other than sport. The tendency to pit oneself against others in general contexts in life was considered “competitive nature.” The athletes described it as, “I don’t like to give up on something”, and “Always wanting to win. Having the competitive attitude, it definitely helps.” This competitive nature, along with other factors intertwined in the environment of competitive sports was an important force behind motivation.

Embarrassment

Another aspect of athletes’ competition with their teammates that surfaced within multiple data points was embarrassment if one was showed up by teammates. Athletes made references to different situations within the team context where they expressed shame if their performance in practice wasn’t up to the level of a particular teammate. A quote by David lent depth to this idea:

They [teammates] could just embarrass you pretty much if you have an off day. Someone could just, it makes you seem like they’re just swimming laps back and forth just passing you. And sometimes its embarrassment coming off an off-day is what motivates. That would have motivated me to work harder and be better the next day, or the next practice; whatever it was.

The idea that David alluded to was an important concept in understanding what triggers motivation in athletes. An athlete’s chosen sport was one way they represented themselves to others. It was considered a reflection of self. Athletes who competed at the collegiate and club sport level spent a great deal of time preparing for competitions, and the hard work created a sense of pride in their ability and skill as it pertained to their sport. When an athlete felt that they were being overshadowed or outperformed by others, that sense of pride or that image of self was damaged, and the feelings of embarrassment were triggered. That then became a source of motivation to work harder

and perform better. A statement by Steve illustrated the thinking that went on when athletes dealt with teammates who they felt were trying to show them up:

I don't know if it was good or bad, but it definitely mattered. When those people weren't around we were like, "I wonder what this guy is doing today? Trying to show everybody up in practice when everybody knows he doesn't belong up there [at the front of the pack]." Or, "What was this guy doing sand-bagging the whole time and then he would come on the last one and try and beat everybody when he's been running a minute slower on the first four of the five [laps] and then he's running one fast one?" I don't know if it was good or bad but people definitely noticed what was going on. I think to bring it all into perspective with motivational sources definitely for me too, there was definitely one teammate of mine that really got steamed when guys would try and run with him. He was one of the best guys and he would get real mad when lesser caliber athletes would try and run with him, even if it was the first of five intervals. And he would get so mad; he would try so hard to drop these guys. I guess it helps; it's a source of motivation. I guess people don't want people that they don't feel are at their level yet to try every practice and I don't know maybe if that's good or bad, but definitely served its source.

Athletes who chose to participate and compete at higher level athletic endeavors had made important investments and sacrifices to achieve at that particular level. The dedication to their sport and to excellence in their sport produced an environment in which competition and success were necessities. However, contrary to previous research (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000), there was evidence within my study to support the idea that athletes who participate at more highly competitive levels of sport, such as the participants in my study, thrive in such environments. Lucy explained that, "I like the competitive atmosphere. I know that everyday if I go, somebody's gonna be competing with somebody in something, whether it's verbal or nonverbal [physical]." She elaborated by saying, "There is always room for more in this environment." Amy had this to say about competition, "I think it [competition] makes it more fun personally, because everyone out there is giving it their all." Terry revealed this about competing against high level teammates, "practices were more competitive though [than high school]...you come to college and you're racing against, you're practicing with people

who are your ability level or better you know? It made you run harder at practice I can tell you that much.” In subsequent sections, competition will be examined more closely as a contextual factor as well as a source of motivation to athletes.

Cheering on Teammates

Other sources of motivation that occur within the context of team included cheering on teammates (Figure 3). Cindy said, “I just like to be around other people and I enjoy cheering each other on, and keeping focused on the competition. That keeps me motivated during it [competitions], mentally.” Kacy also stated, “I like to motivate other people. I talk a lot, and it’s like...I’m very positive.” The evidence indicated that athletes gained motivation by motivating others, or feeling that they were. This source was tied closely with another first order theme, “Contributing to team success.”

Contributing to Team Success

Three of the participants felt that they were motivated by wanting to contribute to the team’s success. Terry illustrated this point when he said, “I feel good when I run a fast time and help out the team, you know?” He continued by adding “I care more about the team than I do about the individual performance.” Cindy talked about her motivation to help the team in this way, “You just feel better about yourself when you know what you’re doing and when you know you’re helping out the team win the championship.”

Being Part of an Elite Group

One driving force that existed only for the collegiate athletes who participated in the current study was being part of an elite group. Lending support to this construct, Lucy discussed how being surrounded by high level teammates acted as motivation for her to achieve their level of performance. She said:

Like I see it like if I want an individual kind of title I have to do it in one of the events by myself. And it is not going to be easy, because I got some extremely good teammates. Like they are on the Olympic level basically. So like that's just a challenge to me to see if I can work extra hard to get to that...being a part of the number one throwing group in the country, the number one throwers in the country, individual people [that motivates me].

Lynn further detailed this construct when she emphasized her desire to have expectations set for the highest level of achievement with this statement, "Wanting to be an elite college team, rather than just a college team." Jenny discussed the difficulty and importance of keeping her confidence in an elite atmosphere in this way:

These girls are good. You're training with the best. You really do have to constantly work at yourself, your insides. I always find that is the hardest thing for me. Not even working on my tactical or technical, it's giving myself the confidence to be like okay "I'm going to win this ball." Giving myself the confidence to say "okay you're good enough to be out here, so now show it."

Success of Teammates

The team atmosphere yielded yet another source of motivation in the "success of teammates." Athletes who participated in my study identified others' success as a source motivation. Lucy spoke of teammate success in this manner, "Five of my teammates who went before me all had PR's (personal records), and I was like yea, I can do this too." She went on to talk about using the same sort of motivation during the off-season in this quote, "I'm like even more highly motivated, even though I'm not in season right now, like just watching my teammates. Like all of them are breaking personal records, and I'm like "I can't wait till next year!"

Success of Team

Similarly, the success of the team had enhancing effects on motivation. For instance, athletes spoke of the importance of being on a winning team this way. David said "I always wanted to be on a winning team. And so when I came to college that's

what I worked for the most, is a team championship. That's probably what fueled me the most." He then finished off the topic by adding this phrase, "Individual accomplishments came with training for a team goal."

Being a Leader to Teammates

A final theme that emerged from the data text was "being a leader to teammates." Jeff, a middle distance runner, talked about experiencing the pressures of leadership, and why he felt motivated from those demands. He said, "The guys who were with me [teammates] worked so hard, and looked up to me so much that it was like I want them to feel how I feel." The theme of leadership was a powerful dynamic to team atmosphere because it really illustrated how the athletes were tied together by common goals and aspirations. Often the unifying vision for the goals a group of athletes wanted to achieve came from another source of motivation for athletes, the coach.

Coach

One motivator that was essential to the success of all of the athletes was the coach. Figure 3 delineated how the player-coach relationship revolved around a plan that the coach has for an athlete, and the athlete's willingness to follow that plan through to completion. The athletes in my study provided a wealth of evidence to this affect. For the participants, the coach served capacities that ranged from being "an advisor" to "being demanding" and "having high expectations."

Setting up and Reinforcing Program Goals

The first key to the coach acting as a motivator was that he or she provided a set of goals and expectations that the athletes' believed would make them successful. The theme "coach setting up and reinforcing program goals", emerged as a source of motivation because the athletes indicated that they were motivated by an environment

structured around goals. For instance, Lynn talked about all of the swimmers on her team understanding and meeting the expectations of the coach. She said:

I think that [everyone on the team having the same goals] all stems from the coaching staff. I think we had fun, but at the same time we knew what we were there for and I think that was very important and it usually weeded out the people who weren't very serious...[coach would say] "I'm going to expect you to be a practice every time there is a practice, every time you're supposed to."

An interesting aspect of the above quote was Lynn's statement about "weeding out" the athletes who did not take the swimming seriously. This statement lent further credence to the view that team atmosphere played an important role in the motivation of athletes. It also illustrated how the coach was tied to creating and maintaining that unified source of motivation for the athletes. By only keeping athletes in the program who worked hard and took the sport and goals of the program "seriously", the coach facilitated the competitive team atmosphere that served as an important motivator to his or her players.

Confidence in Coach's Knowledge

Another component necessary for the coach to function as a motivator was the athletes' "confidence in the coach's knowledge." Lester cited the need for his coach's guidance and knowledge during his training because he did not feel that he had a "realistic picture" of what it would take for him to be successful. He stated it this way:

[I don't have the ability to push myself] not as hard as my coaches. I've had some very good coaches...Those guys push me hard. I can't...I mean I have so much knowledge. They have far more knowledge. They know what I need to do. It is very hard to be objective about one's self. I have my picture of myself that I have drawn. They know what the real picture is. They know what needs to be done, I know what I think needs to be done.

The importance of an athlete's confidence in a coach's knowledge was elaborated on by Lucy discussed her coach's role in her development this way, "Now I know I have

a coach who has thrown before and he knows what he is doing. Then that helps out. Cause he can tell me from what I did wrong, why, and how to fix it.” She goes on, expressing her feeling of urgency to acquire as much knowledge as she can get because she was beginning her last year of eligibility. She said, “I wish I could have spent all my years here, because I kind of came into a situation where I had to get it [coach’s knowledge] now and get it fast, because now I’m on my last year.” The statements made by Lucy not only described the coach’s role as a source of motivation, but also helped to more clearly define a theme that was previously discussed, “seeing improvement.”

Running Out of Time to Achieve Goals

As discussed earlier, one of the major sources of motivation for athletes was seeing improvement in their performance. The relationship between a player and a coach was strongly based on this need, and the coach’s ability to facilitate it. The intensity of the relationship was compounded by the sense of urgency athletes felt because they only had a limited amount of time to achieve their goals in their current collegiate setting. There are two first order themes that relate to this topic. The first was labeled “last year/running out of time to achieve goals.” One of the athletes described this source of motivation is this way, “I’m so much more motivated because it’s my last year and I want to do good.” Another participant discussed the feelings he had about taking for granted his opportunity to compete at the collegiate level. He said, “Man, I really feel like a jerk for feeling like I was wasting my time the last year, so I was really motivated to make better use of my last year.” David gave an in-depth look at how strong a motivator “running out of time” could be in this dialogue:

I had a bad summer and it was my senior year. I got second the year before at NCAA’s and won my individual swims and I wanted to go out with a bang my senior year and I trained. I was training the hardest I’ve ever trained in my life.

And that was probably one of the most motivated times in my life. And I was doing things I never thought I could do before, and it's just amazing to look back on it...I decided to give it my all everyday and I was eating right and doing things, off the field things. I was eating right and sleeping, and not going out as much, and trying to be fresh so I could do my best everyday at practice.

Take Advantage of Opportunity

The above passage reinforces the powerful impact that goals had on an athlete's motivation, as well as highlights the sacrifices he or she was willing to make to achieve those goals. Three of the participants in the current study viewed the chance to compete at the collegiate or club level as an opportunity. The desire to take advantage of this opportunity was identified as another source of motivation. Diane explained how she was moved to change her lifestyle in order to get the most out of her opportunity. She said:

[I was] blown out, partying, I had an awesome time. And then realizing you know, you need to get focused, and that you are here for a reason. So that whole summer I was so highly motivated I would train twice a day. Go out on my own, like I didn't need anyone to push me or anything.

Steve also illustrated these same motivations by saying:

So I want to take advantage of being young and stuff like that. Be able to say, "Yeah, I did the best I could." I don't want to look back and say, "Oh man, I was a real bum...stuff like that keeps me motivated saying, "Okay, I'm going to do everything right so that I can accomplish what I want to do.

Athletes who participate in sport at such a high level recognized the chance that they had been given to pursue their goals to such an extent. They used their opportunity as a source of motivation by keeping in perspective that it could be over at any time.

Cindy illuminated this factor with her statement, "it's such a great opportunity that I just try. That keeps me motivated, my goals, how I can improve, and what I can get out of it. I just want to make the most of my experience."

Coach's Confidence in Athlete

As with an athlete's relationship with teammates, the relationship between coaches and players motivated some players to give maximum effort. Similar to the effects teammates had on a player's motivation, when an athlete felt that a coach had confidence in him or her it became a reservoir from which to draw motivation. By adding to the players' own self-confidence, a coach's confidence inspired feelings that drove the athlete to fulfill the coach's expectations for them. This was clearly illustrated in a paragraph by Diane:

Just knowing that a lot of people [coach] had a lot of faith in my ability, and I was getting; they were giving me opportunities. They were giving me money, they were giving me their time, they were giving me their energy. And I didn't want to let people down, and like it was just a point where I was like, "okay, this is not the reason I'm over here. Yeah, I want to get an education, but too I think it's to represent this college so... A lot of it was I didn't want to let people down.

The influence of a coach's confidence in his athletes extended in the other direction as well. If a player felt that the coach lacked confidence in him or her, it had a damaging effect on the athlete's motivation. Jenny describes what happened to her motivation when she did not feel that the coach had confidence in her ability. She said:

I'm in question as to whether my coaches want me here because it's a totally different atmosphere. There are different things at stake. There are times when I want to go up to my coaches and ask them, "Do you want me here?" Not that I feel like, and I don't think they would ever answer that because I think that they expect you to build that up on your own, and be totally driven by your own self-motivation. And that's all, and that's why my family is so big, and that's why God is so big. Because I can't rely completely on myself, because I can't do it by myself. I can do it with God's help. It's just so hard at this level.

Not only did this passage illustrate the impact that a coach's confidence or lack thereof, can have on a player's motivation, but it also underlined the importance of some of the other sources of motivation athletes rely on such as family and religion.

It is important to note that within the above quote there was an important discrepant perception suggested by this athlete. Jenny was a walk-on to the varsity soccer team at her college, meaning that she did not receive a scholarship or financial compensation for her efforts toward the soccer team. She also had not experienced much success in her first season with the team, and these factors seem to have lowered her confidence and motivation to participate. She expressed in her interview that she felt the coaches expected her motivation to come from within. The perception that she was the only athlete who maintained external sources of motivation, and needed the coach's confidence, contributed to her feelings of low motivation. Because she felt her needs and sources of motivation were different from those of her teammates, she prevented herself from engaging them as a highly valuable resource from which to draw strength.

Coach as an Encourager

Another role that the coach fulfilled that served as a source of motivation for athletes is that of an encourager (Figure 3). The participants cited examples of their coach's influence in both getting involved, and staying with in their chosen sport. For one athlete in particular, Lucy, it was her coach who got her involved in her sport (shot put). Taking the place that parents fulfilled in getting some of the other athletes involved in sports, Lucy was introduced to her sport by her middle school coach. She said, "I didn't want to play sports. I wanted to be like a cheerleader or something. They [coaches] kind of kept bugging me everyday like just try, just try, and I was like okay fine I'll try." She elaborated on this topic by saying, "But when I got to high school, I don't know they just kind of made me stick with throwing." Once again, the above passage cited how an athlete was exposed to sport by an outside influence, which lends

further weight to the importance of significant others' as a source of motivation for high level athletes.

A second way in which a coach was an encourager was through inspirational speaking. The data coding yielded evidence that athletes used things the coach said as a source for motivation, especially immediately preceding a performance. Quotes such as, "The stuff he [coach] says is inspiring...I hear what he says and it kind of picks me back up", and "I think the team talking is huge. Especially what the coaches say to you right before you go step out onto the field. That's a huge thing."

Coach as an Advisor

A final way in which a coach served as a source of motivation was by being an advisor. Lynn recounted her relationship with her coaching staff by saying, "Also talking, mostly to the coaches. The coaches here helped a lot with that [keeping me motivated when I was feeling burned out] and usually they had really good advise." It is easy to see the complexity of the player-coach relationship in high level sport participation. One must have an understanding of this construct as the discussion turns to a source of motivation that involves the athlete and coach, "expectations" and "training at the highest possible level."

High Expectations and Pressure

Thirteen of the fourteen athletes interviewed for the study talked about the pressure and expectations that went along with participating in sport at a high level. There were six first order themes that fell under the category of high expectations and pressure. Figure 3 highlighted pressure from self, pressure of representing entity, expectations from coaches, striving to reach personal standards, striving to reach coach's expectations, and coach's expectations too high all as subcategories. The overall perception presented by

the athletes was that they used the expectations to increase their intensity and performance, and viewed the pressure as a positive influence on their performance. To best understand how the athletes accessed this source of motivation we must first get an idea of what the expectations were and where they were coming from.

Pressure from Self

Some of the pressure that athletes coped with was self-imposed. For example, this quote by Lucy, “I would probably place it [pressure] on myself first, and then the team. Cause you have to look at yourself first before you look at everybody else. At least that’s the way I look at it.” Steve talked about the pressure he felt when he set his goals and how that motivated him. He said, “You set the bar high in certain areas; in athletics for sure.”

Pressure of Representing Entity

The athletes also felt the pressure of representing an entity larger than themselves and their team such as a university or a town. One athlete discussed the prospect of competing against others who were going to be in top form because they were facing “the best.” Jeff described having competitors “gunning for you” in this way, “I think [competition] is very stressful because you are a Florida Gator. You’ve got to be at you’re A game all the time.”

Expectations of Coaches

Still even more lofty expectations were applied by the coaches. A paragraph by Lynn displayed some of these expectations:

In the pool you were expected to do one hundred percent each time. Naturally people are human and you can’t do one hundred percent, but any sort of, I mentioned before, all of them keeping you in line if you weren’t giving one hundred percent, they’ll be in your face.

Another quote by Diane provided insight into an athlete's perceptions of an environment where the goals of the program and the expectations of the coaches and players were nothing short of excellence. She said:

As the competition gets higher, the pressure gets higher. That can be a good thing when it's a final four. But it can also be a bad thing, because you just...as it gets harder you have a lot of expectations of what you're supposed to do. Especially coming to a program like UF, the motivation to succeed is a lot higher, especially from the coaching staff, because they've been there and they've done it. And you're going to get different players and they're going to bring in different types of players, but there is still that thing that they've done it before. They're going to use every single strategy, coaching and stuff like that the same way. And it's not going to work with most people, some of the girls on the team don't...their coaching style doesn't sit well with them. They're very demanding and if you can't do it then get out. I don't know. The higher competition, you want to strive...You're motivated to strive to get to a higher level, but the competition does get more stressful.

Striving to Reach Personal Standards

The various athletes had different interpretations of what the pressure meant to them and how they responded to it. For some of the athletes, the motivation came from their desire to participate in their sport at the highest possible level. Diane said, "My motivation is I don't ever want to let my standards slip," speaking about expecting nothing less than playing at the highest level possible. Jenny supplemented this argument with her testimony:

For me, I liked it [soccer], and I just got better and better each year. And then you reach a point where you can either keep going and keep getting better, pin-pointing those skills you need to master, or you can stay at the same level.

Striving to Reach Coach's Expectations

Athletes also gained motivation by trying to achieve standards set for them by a coach. David talked about his interactions with his swim coach and how he used the aggression he felt when the coach would "chew" him out. He cited this:

My coaches yelled at me a lot, and I always wondered why and then one day one of the old coaches was like, "Well, the reason he yelled at you was because you could

handle it and he knows that you're not going to bolt." And as I looked back on it he would chew on me every day and I never let it bother me. And I just got pissed off and it was my fuel. And I would end up doing what he'd asked me to do and surpassing what was expected of me. So it was my fuel I guess.

The experience David had with his swim coach brought to light an interesting social factor within the context of sport. David, like other athletes cited feeling "pissed off" when the coach would "yell" at him and that he used it for "fuel." David's response was to use his feelings of anger in a positive way by deriving motivation from his emotions. He was not the only athlete who referred to feelings of anger as a source of motivation. Previous sections discuss the use of anger as a source of motivation for athletes to achieve at high levels.

Coach's Expectations too High

Another social contextual factor that needs to be addressed was possible negative effects that extremely high expectations, particularly from a coach, could have on athletes' motivation. While many of the athletes pointed out the need for demanding goals and expectations, there was also evidence that indicated when a coach is too demanding it could be detrimental to an athlete's motivation. For instance, Lynn discussed in depth her relationship with one of her coaches in which she felt that the coach's expectations were necessary for her, but only to a point where she felt supported by her coach. She had this to say, "I needed them [high expectations]. I'm the type of person that needs someone behind me to do things, but as I said my coach before was a lot worse than they [the coaches at UF] in terms of expectations." Lynn then described a time when her coach's expectations were so heavy that it led her to feelings of burnout. She spoke of this particular incident:

Luckily with him [my first swim coach] it was only swimming that I had to worry about, but he had extremely high expectations in terms of training, going fast one

hundred percent. Really strict work ethic towards everything...By the time I left, cause I left not on really good terms or anything, but at first it wasn't too bad, but then he got a little psycho and then it started to hurt me more than help me...I hated swimming. I didn't want to swim for him, but I was to the point where I didn't care if I did swim.

She went on to say that, "I think there is a point where coaches can push too much and I got to that point with him [her coach]. So that became a problem with my motivation. I was a lot less motivated to do anything."

Benefits of Participation

Another higher order source of motivation identified by participants was benefits of participation in their respective sport (Figure 3). Many athletes (n=10) pointed out that they were motivated by the fringe benefits that came along with being an athlete. Cited were themes such as travel, meeting new people, and fulfillment of personal needs.

Travel

Participants in the current study felt that there were some external benefits to their participation in higher level sports. For instance, a quote by Kacy gave insight into this source of motivation:

For me, you get a lot of things out of playing. Not just the soccer, and part of being successful and having a lot of fun, but we also get to travel. We go a lot of places, we get to do a lot of things nobody has ever done. We get a lot of benefits. I mean our locker room is incredible. During classes, if you have a break you can go back there and sleep. We have big leather couches, they feed us. We get food all the time. There's just a lot. They take us fun places. We've been to California a few times, Europe. There are a lot of benefits to it.

Kacy alluded to a variety of benefits that she received from being on the university soccer team, one of which was travel. Six other athletes said the places they got to go for team road trips were a source of motivation for them. Cindy said, "I've gotten to travel a lot [with the team], a few different places. When we do travel our coach takes us out and

we go sight seeing. We went mountain climbing; we go snowmobiling.” Lucy added to this idea with her statement:

Yea [traveling is motivating]...the biggest benefit you get from traveling [with the team] is that you get to go places on them [the school]. I mean that’s like I get to go places that my family be like “Wow,” you know I take pictures, but they’ll probably never go to California.

Lynn expanded her feeling about travel to include not only the things she got to do while she was visiting new places, but also the people. She said, “I love traveling [to international competitions] and meeting different people and experiencing different cultures. Her perspective provided more clarity into why travel was motivating for athletes.

It is important to point out that the athletes who mentioned travel as a source of motivation were all collegiate level athletes. None of the club sport participants identified any travel that they did as a source of motivation. The discrepancy in motivation may have been because the club sport athletes had to pay for any travel that they did, where as the collegiate athletes’ travel was paid for by the university. However, collegiate and club sport athletes both felt that meeting new people was a source of motivation for them.

Meet New People

Four athletes identified the people they met while involved in their sport as a source of motivation for them. Similar to Lynn’s viewpoint Lester had this to say about his experiences, “I mean there are people all over the world that I’ve met that if I was not a part of this sport I would never have had an opportunity to.” Cindy agreed, “I feel like the track team is a very well-rounded group of people. So it’s giving me a lot of opportunities to meet new people and that’s what I like.” Lucy, who was African

American, discussed how her experiences with new people were valuable because they have allowed her to be comfortable around people with backgrounds different from hers. She said, “I have no problem now being around just all whites or just all Puerto Ricans, or just all blacks. I can mix in now. That’s what has taught me a lot.” Lucy’s statements provide insight into why meeting new people was motivating to some of the participants. Her quote about being able to “mix” insinuated that she saw value in being able to understand the people around her better, and her experiences in her sport gave her that ability.

The next subcategory that fell under the higher order theme benefits of participation was fulfillment of personal needs. This broad category encompassed a variety of first order themes such as: development of self confidence, taking care of and defending oneself, physical health benefits, and maintaining personal relationships. The following section will explore this category further.

Fulfillment of Personal Needs

A statement by Lester provided an overview of the general dimensions of this construct. His quote encompasses the multiple functions that a sport can serve in an individual’s life. He said:

The actual sport itself, to me is everything. It’s aerobic; it’s strength building. I get it all right here. It’s very gratifying. It’s applicable not just as a sport, but as a self-defense. I don’t think I’m invincible, but at the same token I have the confidence to do what I need to do. So it gratifies me in so many ways, and I’m probably leaving a lot out. The physical and mental aspect of it. The fact that it does a lot for me. Not only the mental aspect as far as it makes me feel good, but it helps me get along better in my personal relationships, because it helps me think clearer.

Physical Health Benefits

Lester brought up a spectrum of benefits that he received from judo which fulfilled his personal needs. For example he discussed the positive physical payoffs that he

received by participating in his sport. Terry also identified the health gains he received from running as a motivator. He had this to say, “[It motivates me] being able to go long distances and not be out of breath, or run really hard for a long amount of time.

Likewise, Amy felt that “running around and being in shape” was a source of motivation for her to play soccer.

Development of Confidence

A second element of sport that Lester talked about as fulfilling a need was the confidence to defend oneself. This is an interesting concept because both judo athletes made reference to the importance of knowing they could defend themselves. Ryan discussed his perspective in this quote;

Being able to say to myself if someone wants to start something with me, I’m more than happy to bring it to them, wherever, whenever. That motivates me. It gives me the self-confidence. I mean, I’m like the most non-violent person you’ll ever meet, but it makes me feel good knowing that I can defend myself, knowing that I can take care of my friends. It gives me great pleasure.

Ryan’s quote from the previous section brought up another component of sport that fulfilled needs for athletes. Throughout the data coding process, the development of confidence was brought up as a by-product of sport participation in a variety of ways. It was discussed in reference to parental support, teammate support, a coach’s role as a source of motivation, religious beliefs, as well as fulfillment of personal needs. Kacy described how sport helped her develop confidence in this quote, “I guess it’s the success you get out of it. Knowing that you’re good at something.” Ryan added this about the role that sport played in changing his self-image, “It’s given me a lot of confidence in myself. I don’t know if I’d call it a life-changing experience, but it’s changed my outlook on a lot of things.”

Development of Life Skills

As the current study illustrated in Figure 3, athletics endeavors involve a complex mixture of physical and mental demands on athletes. The athletes recognized that the stressful conditions in sport emulate similar circumstances that all people encounter throughout life. They also felt that the fundamental aptitude necessary to be successful within the domain of sport carried over to those real-life situations. Lucy delineated her attitude about this subject in this quote:

[One thing that motivated me about sports was that] I saw that it could teach you a little discipline about things. Like anything I run into; just kind of related it to real life stuff. A lot of determination was in it. I was pretty much the only minority on the team, but after a while I got used to it and I enjoyed playing with them [other athletes on the team], and I learned a lot just being around different people basically.

Lucy's statements pointed to her understanding of the benefits she could receive from her sport participation. She recognized the long-term value of being around people who were different from herself, and developing "determination," both of which she knew she could relate to "real life stuff" that would help her in the future.

Competition

Up to this point, my study has looked at athletes' sources of motivation to participate in sport. A second purpose for my study was to explore the construct of competition that is intertwined with all sports at the collegiate and club levels. As discussed earlier in the paper, each of the athletes was asked to define competition in their own terms, and a majority viewed competition as two individuals or teams struggling to better the others' performance. However upon further questioning, the participants in my study presented a variety of viewpoints on competition as a source of motivation. There were seven first order themes that fell under the higher order theme

competition (Figure 3). They included: competition increases motivation, competition as motivation for practice, being the best, early success, winning, being the best I can be, and big games. Aspects of competition have already been discussed with respect to the competitive environment that exist within the context of team. Participants indicated the competition that exists between teammates within the context of their sport was a positive and beneficial source of motivation. The athletes provided a great amount of insight and detail into the dynamics of the competitive team environment as a motivator. The goal of this section is to extend the investigation of competition as a source of motivation to explore athletes' perception of competition as it pertains to outside opponents as well as competing against oneself.

Competing In Games/ Competing Against Others

Possibly the most controversial finding in my study was evidence that athletes view competition against others as a source of motivation. One athlete even referred to it as a need. Lester said, "I don't see how you can go through life without feeling some sense of a need to compete at some level." As has been discussed in Chapter 1 of this paper, the prominent theories of motivation in the sports psychology literature (i.e., Self-determination theory; Vallerand's Hierarchical model) viewed competition as a force that tends to be detrimental to the motivation of athletes. However, the testimony given by the athletes in this study supported a different perception of competition as it relates to athletes.

All of the athletes spoke favorably about the competitions they participated in as part of their membership on a collegiate varsity team, or club sport team. Almost without exception athletes said that the opportunity to take part in competitions increased their motivation and enjoyment of their sport. Terry said, "I can't imagine it [running] without

competition...It wouldn't be any fun if there were no winners, losers, or places when you get in those races you know?" Steve lent support to Terry's viewpoint by saying:

[Running] it's what I really enjoy doing. And I don't know what I'd do without that source of competition because I don't really compete in much else. I'm not real competitive about grades, and I don't have any siblings to fight with. I'm a pretty laid back kind of guy. It's the only thing [running] that I really enjoy competing in.

Lynn agreed with their view point by adding, "So I think being able to compete and having someone next to you when you race helps you motivate yourself to go faster or slower, depends on the person." Jeff said, "Oh it [competition] most definitely increases it [enjoyment]. Competition is another motivator." Amy discussed how competition increases her enjoyment and effort in this quote:

I think it [competition] definitely increases the enjoyment because it makes everyone have to give one hundred percent. So you're out there, and you're out there so you're giving one hundred percent and also because you like it. So you are having fun at the same time and competition creates both of those.

As can be seen from the text pulled directly from the interview transcripts, many of the athletes questioned for this study had strong feelings toward competition as a source of motivation for them in their particular sport.

Competition as Motivation for Practice

The next question that needed to be answered in exploring the construct of competition in sport was: What aspects of competition made it such a good source of motivation for athletes? Eight of the athletes felt that competitions were their payoff for working hard in practice and making the sacrifices necessary to be successful. Without the competitions many of the athletes felt that they would have no reason to practice with the intensity that they did. In this quote David portrayed his perspective about being able to compete, "[Competing] Increased it [motivation]. That's why I did it. I don't think

anybody would do it, go through that I guess you'd call it hell, training that we did without enjoying meets." He went on to say, "Meets are the funnest part of it [participating in swimming]. If you ask me, yeah maybe that's one of the things that drove me to it [work so hard]." Kacy added this perspective, "The games? Yeah, it definitely increases it [motivation]. Because you could practice all the time, but practice isn't the fun part...The games; it's the best part. Without that part it's not worth it [all the hard work]. That's where you're trying to win." Diane elaborated on this idea in this statement, "The game is what you...You do all the hard work during the week just so you know there's a game at the end of the week that you can play."

From the beliefs illustrated above, the theme "competition as motivation for practice" arose as a primary source of motivation for athletes. Because games and competitions were perceived as a reward of sorts, the athletes used them as a way to maintain their motivation to work hard and sacrifice over the course of the season. Terry gave this example of the way that competitions helped him stay motivated, even with his heavy practice schedule. He said, "[Competition] that's a huge difference right there. It's definitely a motivator as far as training is concerned." He elaborated on that topic with this statement, "So that helps workouts a lot; competition. 'Cause you wouldn't run six days, seven days a week if you didn't have a race coming up, you know? Or some sort of competition coming up." Cindy used the same approach with this statement, "I need to be like, well we have a meet coming up in two weeks, I need to start...I need to get in good practices and sometimes that will get me motivated." Steve had this to say about his motivation since he no longer had the structure of being on a track team:

I think it [competition] increases. I would say definitely increases it. Like when I said the last year without having competition, I got down. Looking for excuses to

not run, and if I had anything to do I wouldn't go running. But when I've just been hanging around all day I just feel like I should be doing something. It actually makes me feel like I have a reason to be participating in this [running in a marathon in the near future]. It's something I've enjoyed always...But now I'm like okay, I've got this marathon coming up, and just yesterday I was out running and I was like I'm going to go 10 miles. I got 3 miles into it and I just felt horrible. I was like I can either turn straight around and go back and it will be 6 [miles] or I can finish doing this big loop. And I was like I gotta finish so I took off and I was like I've only got to make another 2 miles and then I have no choice. I think having competition involved makes it more enjoyable.

The above passage gave interesting insight into how an athlete used a competition as a long term goal to provide short term motivation. Steve admitted to his struggle with motivation when he was just doing it "recreationally." However, when he had the marathon to train for, his recreational running became training and he felt that he could push himself to train harder.

One important aspect about "competition as a motivation for practice" that supported competition being a source of motivation instead of detrimental to motivation was that although collegiate athletes had competitions built into their sport participation as a requirement, they still felt that it was the "best part" of their participation. In addition, the club sport athletes who participated strictly for personal reasons put themselves in situations where they were able to compete in their chosen sport. For example Steve previously discussed running recreationally after his collegiate career was over and the difficulty he encountered with his motivation to run. As a way to counter those feelings of burnout, he entered a marathon so that he would have some competitive outlet to train for. This evidence lends validity to the concept of competition as a source of motivation.

Being the Best

While competition did provide motivation for practices, it also functioned as a motivator in several other ways. For instance, another first order theme, “being the best” alluded to a desire to be the top athlete in a sport. The interviews yielded evidence that suggested athletes viewed competition as a way to help them to achieve that status. Lucy provided insight into her desire to be the best in this quote, “Yea, I made a big improvement, bla, bla, bla, but I want more. I don’t want to be just good. I want awesome. Ryan has a similar outlook in his remarks, “I want to be the best person at what I’m doing [judo].” Kacy added depth to this argument by vocalizing her experiences:

Ever since I was younger, I just didn’t want to lose. I wanted to be the best at everything. I think that’s why I always played, always trained, and most of the time when I was younger I was the best.

Kacy’s testimony not only provided a window into an athlete’s mentality of being the best, but it also alluded to another source of motivation that coincided closely with the themes of competition and being the best.

Early Success

In her last statement, Kacy added that in her earliest experiences with sport she had success. The first order theme of “early success” was identified by eight other athletes as a source of motivation for them when they began participating in their current sport. Jeff told about his successful experiences with running early in his career and how that impacted his motivation:

I was in middle school, 8th grade. I ran the mile and I would just run away from people. I did not lose one race in middle school, in all the races within my 8th grade year. And I won the Broward county meet for middle school in the mile, running 4:59, so that’s when I knew.

Jeff's early success was a source of motivation to make running "his sport." Lucy was another athlete whose early success boosted her inclination toward her sport. She said, "I wanted to run, but he [coach] was like no, no, stick to this. You know then he taught me the discus. I didn't like it at first, but once I started to get good at it (i.e., success), I wanted to stick with doing it." Steve explained how his prior success influenced his decision to get started in running in this passage, "I was like well, I'm probably faster than the kids in my neighborhood I should give this a try....it was fun, so I stuck with it ever since."

Two other athletes added support to the idea of early success as a motivator with their accounts of disappointing experiences with sports. David's first sport was baseball but when he spent time on the bench he quickly gave up and moved on to swimming. He explains his decision, "[I changed to swimming because] Not liking riding the pine, and in swimming you never have to [sit on the bench]." Diane paralleled David's sentiments with her quote, "I don't think that I'm very good at being one of those players who sits on the bench and waits for, like I want to be playing at the top level every single time I play, you know?" These alternative viewpoints added strength to the argument for early success as a source of motivation.

Winning

Another way in which competition was used by athletes as a resource for motivation involved the data code "winning." While most of the athletes interviewed enjoyed the competitive aspect of their sport, five were strongly driven by more than just the opportunity to participate in the competitions. The athletes in the current study gave testimony that one of the major reasons they liked competition was "winning." David expressed his motivation this way, "Winning. Pretty much; winning was what it was

[that drove him to work hard].” He went on to emphasize his point by saying, “[Competition] I loved it. I loved every minute of it. I loved going to meets and trying to win. Everybody hates losing.” Lynn, who emphasized in her interview that she was more interested in her performance than beating an opponent even had this to say, “I’m into my times, but there’s no denying that someone racing beside you is going to help you go faster. Yes, you want to touch the wall before them.” Ryan agreed, “I’m in there until someone wins. And it’s my job to make sure I win. So my motivation is to work as hard as I can so I can win.” Steve discussed how his drive to win elevated his motivation to train and out work his opponents. He divulged:

Well, during the summer I just went out every day and I know these guys that beat me last year are all out here running every day. So I just went out here every day and just went running by myself when nobody was around. None of my teammates were there from the summer, so I just ran every day with that sort of thing in mind [that I was out working my opponents]...If I go out for a ten mile run by myself, I’m like “Okay now I’m competing because Joe Smith over there is running ten miles down in Tampa and we have a race next month and he’s going to beat me if I’m not out here.

Being the Best I Can Be

Another theme that arose as a source of motivation was a departure from the previously discussed aspects of competition. Seven athletes described being the “Best I can be” as an important mentality that resulted from the competitive environment. They adopted a perspective of competition that was not tied to beating others. Instead it was focused on improving previous performance, and fulfilling potential. Not surprisingly, individual sport athletes more than the team sport athletes accessed this source of motivation. Statements like, “I was just out there to make myself the best that I could be”, and “That was the most fun thing...trying to do my best” provided an inside look at

how the participants in my study employed this concept. Terry enhanced the depth of this idea with his quote:

Having my personal best is probably way more motivating [than winning]. I didn't run to beat people. When I was training, I ran to make myself the best, the fastest runner I could, you know? I can make myself the best runner that I can be and if that's good enough to beat you, then so be it.

Steve reemphasized Terry's philosophy with his statement, "I'd rather just be the best that I could be. If that's the best guy on the team, or the 10th guy on the team. My best finish at nationals was 90th and I was so happy with that." The use this mentality drew on competition in a different way than does playing against others. While it still allows athletes to be successful and feel satisfied, the competition was self-referenced, and therefore slightly more predictable.

Big Games

The final way that competition served as a source of motivation was it provided athletes opportunities to play in "Big games." This theme represented athletes' recognition of their opportunity to achieve at the highest levels of their sport. Four of the athletes discussed being at the peak of their motivation and performance when they felt that there was the most at stake. Lucy said, "I'm really highly motivated during championship time." Jeff agreed, "Big competition is what gets you going...it's more of the battle between you're body and mind...And then there are those times when you feel that way and something in your mind just clicks and it throws you into another gear."

Kacy recounted her experience with being in the college soccer final four like this:

Our team went to the final four, and I mean just the excitement. I mean you just look around and you just can't believe you're at the final four. And that definitely, all the hype and everything surrounding it got you; got everybody going.

These big games provided a platform for athletes to focus all of their energies and efforts on one event which in turn often produced high level performances. From the testimony given, it was obvious that competition played a complex and multidimensional role as a source of motivation for athletes.

Pre-Game Motivators

One higher order theme that arose from the data text was pre-game motivators.” Nine of the athletes from the current study described a set of sources of motivation centered on getting focused and prepared for competitions (Figure 3). The resources participants used covered a broad spectrum ranging from prayer and spirituality to imagery and music, the following paragraphs will focus on the different pre-game sources of motivation, and how the athletes derived motivation from them.

Music

Six of the fourteen athletes interviewed said that they felt music was a source of motivation for them while preparing for a competition. Lucy said, “I get it [motivation] from music.” Jeff had similar sentiments, “I use music mostly [as a pre-game motivator].” Jenny described music’s impact by saying:

[Music is an] incredible source of motivation. I think that because it makes me want to...It’s like something inside. It makes you want to just go, it makes you just want to have fun because the music is up-beat and it’s positive.

The participants in the study who listened to music expressed different ways they incorporated it into their preparation. Kacy remarked how listening to music in a group setting was motivating for her. She said:

We get lots of music in the locker room [right before the game] and that kind of thing. Something about that, and it kind of makes it fun, it lightens the mood. It just gets you ready for it. A lot of our music, you’ve got a beat going; It’s fast paced so you’re getting excited, because the majority of our team likes to dance and do that kind of stuff.

Jenny also enjoyed music with her teammates, she said, “You’re all dancing, you get pumped and there’s no other way to explain it besides it’s something within you that makes you want to go hard, and you want to do good.”

Other athletes, such as Jeff, used music in a completely different way. Whereas the athletes above listened to up-beat music that was “fun” in a group atmosphere, Jeff said, “[I get by myself and] basically I pick out a very aggressive song, not necessarily one type, rock, rap, either one would really get me motivated...Hyped up.” Terry, who employed music in a similar manner, had this to say:

[I listened to] hard music basically. Like it actually is good motivation, like hearing that type of music, like “Eye of the Tiger” and those songs, cause it brings back visual memories of Rocky kicking someone’s butt on the movie, so it kind of makes you feel like you’re going to kick butt.

Steve, a runner, always listened to the same CD before every race. Steve described his experience in this way:

I always listened to U2 before every race in high school and most of them in college. Actually my two best performances I can actually remember during the race having that beat in your head and whole songs. It was kind of like one race I ran under 30 minutes I had the same part in my head for 20 of the 30 minutes. That’s kind of nice because it takes your mind off what you’re...In running you have that luxury. You can take your mind off the pain and it’s actually better.

It is interesting to note that athletes from the same sports used music in similar ways. For instance, Kacy and Jenny were both soccer players, and they both drew motivation from fast-paced music in a team setting. Jeff and Terry (both distance runners) were both more motivated by “hard”, “aggressive” music. Similar to Steve, Terry mentioned listening to the same CD and combined that with imagery to get motivated before competitions in his quote, “I listened to the same CD like before every race, and I would do imagery. Just picture myself running and winning.”

Only two athletes, Cindy and Doug, mentioned that their experiences using music during pre-performance preparations was not motivating. She had this to say about her experience with music:

I put on headphones and I think that's bad, cause every meet that I've done really bad, I've put on headphones [for]. I think I lose focus [when I listen to music]. I think that's a big part for me. I have to be focused and know what's going on.

Imagery

Terry's previous statement about "picturing" himself during his race was just one of several raw data themes that divulged athletes' use of mental skills such as imagery and visualization. Five participants in the study made mention of imagery as a source of motivation for them before they competed. Lynn said, "Sometimes I would do a lot of imagery, visualizing my race." Terry agreed with Lynn in his statement, "Imagining yourself going over the hurdles; imagine yourself winning the race. I used that in practice too. Imagine myself winning the race that weekend, or at least passing a bunch of people." Steve provided insight on his use of imagery to develop a plan for winning races. He said:

Mentally and stuff like that I think it's important to visualize what you want to do during the race. We would always go to the course the day before and take our time and jog it real slow and take out checkpoints and stuff like that. And the night before when you're laying in bed and you just think about the race and how you want to be situated in the field during certain points in the race. And thinking about what it is you want to accomplish and how you're going to realistically go to do that.

Likewise, Jenny talked about visualizing her reactions to things that might happen in the game like this:

I think about situations on the field, how I handle them. Sometimes even at the field, sometimes in another place, just trying to calm my nerves and focus on what lies ahead. Mental preparation I think is so much stronger than physical preparation.

One athlete identified a similar source of motivation when she discussed watching video before competitions to get motivated. Cindy explained her activity like this, “Also watching film [is a source of motivation]. We’ll go by our coach’s office and he has a T.V. and VCR in there and we’ll go [watch ourselves on video], and if I do that before I go out then that’s really motivating.” Cindy’s use of video to watch herself is very similar to the way other athletes pictured themselves in their mind performing skills and visualizing scenarios.

Employing Religious Beliefs

Another first order theme that athletes felt was a source of motivation was their religious beliefs. Three of the athletes interviewed discussed ways they drew strength and motivation from prayer and spirituality. For example, Lucy discussed how she used the time immediately before she performed in this way: “Like my motivation to me is basically I pray first [before I go throw].” Jenny said, “I found a lot of motivation spiritually.” Amy elaborated on this idea with her statements about pre-performance motivators:

To motivate myself before a game I will spend a few minutes praying. It’s really important to go out there and have fun and not really worry about messing up or doing bad because it really doesn’t matter. Because God still loves you no matter what and that’s motivation for me because that just gives me confidence.

Amy’s quote highlights two constructs that have been brought out in other sections of this chapter. First, her statement “God still loves you no matter what...” was similar to the feelings expressed by participants when talking about parent support. In both instances the athletes received comfort from the knowledge that they were loved no matter how they performed in their sport. Amy’s statement lends support for the idea that

feeling unconditionally loved and supported is an important source of motivation for athletes.

The second aspect of Amy's quote that a mirrored statement made previously was her mention of "God's love" giving her confidence. Another athlete, Jenny went into this topic in more depth with this testimonial:

Definitely God motivates me because confidence is such a hard thing to keep consistent here at this level. Maybe it has to do with the program, level of play, D-1 you know. Because I find that if I know I do my best and if God knows I did my best then that's all [I need].

Both of the above statements alluded to the connection between feeling loved regardless of performance, and confidence. Religion acted as a source of motivation because it provided athletes with a foundation of unconditional support.

Pre-Competition Rituals

Six athletes who participated in the current study spoke of their pre-competition rituals as sources of motivation. These were defined as things that the athletes did consistently before they competed that they felt prepared them to perform at their optimum level. Steve explained it like this, "As far as rituals go, the actual day of the competition I would always do the same thing. Our races are usually early in the morning, so I would always eat the same breakfast. Usually I try to mellow and relax." Cindy described the way she came up with her routine in this way, "I'm very superstitious, so if I do well at a meet I look back at everything I did and try to do it again." Overall the athletes felt that the purpose of a routine was to get them "focused" and "relaxed." Kacy described her pre-performance routine like this, "My roommate and I like to hang out a little bit before the game and just relax." Steve echoed this sentiment

in his quote, “I’d rather be relaxed (instead of pumped up) ‘cause that’s how I am at practice. I don’t want to change anything.”

Grounded Theory Framework

The following section describes the framework illustrated in Figure 4, which depicts the development of athletes’ sources of motivation to participate in sport at different levels. The grounded theory depicted in Figure 4 was developed through the use of sensitizing concepts within grounded theory analytic procedures (Strauss & Corbin, 2000). While the primary structure of the current framework was derived from the raw data themes and higher-order themes that emerged from participant interviews, the use of sensitizing concepts allows for the integration of previous theory and research within the current findings (Charmaz, 2000). Specifically, Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000,) Vallerand’s Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (Vallerand, 1997,) and Achievement goal theory (Nicholls, 1984, 1989.) were employed as a means of interpreting the results found here. The points of departure from previous literature will be emphasized throughout the following sections. Concurrently, the use of constant comparison enabled the researcher to evaluate statements made by participants at different times within an interview, as well as contrast viewpoints made by multiple participants. The above process, which melds a myriad of resources into one useable framework, was instrumental in the creation of the current theory. It is this theory that was one of the objectives of this study.

The global influences stage of the grounded theory pertains to the athletes’ initial sources of motivation to participate in sport (Box 1 of Figure 4). There were three prominent sources of motivation that contributed to athlete’s initial interest in sports participation: family, friends, and competitive nature. While family and friends were

sources that were external in nature, they were very influential not only in creating, but also maintaining motivation throughout the athletes' careers. As illustrated in the descriptive results, family and friends had an enormous influence on the participants' motivation and these findings were consistent with Deci and Ryan's (2000) work. Specifically, sport appeared to provide a context with which the athletes could connect and develop feelings of relatedness with others. The athletes in the current study chose to participate in sport at least in part because others that were deemed "significant" emphasized the value of sports. Most had brothers, sisters, friends or parents who participated in sports and the participants here derived motivation from these significant others.

A second way in which athletes derived motivation from family and friends was by providing essential needs to the athletes such as housing, food, and clothing. Family and friends perpetuated their role as motivators, even after introducing sports to the athlete, by acting as a global support system from which the athlete gained support, encouragement, advice, and direction. The motivation that was gleaned from family sources did not stop at initial participation. The athletes in the current study depended upon the encouragement and support throughout their athletic participation, particularly as they progressed to the more competitive stages of athletic participation (Boxes 4 and 5). These sources of motivation were very similar to what Vallerand (1997) described as global influences on motivation since they existed within multiple contexts of the athletes' lives.

The participants in the current study possessed an internal source of motivation they referred to as a "competitive nature." The athletes expressed the desire to compete

as a drive that transcended athletics and manifested itself in a variety of contexts within their lives. This data is in line with Vallerand's Hierarchical model (Vallerand, 1997) which states that global dispositions, which are similar to personality traits, can affect contextual and situational motivation in multiple contexts. Therefore, initial participation and competitive nature were both sources of motivation that affected the athletes overall development and personalities. While friends and family served as external sources of motivation, the development of competitive nature was an internal source of motivation. It was highly likely that sport was one of the first contexts in which the athletes were able to, and possibly even encouraged, to freely express his or her inclination toward competition.

The context specific stage of the grounded theory (Box 2 of Figure 4) highlights the important role that early success played in the participants' development. As elaborated on in the results, young athletes whose early experiences with sports were positive and successful were motivated to continue and even intensify their participation efforts. These findings were consistent with Deci and Ryan's (1995) ideas about competence and motivation. Specifically, Deci and Ryan predicted that athletes with high competence beliefs would experience increased levels of intrinsic motivation. In the current study the athletes translated their sport success into positive feed back about their competence in athletics. This was demonstrated by their increased autonomy and continued participation, or in the cases of a negative experience with a sport, their decision to desist. When strong perceived competence developed through athletic success is combined with elevated feelings of relatedness received in the form of encouragement and support from significant others it would be easy to see why an individual would continue sport

participation. In this case, the athlete would view the context of sport as a means to satisfy their desire for competence and relatedness two of the most important sources of motivation within self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

The integration stage of development in the grounded theory (Box 3) identifies goals as the most predictive source of motivation for athletes. It is at this point that the athlete decides the importance of sports by the how extensively their goals are integrated into the lifestyle. Every participant in the study purported the use of a variety of goals and goal setting strategies in order to maintain motivation. The goals athletes set for themselves with regard to sport enabled them to advance to highly competitive levels of the sport structure. Athletes viewed their goals as small indicators of success that kept them motivated while striving to achieve larger more long-term goals. Specifically, the goals set forth by participants were often created to satisfy personal “needs” such as the desire to receive credit, or to attain feelings of achievement or satisfaction. The participants in my study acknowledged very specific motivators that existed at the two general levels (e.g., Division I/Olympic and club level) of sport participation recognized within the current grounded theory.

The commitment and participation stage of the current grounded theory (Box 4 and 5 of Figure 4) depicts two levels of sport participation, the division I collegiate and/or the Olympic level, and recreational sport participation. Central to this grounded theory is the principle that all of the athletes in the current study advanced to the fourth stage of competitive sport structure out of their own goals, which were to participate and enjoy their sport (intrinsic motivation), but also to train and compete against others (extrinsic motivation). Thus, competition was a similar source of motivation between athletes at

both competitive levels. Athletes at both levels felt that the opportunity to contend against others through organized competition gave them incentive to participate. For the participants in this study, the opportunity to compete was viewed as an incentive to develop sport specific skills to a higher degree. They appeared motivated to practice and improve because they knew they would be tested in a competitive context.

Additionally, sport served as an outlet for stress and aggression for athletes at both competitive levels. This was illustrated at the collegiate/ Olympic level (Box 4,) by the way athletes viewed the dual role that pressure and high expectations played within the context of sport. The participants felt that the pressure they encountered acted a source of stress in their lives, as well as a source of motivation. Consequently, in conjunction with the additional stress imparted by participation, sport also provided a physical and emotional release that counteracted any superfluous stress received from participating in the activity.

The participants at both levels of involvement cited the use of their sport to cope with stressors and frustrations from their daily lives. They were motivated to participate in their sport because they felt able to release psychological tension and anxiety through physical activity. Vallerand's Hierarchical model (1997) supports this source of motivation by outlining how social factors can influence motivation at the contextual level. For example, Postulate 3 of the Hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Figure 2) discusses the interactions between multiple individual contexts of a person's life. Specifically, feelings involving one major aspect of a person's life can have an impact on motivation in other major contexts. Consequently an individual feeling stressed about academics, or social aspects of life could be motivated to

participate in sport because the physical demands within the context of sport aid in relief from psychological stress felt in the other contexts.

The above being said, there were important differences between athletes at the Division I/Olympic level and Club levels. One source of motivation related directly to competition helped to differentiate athletes at the two levels of competitive sport structure: “Being the best” was a source of motivation for division I/ Olympic level athletes, but did not play a significant role for club level participants. This difference was perhaps due to the level of competition inherent in the two separate levels of sport. Athletes, particularly at the Olympic level, participated against elite competition. Their competitors were the best athletes from countries around the world. Being the best was a realistic goal given the opponents and the context in which athletes perform. Depending upon the sport, club level competition is considerably less formidable. Therefore, the goal of being the best would not be as realistic, because the competition at the club level was considered recreational instead of elite.

There were seven major sources of motivation at the division I/ Olympic level of sport participation. It is important to note that at this level of competitive sport, where the demands are high, and achievement and success are the primary focus, the athletes viewed their environment as rich with motivational resources. They cited high expectations, sport as an outlet for stress and aggression, the coach, teammates, travel, a desire to be the best, and competition as components of this sport structure that provide motivation.

Athletes viewed the high expectations and pressure placed upon them, as well as the expectations they placed on themselves, as strong sources of motivation. This

perspective emphasizes the importance of an athlete's perception of his or her environment which is highly consistent with Vallerand's hierarchical model (1997, 2001). Vallerand views the environment around an athlete as a global social factor that influences motivation not only at the global level, but at the contextual level as well. When an athlete interprets his environment as positive, supportive, and challenging then motivation at the global and contextual levels are affected accordingly. This is demonstrated by the importance athletes' place on relationships with family, friends, coaches, and teammates. These relationships create the environment that the athlete experiences. If they are not perceived as supportive then the athlete loses important global and contextual resources from which to draw motivation.

A second major source of motivation that existed at the collegiate/ Olympic level of participation was the coach. The athletes perceived their coaches as an external source of motivation that provided counsel, aided the athlete in goal setting, and applied some of the expectations and pressure discussed above. While athletes desired their coach's direction and motivation, the extent to which it was needed and the method through which it was provided was highly individualized. Vital to the relationship, was the athlete's perception of the coach's high expectations as a collaborative effort designed to help the athlete achieve his or her goals. If a coach's demands were interpreted negatively by the athlete, they could become highly detrimental to the athlete's motivation, possibly producing feelings of burn out.

Teammates were another source of motivation for athletes within the collegiate/ Olympic stage but not club sport athletes (Box 4). In accord with Gould, Feltz, and Weiss (1985) teammates were a social contextual factor that provided support,

enthusiasm, friendship, and competition. They were a sport specific support system that impacted athletes at the global and situational levels of motivation. Athletes of both individual and team sports drew on the multidimensional motivational resources that teammates provided.

The last motive for participation that was unique to collegiate/ Olympic sport participants was the opportunity to travel. Participants viewed the chance to see new places and experience different people as an important source of motivation for them to compete. For many of the athletes, the resources of the university and Olympic athletic systems provided access to experiences and travel that they would not get on their own.

One source of motivation reported only by club level participants (Box 5 of Figure 4), was physical/ mental health benefits that resulted from sport participation. Club level athletes fulfilled some of their personal health needs through their sport. Their participation gave them a sense of satisfaction and self confidence through being physically fit, their ability to take care/ defend themselves, and their development of life and social skills. This motivational resource reported by participants is consistent with findings by Brodtkin and Weiss (1990) who identified health and physical fitness as major motives for competitive swimmers between the ages of 23-59.

The last aspect of the grounded theory that must be discussed is the relationship that exists between the two competitive levels of sport. Some of the participants interviewed for the current study were club sport athletes at the time of the interviews, who had previously participated at the collegiate/ Olympic level (Box 4 of Figure 4). For them their sport was such an ingrained part of their lives that they continued to participate at the recreational level even after they were no longer able to compete at the highest

level of their sport. They chose to get involved in club sports, which provided them with a competitive outlet. Accounts from numerous athletes supported the viewpoint that athletes enjoyed and even sought out the competitive component of sport.

CHAPTER 4 DISCUSSION

The current study had three major purposes. The first was to use grounded theory analytic procedures (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to identify the sources of motivation of N.C.A.A. collegiate athletes and recreational/ club sport athletes to participate in sport. A second purpose was to investigate the participants' motives to compete in sport. The third and final purpose was to organize the data gathered into a grounded theory of motivation for competitive athletes. Semi-structured, in-depth interviews were conducted with athletes, who participated competitively at two levels of sport, collegiate/ Olympic and recreational. The results generally supported posits made by Vallerand's (1997) Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation, and Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2000). The current study yielded two overarching categories in which all major sources of motivation fell, internal and external. Within the classification of internal sources of motivation two higher-order themes emerged: goals, anger and outlets for stress and aggression. The external higher-order themes included: family, friends, team aspects of sport, coaches, pressure and high expectations, benefits of participation, competition, and pre-competition motivators. In the following paragraphs, findings from the current study will be discussed with regard to extant literature. Next theoretical and practical implications of the grounded theory constructed in this study will be proposed. Finally, study weaknesses and future research directions will be suggested in light of findings from this project.

The data gathered during my study were in accord with a wide range of ideas embedded in the extant literature. The participant interviews yielded strong support for competence, autonomy, and relatedness as important needs to be satiated (Deci & Ryan, 1985). There was also support for Postulate 3, and Corollaries 3.1, 3.2, 3.3 of Vallerand's Hierarchical model (1997), which outlines the impact that social contextual factors can have upon the global and contextual levels of generality.

One of the central tenets in Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and the Hierarchical model (Vallerand, 1997) is the idea that the degree to which competence, autonomy, and relatedness are fulfilled determines the type of motivation that drives action. Competence, autonomy, and relatedness are thought of as needs that people have, and as they are increasingly satisfied, the individual becomes more intrinsically motivated. Evidence in the current study indicated that many of the sources of motivation identified by athletes seem to be derived from these internal needs, especially relatedness and competence. For instance, the higher-order themes of family and friends played a vital role in exposing the athletes to their sports. The athletes indicated that they were inclined to begin sport participation because either they had a mother or father who was athletic, a brother or sister who participated, or a friend was involved. The participants talked about their desire to take part in what they saw "significant others" doing. This is in line with predictions made within SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985) about feelings of relatedness, which states that individuals will experience increased motivation if they feel supported and connected to important others in their life.

Previous research (Frederick-Recascino, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000) also cites family and friends as a critical component in the social support network with which

athletes surround themselves. Athletes at both the collegiate/ Olympic, and recreational level of sport discussed the importance of their loved ones as confidants, coaches, and encouragers. These people (i.e., family and friends) served as an external, global source of motivation by increasing feelings of relatedness, which resulted in higher levels of motivation over the athlete's extended participation.

Feelings of relatedness were also strongly tied to two other sources of motivation: team atmosphere of sport and coaches. The athletes revealed that feelings of closeness with teammates and coaches perpetuated their overall motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1995). Teammates were conveyed as very close friends with whom the athletes shared loyalty, camaraderie, and not only personal goals, but also common team-oriented goals. The shared goals represented internalization of external values that are indicative of relatedness. The common experiences they shared and the feeling that teammates understood what the athlete was going through further strengthened the bonds experienced in sport with teammates.

Coaches were deemed "significant others" because of the stake they shared in the athletes' success. The feelings of relatedness between athlete and coach were based on the athlete's belief in the coach's plan to enable the athlete to succeed. The athlete was motivated when he felt that the coach had goals, and knowledge that could contribute to the athlete's own plan for success. They [the participants] were further motivated by feelings that they had a limited amount of time (i.e., eligibility) to achieve their goals. The benefits of the relationship with the coach were two fold. First, the relationships facilitated feelings of relatedness because the coach invested time and encouragement

toward the athlete. It also boosted the athlete's feelings of competence, because the coach displayed belief in the player's ability to accomplish their mutual goals.

The athletes in the current study experienced significant motivational effects of high perceived competence in their relationship with their coaches. In line with Deci and Ryan's (1995) study, athletes gained competence information through feedback from the coach that came in several forms. First, coaches described by participants provided their players with positive reinforcement regarding their performance. Feelings of perceived competence were also experienced because athletes recognized that coaches committed time, belief, and money (i.e., scholarships) in their ability. Finally, the athletes came to believe that they had high levels of athletic competence because they set and achieved difficult individual and team goals that were orchestrated to some degree by the coach.

Data from the current study supported Deci and Ryan's (1985) posits involving competence beliefs in other ways as well. For instance, the interviews revealed that participant's experiences with youth sports contributed significantly to their continuation of sport over long periods of time. High levels of competence were perceived by athletes when they experienced success in sport at an early age. These feelings of competence served as a source of motivation that encouraged further participation by prompting athletes to set long term goals in sport.

Autonomy was another need that was supported by the participants in this study. Club sport athletes in particular emphasized the importance of feeling ownership in their sport activities. They revealed that they participated in the sport, not only for the enjoyment that they received, but from the physical and mental health benefits, as well as an outlet for stress. They felt that a great deal of autonomy was necessary in order to

maintain the motivation to dedicate significant amounts of time and effort into an activity that was purely recreational.

The current study also provided support for certain aspects of another major theory of motivation, the Hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Vallerand, 1997). Many of the sources of motivation for sport participants extended from the global and contextual levels of generality as outlined by Vallerand (1997). Corollaries 3.2 and 3.3 highlight the impact that social factors such as relationships with family and friends, which exist at a global level, can have at specific lower levels of generality such as the sport context. For instance, the athletes in my study attributed their initial involvement in sport to family and friends (global social factors). The positive support that they received for participating in athletic endeavors mediated their feelings of competence, autonomy, and relatedness with regard to the context of sport. When they struggled with their internal motivation to participate in sport (motivation at the contextual level), they went back to these outside resources (global factors) to help get them past the low points.

There is also evidence that supports Corollary 3.1 of the Hierarchical model (Vallerand, 1997); social factors can be global, contextual, or situational, and affect the corresponding level of generality. Findings in the current project identified one major source of motivation that illustrated the validity of this concept, sport as an outlet for stress and aggression. Both division I/ Olympic and club sport participants purported that the context of sport enabled them to release stress and aggression acquired from other life contexts. Areas such as academics, work, and social relationships were some of the life contexts in which participants reported feeling stress. The bodily demands inherent in sport acted as a pressure release that enabled athletes to vent some of their psychological

frustration through physical means. Because their involvement in sport provided athletes with this outlet for stress, their motivation toward the context of sport was increased. Therefore, social factors in separate contexts of athletes' lives affected their motivation toward the context of sport, which is in line with posits embedded in Corollary 3.1 (Vallerand, 1997). While the preceding paragraphs describe findings that upheld ideas in popular motivational theories, there was also data that contradicted existing literature.

The primary discrepant finding in this study concerns the relationship between competition and motivation. All of the prominent theories of motivation discussed in the literature review consider competition as a factor deemed detrimental to athletes' motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Vallerand, 1997; Nicholls, 1984; Duda, 1992). Studies by Fortier et al. (1995) and Vallerand and Rousseau (2001) describe motivation as a factor that decreases intrinsic motivation, especially in highly competitive sport structures (i.e., division I/ Olympic, and club sport levels). However, the quantitative nature of the study only allowed them to speculate on the reasons that competitive sport athletes had increased levels of extrinsic motivation. Athletes in the current study did not seem to embrace intrinsic motives (i.e., enjoyment of the sport) as their primary motivational resource. Instead they reported thriving on more extrinsic and external sources of motivation such as teammates, family, coaches, and competition in order to maintain or increase their personal motivation in given contexts. Therefore, the current theory approaches competition as factor inherent within the context of sport, and views it as a resource employed by the athlete to sustain short-term as well as long-term motivation. For instance, all fourteen participants in the current study found aspects of competition to be motivational in some capacity. They identified competing with friends and teammates

as a way to encourage themselves to practice harder as well as make practice more enjoyable. The prospect of an upcoming competition against an opponent was also a source of motivation for athletes to complete demanding workouts, and make sacrifices necessary to achieve at a high level. Athletes particularly at the division I/ Olympic level maintained a great number of resources for motivation that existed externally at the global as well as the contextual level. Club sport athletes identified sources of motivation that were more intrinsic in nature. However, even while highly internalized and integrated into the athlete's value system (indicative of intrinsic motivation), physical and mental health benefits and sport as an outlet for stress and aggression were sources that depicted sport as a means to an end (extrinsic motivation). In fact, all but three sources of motivation described by the participants were of an extrinsic nature. The Fortier et al. (1995) and Chantal et al. (1996) studies support the current study's findings (with unexpected results) by reporting that the competitive athletes in their studies exhibited high levels of extrinsic motivation.

Also, some of the sources of motivation identified by athletes in the current study, such as a desire to be the best, and prove competence through competition are indicative of an ego orientation. White & Duda (1994) produced similar results when they found that athletes who participated in highly competitive sport structures have more of an ego orientation. In light of this data, theoretical perspectives in which intrinsic motivation and task orientation are considered optimal conditions for motivation (self-determination theory, hierarchical model, achievement goal theory) seem incomplete if not ill-suited to describe the motivation of competitive sport athletes. Thus, the results from the current study extend the literature in three ways.

First, my study addresses the need to explore athletes' motives to participate at different competitive levels (Gould, Feltz, & Weiss, 1985). Prior research shows that individuals' motives to participate in sport change with age (Butler, 1989a, 1989b; Brodtkin & Weiss, 1990). Only one study (Butt & Cox, 1992) has looked specifically at sources of motivation for college age students at differing competitive levels. The current study supports the idea that motives for sport participation are dependent on the sport structure, but it also extends the literature by identifying, directly from participants, what their sources of motivation are at two competitive levels (division I/ Olympic, club). This is important because all other studies have used questionnaires that are limited by the scope of the theory they are designed to test (Strean, 1998).

Second, this study addressed a need in the motivation literature to expand the research paradigm, which has been up to this point, unidimensional (Hoshand & Polkinghorn, 1992; Strean & Roberts, 1992; Martens, 1987; Petruzzello, 2000; Sparkes, 1998). All of the studies discussed have used quantitative methodology as a means of explaining the motivation of athletes. The current study, which employs a qualitative approach, helped to break the mono-method bias that exists in sport motivation research. The grounded theory approach of my study was optimal for providing an alternative perspective on athletes' sources of motivation to participate in a competitive sport environment. The exploratory nature of the methodology provided the flexibility necessary to integrate social and contextual factors present in the sports environment into a theory produced from interview text and sensitizing concepts.

Finally, the grounded theory produced as a result of this research project answers a call within the field for new theories of motivation which are sport specific (Harwood et

al., 2000; Treasure et al., 2001). This methodology is ideal because the theory comes directly from the athlete, and as Treasure et al. (2001) expressed, “The key to understanding motivational processes in the athletic domain...is how the competitive conditions... are subjectively perceived by the athlete” (p. 319). While current theories of motivation do account for some social and contextual factors, no theory has been able to explore and integrate factors such as teammates, coaches, and competition into a sport specific theory derived directly from athletes’ statements about their own perceptions. The qualitative aspects of this study help to meld the unique complexity of the sport environment with the motivation of the individual as a whole. Overall, much of the data collected during the current study supports theories and ideas that are prominent to sport motivation research. However, the discrepant findings relative to the role of competition are an area which should be further explored.

Study Limitations and Future Directions

The limitations of my study included the limited scope of the competitive sport structures and the single age group that was investigated. Interviews were only conducted with athletes who participated at the division I/ Olympic level, or the club sport level. The exploration of various other sport structures including intramural, youth competitive, and master’s level competition would broaden the range of this theory. Likewise, interviews with sport participants from other age groups could expand the theory’s insight into the development of sources of motivation over time.

Because the grounded theory developed here is so different from that of other popular theories, future studies should focus on expanding knowledge in this area. Further exploration is needed to understand more clearly how athletes perceive competition within different sport structures. Similarly, studies should investigate the

perception of competition within different age groups to find out if competition is viewed differently as experience, and skill are developed. Finally, it would be interesting to further investigate the support system of family, friends, teammates, and coaches that impact athletes' motivation by interviewing athletes who are missing one or more of those areas of support. In summary, the grounded theory presented in this study should only serve as a foundation on which future research is to be based.

Applied Implications

There are a variety of applied implications that can be taken from my study. First, sports psychologists should be aware of the broad range of reasons people have for participating in competitive sport. Knowledge of the differences in motives to participate in varying sport structures could be a key to isolating the reasons for lost motivation or feelings of burnout. Also, findings from this study suggest an alternative point of view with regard to the negative role competition plays in motivation. This change in perspective may permit sport psychologists better insight into the competitive sport environment that athletes experience.

A second finding from my study with applied implications comes from familiarity with the support systems that athletes employ to maintain motivation. The grounded theory produced from this study outlines the external resources that competitive athletes access to keep their motivational levels high. Better understanding how relationships with family, friends, coaches, and teammates influence an athlete's motivation could enable a sport psychologist to identify possible places where athletes are lacking the necessary affirmation to continue prolonged sport involvement.

A third way that my study has applied implications is in the area of sport as a coping mechanism for athletes. Athletes, like all people, have stress and aggression in

their lives. One facet of this grounded theory identifies the use of sports as a way for athletes to alleviate stress and aggression they feel. This dimension of sport serves as a source of motivation for athletes to continue to participate and compete in sport. A sport psychologist could use the information gathered from this study to help frustrated athletes understand the value of their sport as a physical release for psychological and emotional stress.

Finally, data gathered from my study highlights the value of goals as a source of motivation for athletes. The goal setting strategies identified by participants in my study underscores the importance of short-term goals as stepping stones that maintain motivation while an athlete works toward his or her long-term goals. The grounded theory presented here also endorses the use of multiple goal types such as performance, process, short-term, and long-term goals to help maintain motivation. This could prove valuable to applied sport psychologists who are aiding athletes in the goal setting process. By helping an athlete to create incremental goals of multiple types, the sport psychologist would be able to maximize this motivational resource for the benefit of the athlete.

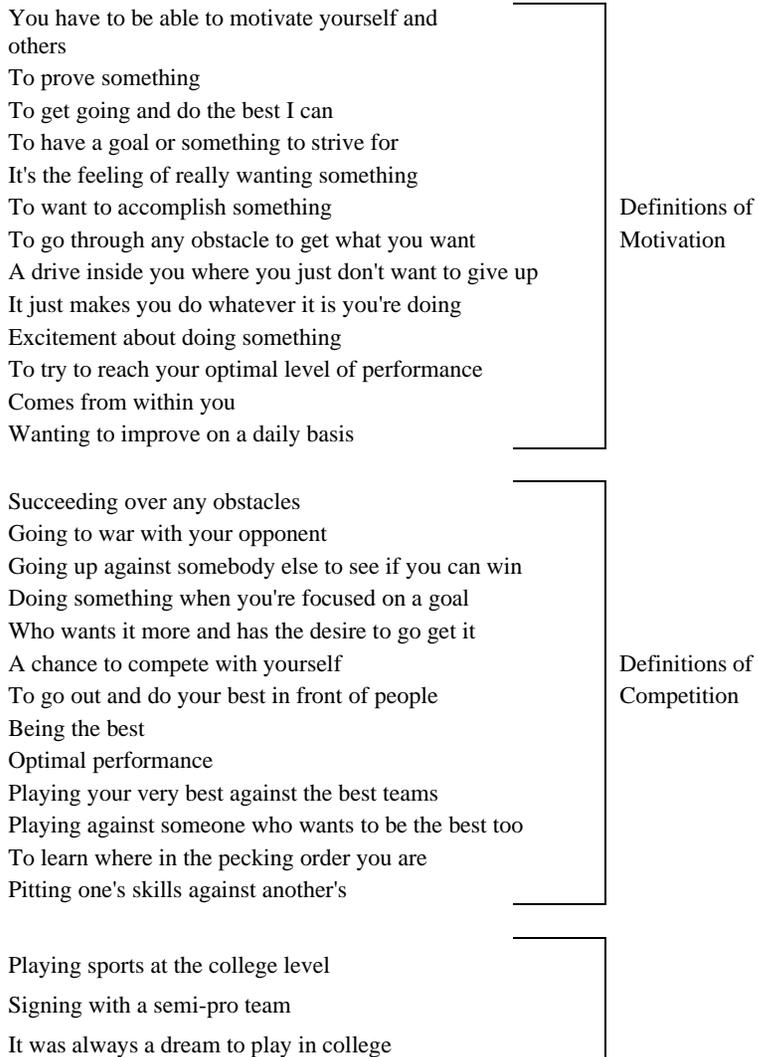


Figure 3. Sources of motivation conceptual framework

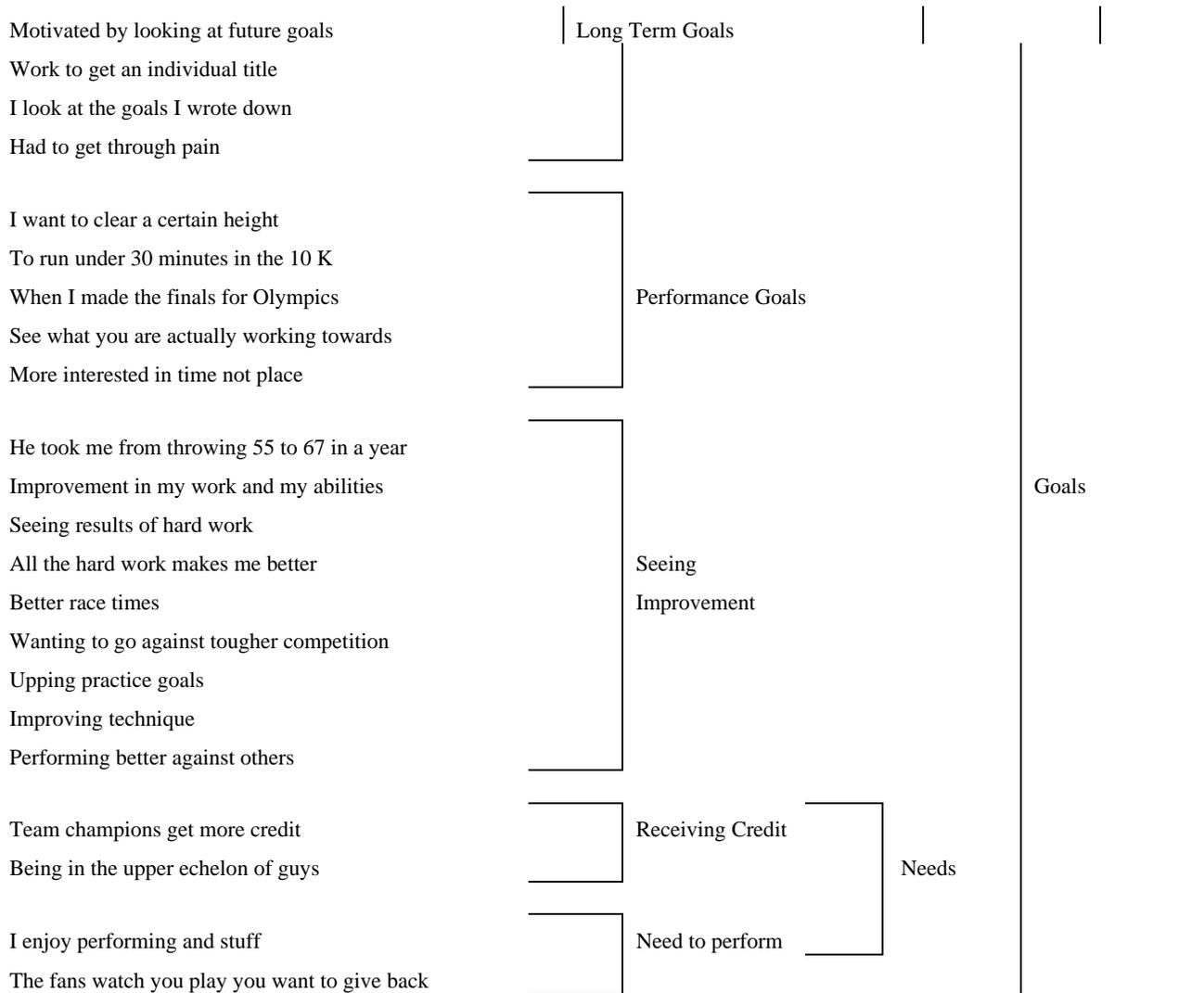


Figure 3. Continued

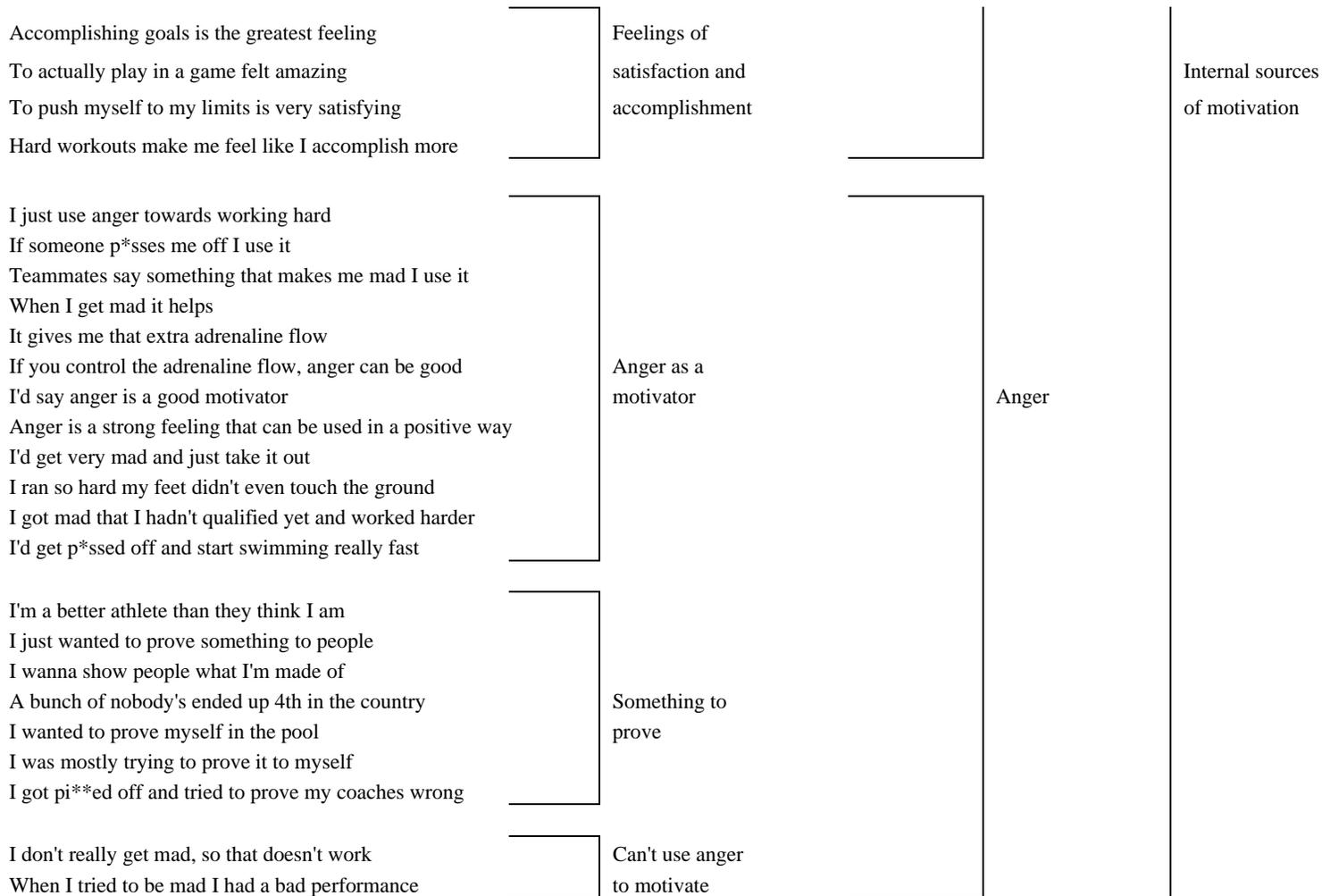


Figure 3. Continued

It's a nice outlet to stressful situations
Practice is where you get stress out
Judo is my release
Running is an outlet for me

Sport as
an outlet

Being able to forget everything else in life
For 90 minutes you don't have to worry about anything
You can get a lot of aggression out
Being able to work hard and not think about anything else
It's a way to relieve yourself from everything else
I think it can be very therapeutic
When things aren't going well it kind of lifts you up

Escaping from
problems
through sport

Outlet for
stress
and aggression

All your stresses just bleed out on the mat
You don't have to be aggressive to get out aggression
You can get out a lot of frustration just going for a ball
By the end you are too tired to be angry

Release of emotional
energy through
physical activity

I am easier to get along with when I work out
I just feel better

Dad was athletic
Family was really athletic
Brother and sister both played soccer
Dad played basketball
Grew up playing sports
My dad was a pretty good athlete
My whole family swims
Everybody in my family is real athletic
Uncles were all football players

Initial exposure
to sports

Figure 3. Continued

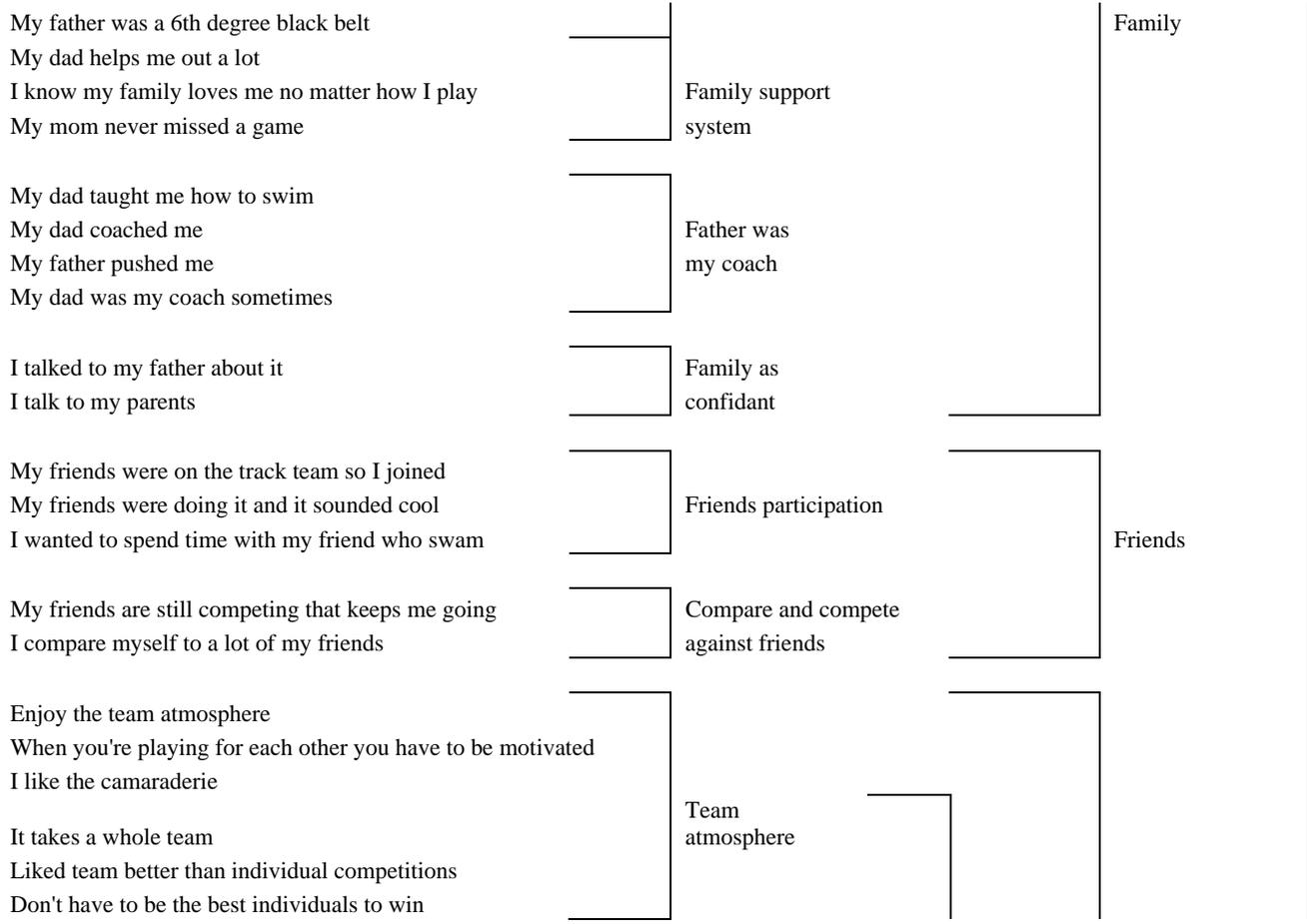


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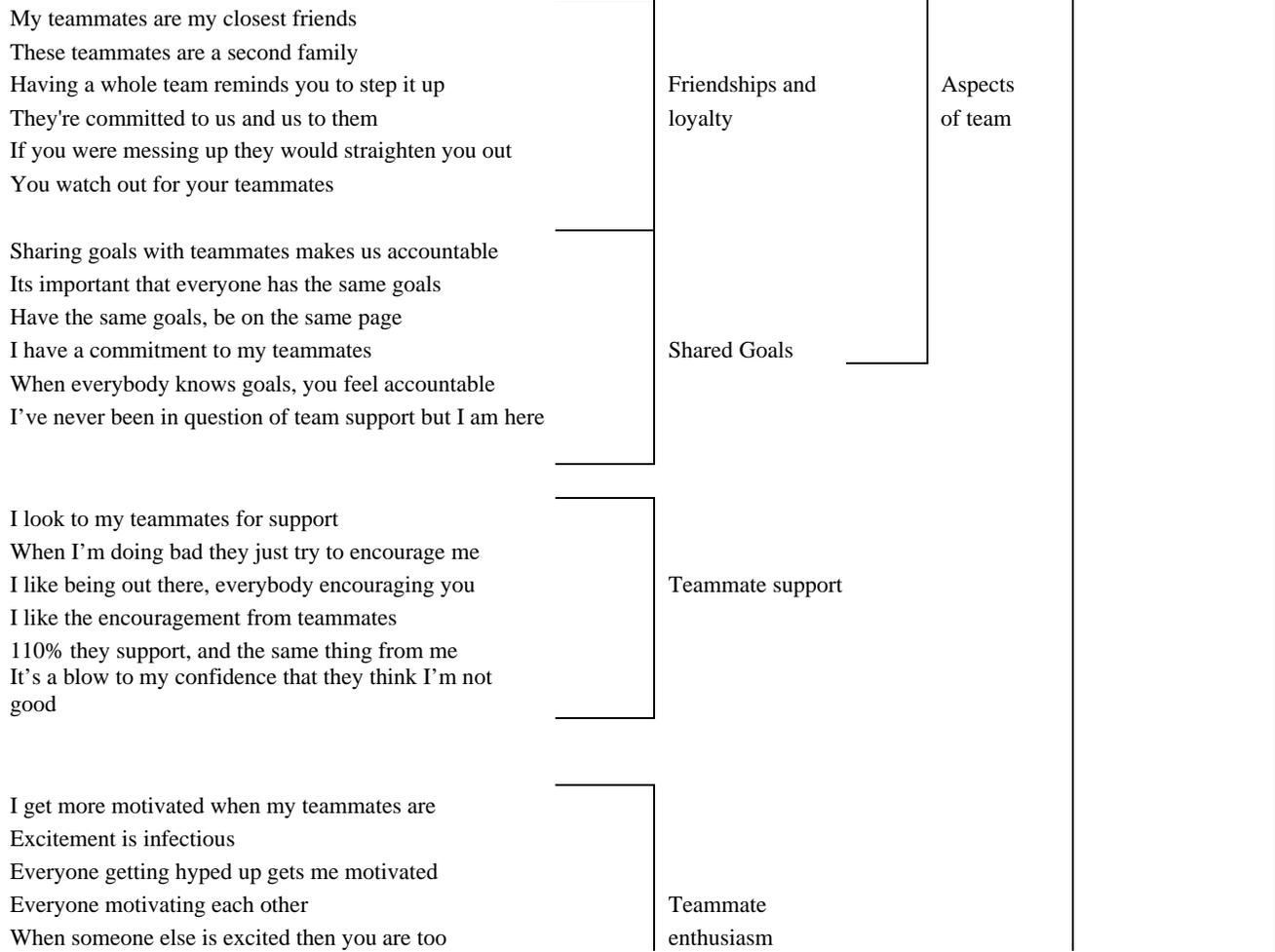


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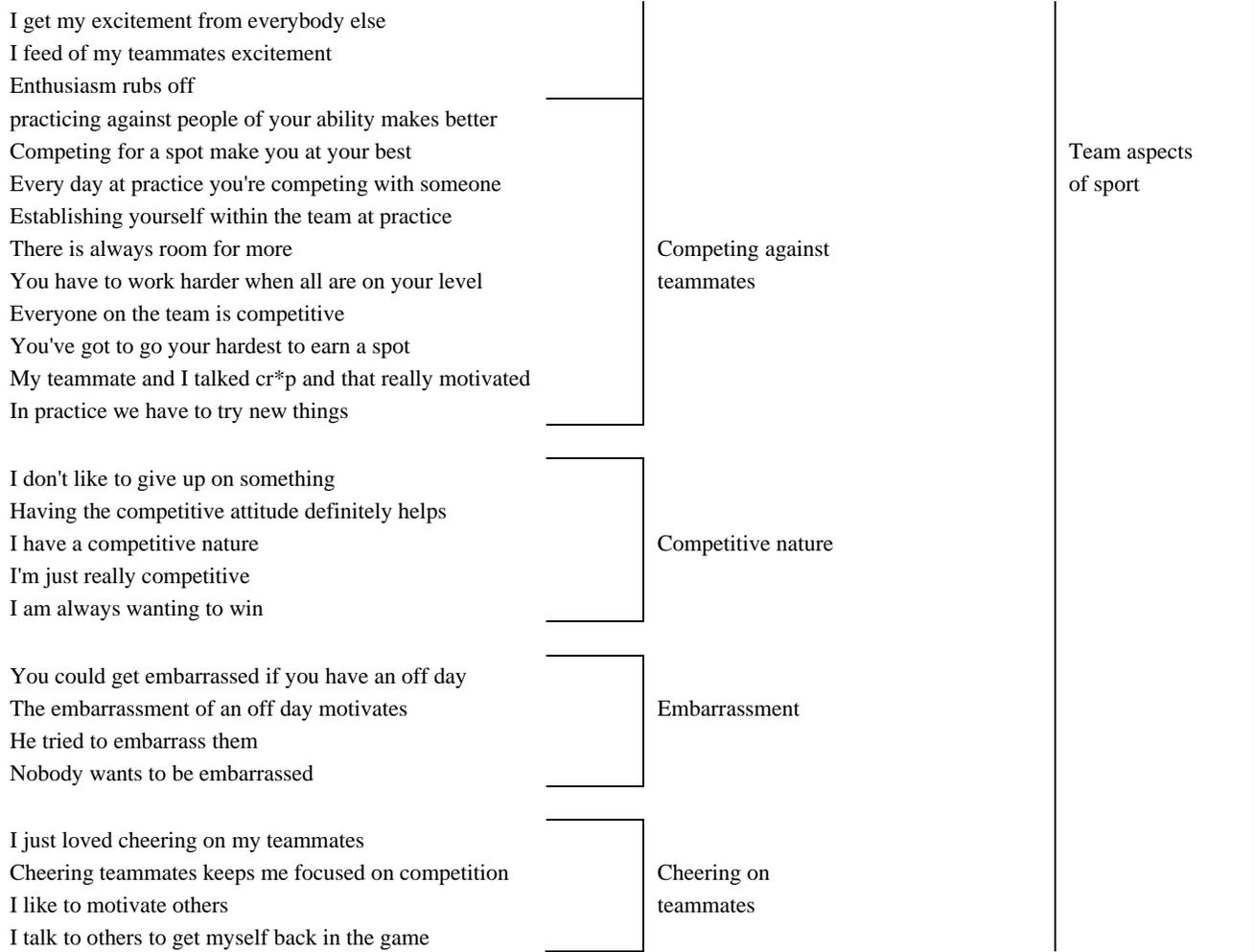


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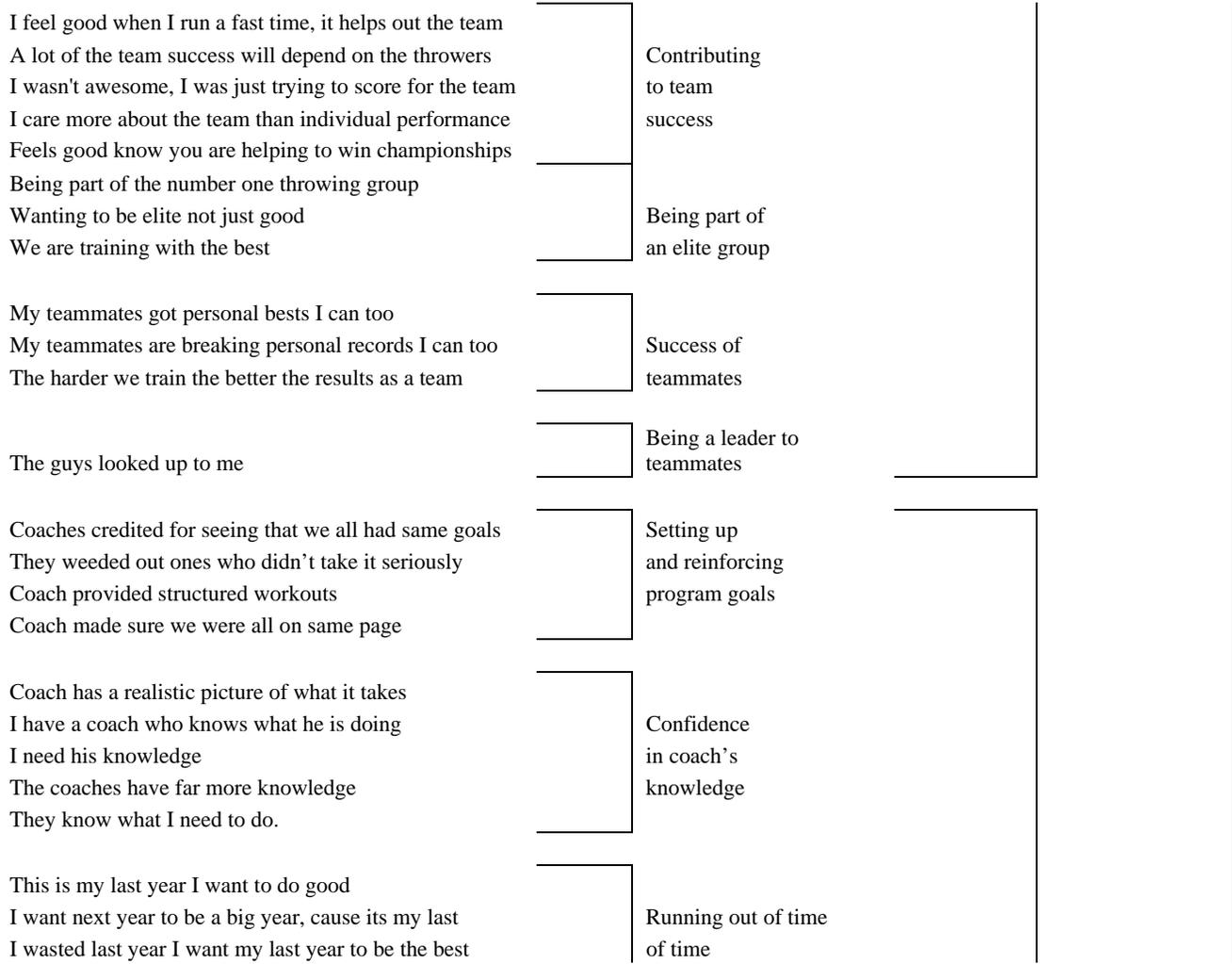


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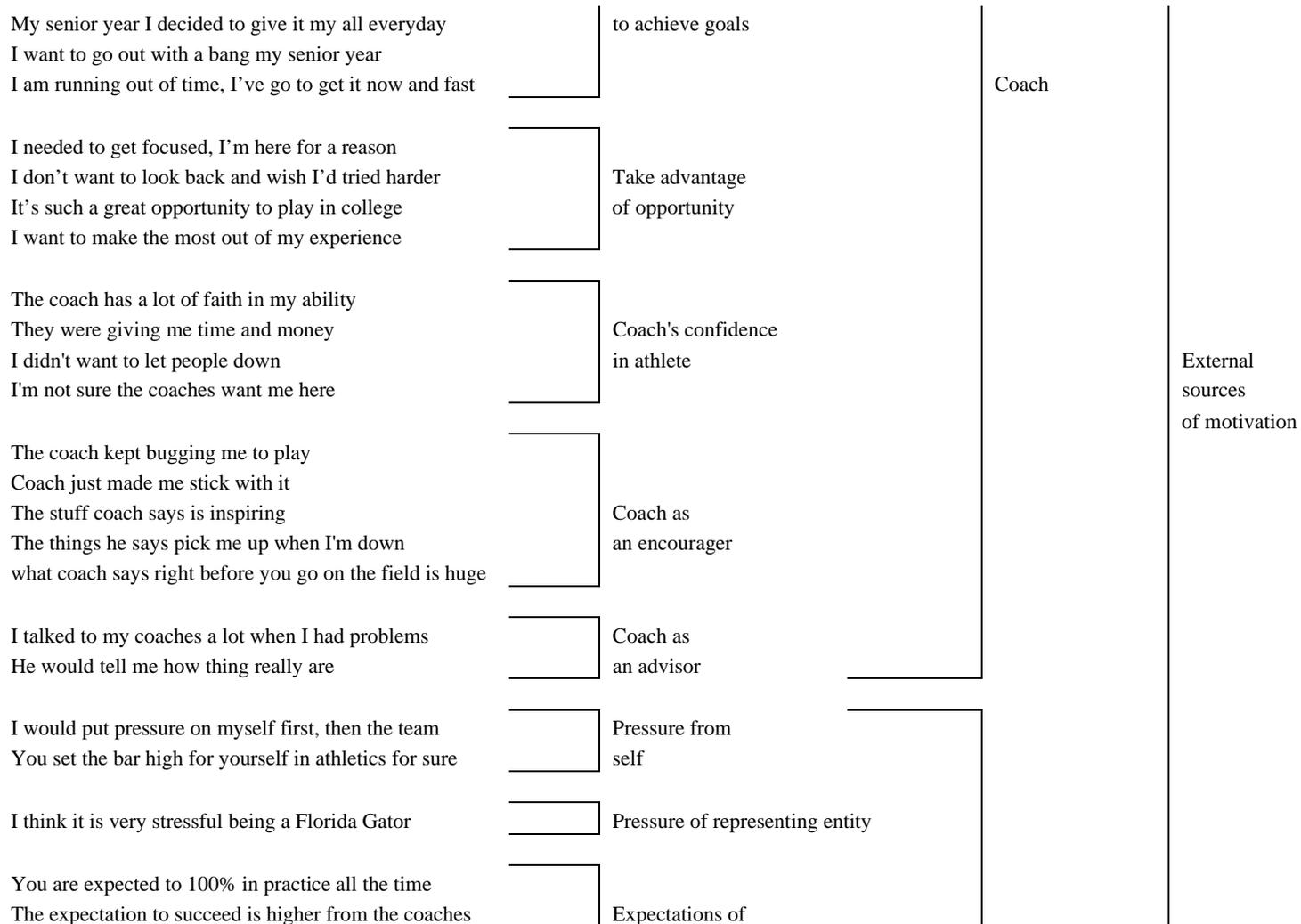


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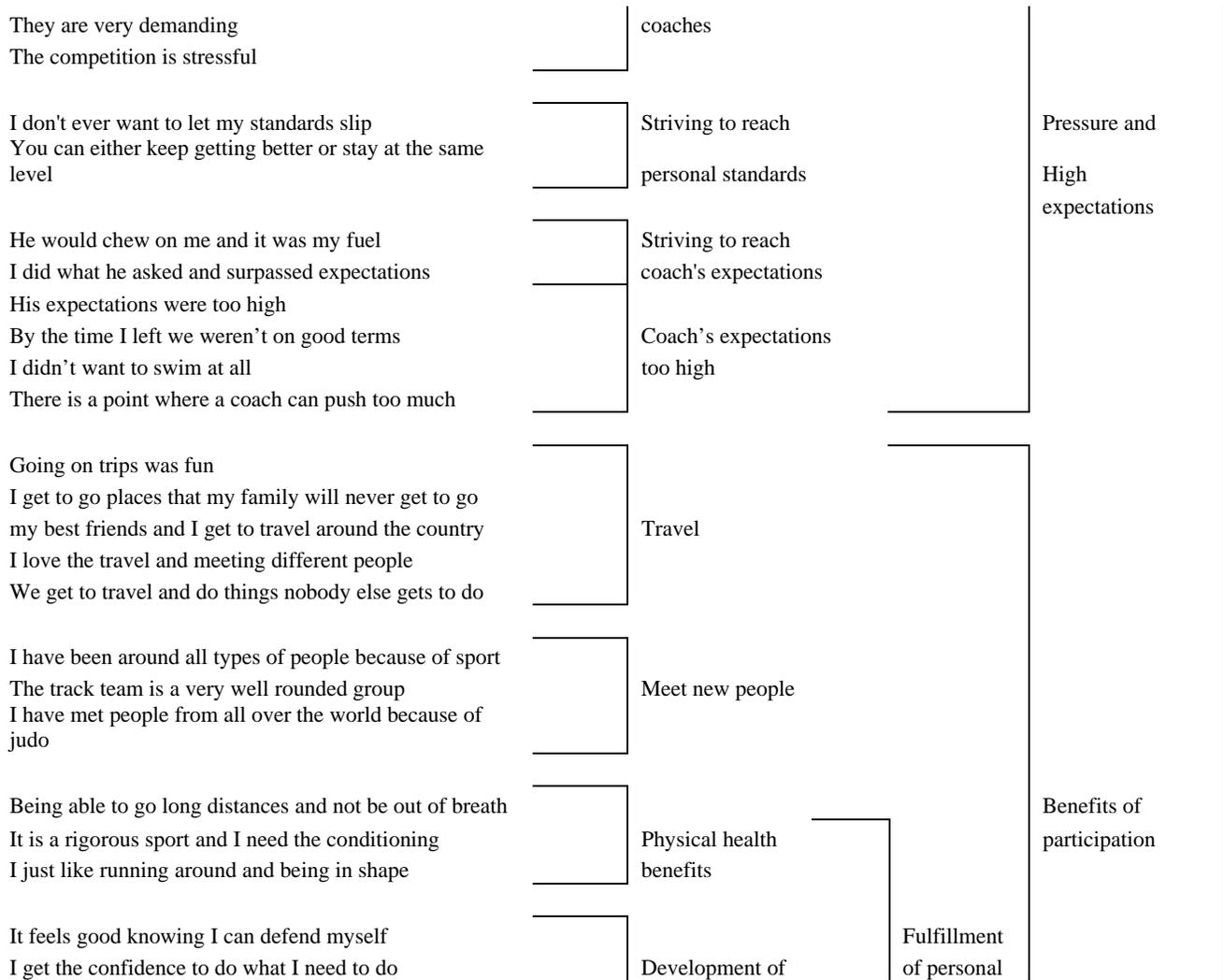


Figure 3. Continued

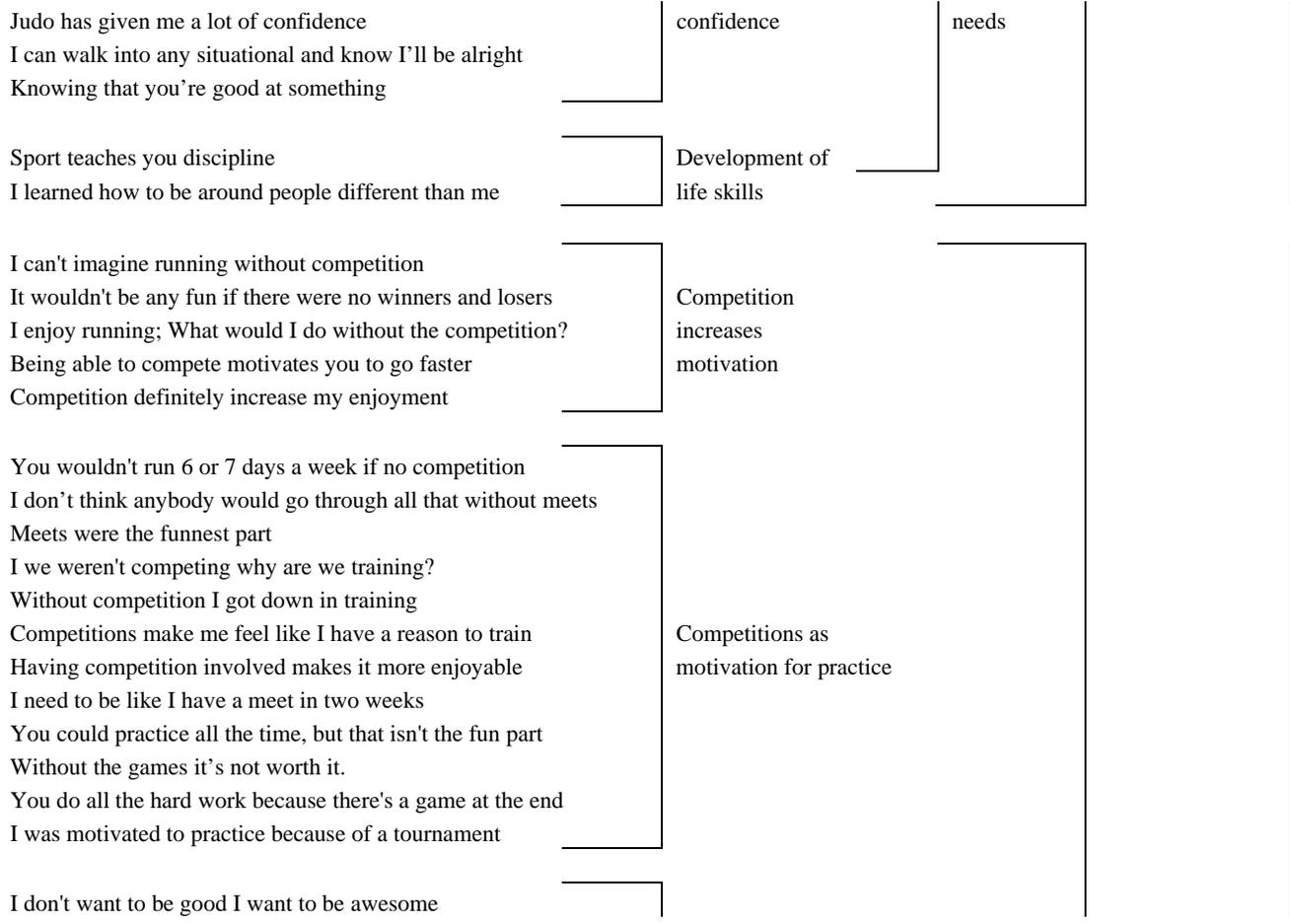


Figure 3. Continued

<p>I want to be the best person doing Judo I didn't want to lose, I wanted to be the best at everything</p>	<p>Being the best</p>	
<p>I kept playing when I was young because I was good at it I didn't like it at first, but when I started to get good I won the Broward County meet and that's when I knew I was running fast times and not really trying I played soccer the best so I stuck with it I was pretty good at it too Most of the time when I was younger I was the best</p>	<p>Early success</p>	<p>Competition</p>
<p>Winning is what drove me to work hard I loved to compete, going to meets and trying to win Everybody hates losing You want to touch the wall before them. It's my job to make sure I win We have a race and he will beat me if I'm not out here</p>	<p>Winning</p>	
<p>I am just happy if I do the best I can I was just happy with doing my best Having a personal best is way more motivating I am trying to be the best I can be I'm happy with 90th place if that is the best I can do When I'm doing the best I can I get consistent motivation If I can make myself the best I can be that good enough I'd rather just be the best I could be</p>	<p>Being the best I can be</p>	
<p>I am really motivated during championship time</p>		

Figure 3. Continued

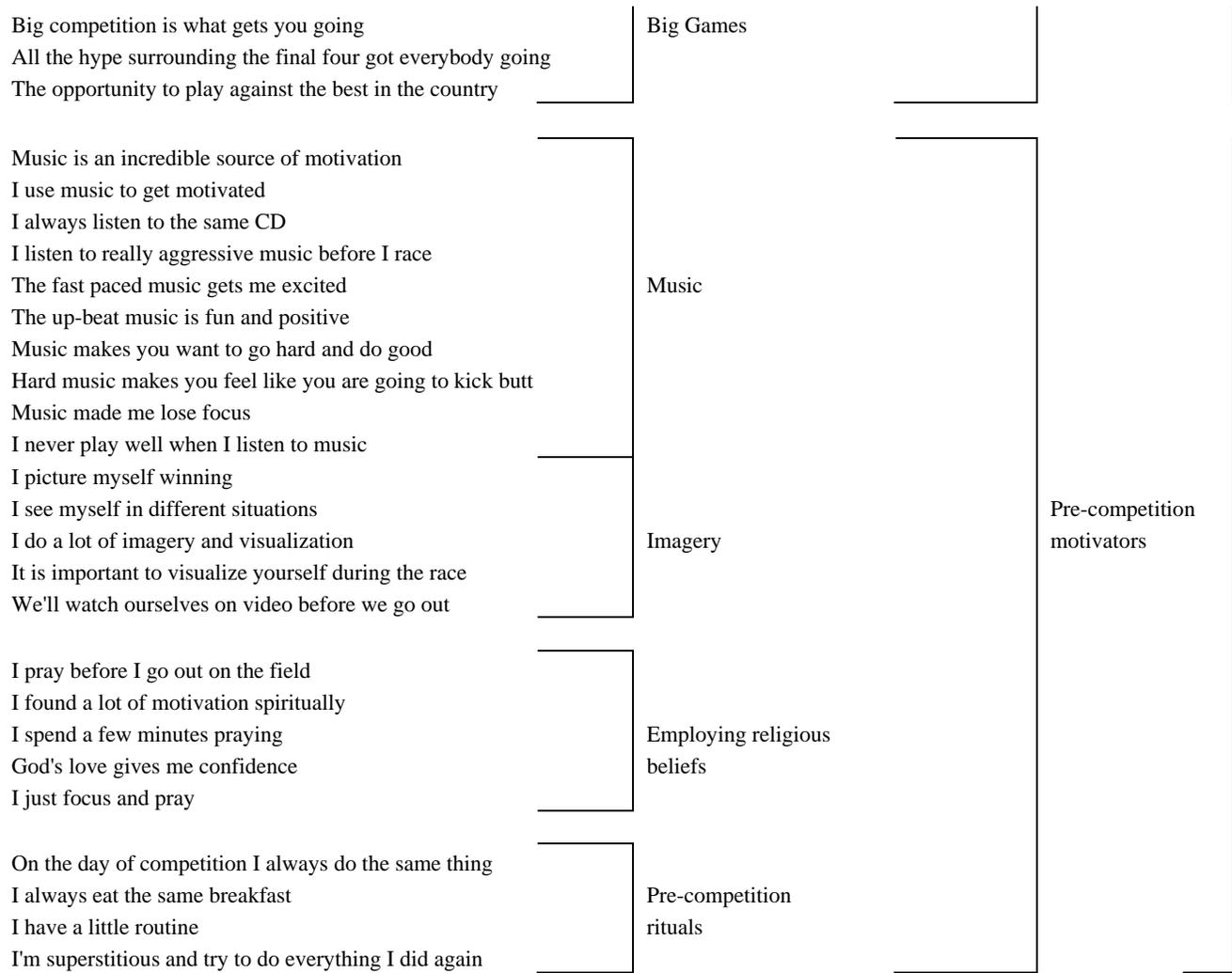


Figure 3. Continued

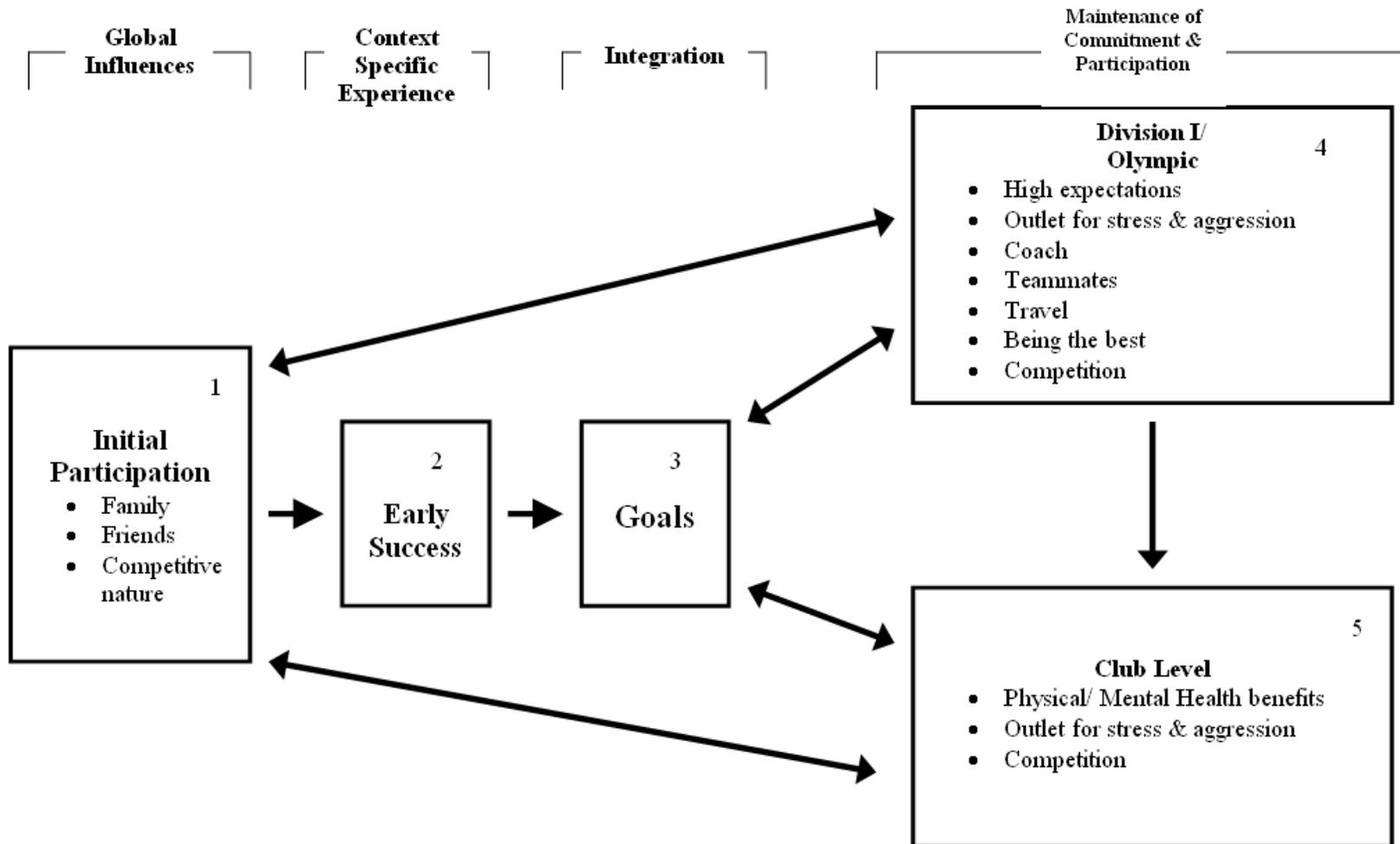


Figure 4. Developmental model of sources of motivation to participate in sport

APPENDIX A
INFORMED CONSENT

PLEASE READ THIS DOCUMENT BEFORE YOU DECIDE TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY. YOU MAY KEEP THIS PAGE.

TO: All Research Participants

FROM: Bradley R. Langley

RE: Informed Consent

STUDY TITLE: A Qualitative Examination of Athletes' Sources of Motivation

PURPOSE OF THIS STATEMENT: The purpose of this statement is to summarize the study I am conducting, explain what I am asking you to do, and to assure you that the information you and other participants share will be kept completely confidential to the extent permitted by law. Specifically, nobody besides the Principal Investigator and his supervisor will be able to identify you in this study and your name will not be used in any research reports that result from this project.

AGE REQUIREMENT: You must be at least 18 years of age or older in order to participate in this study.

WHAT YOU WILL BE ASKED TO DO: If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete one interview between 8/10/2002 and 5/1/2003. The interviews will be audio tape-recorded and you will be asked a series of questions about the motivation behind your athletic performance. You may also be asked about relationships with family, coaches, and peers during this development. You do not have to answer any questions you do not wish to answer. Your responses will be kept completely confidential to the extent permitted by law. The Principal investigator and his supervisor will be the only people to have access to these interviews. The principal investigator will transcribe the interviews and the tapes will be locked in a file cabinet. After your interviews have been transcribed, the tape will be destroyed. You will receive a copy of the transcribed interview, as well as a brief summary by the principal investigator.

TIME REQUIRED: Approximately 30-60 minutes for each interview.

RISKS AND BENEFITS: There are no risks expected from participating in this study. As a result of your participation, you may develop insights into motivations for your athletic participation.

COMPENSATION: No compensation will be given as a result of participating in this study.

CONFIDENTIALITY: Your identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. Your transcribed interview will be assigned a code number. The tapes will be kept in my office in a locked file cabinet. When the study is completed and the transcripts have been analyzed, all tapes will be destroyed. Your name will not be used in any report.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION: Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. There is no penalty for not participating.

RIGHT TO WITHDRAW: You have the right to withdraw from the study at anytime without consequence.

WHOM TO CONTACT IF YOU HAVE QUESTIONS ABOUT THIS STUDY: Brad R. Langley, Department of Exercise and Sport Sciences, 100 Florida Gym, PO Box 118207, Gainesville, FL, 32611; ph. (352) 392-0580 x.1377

WHOM TO CONTACT ABOUT YOUR RIGHTS AS A RESEARCH PARTICIPANT IN THE STUDY: UFIRB Office, Box 112250, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611-2250; ph. 392-0433.

PLEASE SIGN AND LEAVE THIS PORTION OF THE FORM WITH US.

AGREEMENT:

I have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in the procedure and I have received a copy of this description.

Participant: _____ Date: _____

Principal Investigator: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX B
INTERVIEW GUIDE I

1. Tell me about your family, mom, dad, brothers, sisters?
2. Where did you grow up?
3. Have you always lived in the same place or did you move around?
4. Why/ When did you get into competitive athletics? (Was there a particular incident that prompted participation?)
5. Which competitive sports did you play in high school?
6. What was your motivation for beginning your participation in these activities at the high school level (intrinsic/ extrinsic)?
7. What is your favorite/ most memorable athletic experience?
8. What was your favorite thing about the activities? Was it the competition, the work ethic, the team aspect?
9. How would you describe yourself as an athlete (i.e., talented, hard-worker, etc.)?
10. When you are having an off day athletically, what do you use to help motivate you to do your best?
11. Do you ever feel burned out, feel like quitting? What keeps you going then?
12. What made you decide to continue your athletic participation into college? (intrinsic/ extrinsic)
13. Do you find it harder to get motivated to go through the demanding workouts of college level competition?
14. What are some sources of strength you draw upon to continue to excel at this level?
15. Are the reasons you participate in college level competition different than you reasons in high school?
16. Do you see yourself participating competitively after college is over (recreational leagues, etc.)?

17. What kinds of things do you use to get yourself in the right frame of mind before and during a competition?
18. Would you consider yourself a competitive person outside of the arena of athletics?
19. What kinds of things do you focus on after a good performance? A bad one?
20. When is the most highly motivated you have been for a performance or competition? What triggered the extra drive?
21. Do you feel that you compete better when you put a lot of pressure on yourself to perform well, or when you feel relaxed and at ease?
22. What do you think about in highly pressurized situations such as when the game is on the line?
23. What kinds of things do you do to motivate yourself before a game?
24. What kinds of thoughts drive you to do your best every time you step onto the field, court, etc.?
25. When you are having a tough day, does the prospect of having a workout energize you, or is it something else to try and get through?
26. What were your initial reasons for sport participation?
27. Thinking back on some of your past successful competitive performances, does anything stand out that might have driven you to compete harder or be more competitive?
28. What are the things that you enjoy most about your sport?
29. Do you feel that the element of competition increases or decreases your enjoyment of the game?
30. When you know that you have a big game to prepare for, do you feel more or less motivated to work hard to prepare?
31. How do you feel after you have been successful in a competition? More or less motivated? What about unsuccessful?
32. Do you ever get frustrated with your progress or athletic endeavors?
33. What drives you when you feel frustrated with your progress?
34. Do you feel the need to be competitive in other aspects of your life?
35. If so, what are some of the areas?

36. How do you define competition?

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Brad Langley was born in Houston, Texas February, 15, 1977. He received his Bachelor of Science degree in kinesiology (with a second teaching field in biology) from Hardin- Simmons University in Abilene, Texas. While there he competed in football, and was also a student assistant coach for the football team. He went on to teach integrated physics and chemistry for a semester at McKinney North High School in McKinney, Texas then began Graduate School at the University of Florida (UF) in Gainesville, Florida. While at UF, Brad had the opportunity to be a graduate assistant in Exercise and Sport Science department where he taught while completing his course work. He completed his Master of Science degree with a concentration in sport psychology in 2005, and moved back to Texas to pursue a career in teaching and coaching. He is currently a chemistry teacher and a football and soccer coach at Ross Sterling High School in Baytown, Texas.