Chapter II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Since the beginning of the 1980’s the descriptive study of youth sport motivation has been greatly developed. Certain personal variables, societal factors, activity dimensions and situational considerations for training are identified and shown to have a potential influence of activity.

Sincere efforts have been made by the research scholar to locate literature related to this study. The relevant studies found from various sources which the research scholar has come across are cited below:-

Marrie and Shephard (1971) surveyed middle-aged Canadian men and found that they participated more for aesthetic, cathartic and social experiences than for health and fitness. Sidney and Shephard (1971) also found elderly men and women to value aesthetic experience highest, followed by health and fitness.

Pozzi et.al (1975) studied motivation of country and city boys who were members of school sports groups. Result indicated that the country boys were motivated mainly by competition socialization and mobility, while the city boys were concerned chiefly with aesthetics and self- improvement.
Alderman and Wood (1976) conducted investigation on 425 Canadian male ice-hockey players ages 11 to 14, for incentive motives for participating in hockey. The result revealed that affiliation was found to be the strongest motive expressed by the athletes. Next in order were excellence, stress and success rated as the most important incentives by the players with independence and power incentives being rated as least important.

Alderman (1976) administered the A-IMI to 2000 athletes (age 11 to 18) participating in several sports and reported similarity between the incentives of male and females. Affiliation, excellence and stress were found to be the stronger incentives, while aggression and independence were the weakest one with regard to gender, age and culture, and did not report any motivational differences.

Wood (1976) examined gender and type of sport (team versus individual) difference on the A-IMI in 400 female and male swimmers and basketball players, ages 11 to 15 years. The incentives of excellence and stress were valued the same by all groups. Basketball players valued more independence and aggression as compared to swimmers. Female swimmers scored higher on success than female basketball players did. Male basketball
players scored higher on aggression than male swimmers did. Wood (1976) revealed some gender difference which were not apparent in Alderman’s study.

Mac Donald (1985) examined incentive motivation differences between 319 U.S. and Canadian male and female junior high school athletes and reported significant gender difference on five of the seven incentive systems of the A-IMI. Males scored higher on aggression, power, stress and success incentives, while female scored higher on the affiliation incentives.

Mowrey (1989) investigated the incentive motivation of female and male U.S. master swimmers with the A-IMI. Male swimmers scored higher on the incentives of the power, independence, success and aggression, whereas female swimmers placed higher values on the incentives of affiliation.

Gill, Gross and Huddleston (1983) in their study on 720 boys and 418 girls attending universities of IOWA summer sports schools in baseball, basketball, golf, gymnastics, football, wrestling and tennis. The study revealed that success, team atmosphere, friendship, fitness, energy release, skill development and fun is the basic participation motive dimensions of young athletes. Female, however were found to differ from males in the importance they placed on the achievement status factor, rating this factor as being of less importance.
Gauld, Feltz and Weiss (1985) conducted a study on assess participation motives of competitive youth swimmers and to examine whether swimmers differing in sex, age, ability and level of experience, vary in their participation objectives. 347 swimmers ranging in age from 8 to 19 years completed the Gill, Gross and Huddleston participation Motivation Inventory which assessed 30 objectives for participation. The result indicated that swimmers rated fun, fitness, skill improvement, team atmosphere and challenge as the most important motives for participation. Females were equivalent to males in emphasis placed on achievement status, but placed greater emphasis on friendship and fun.

Klint & Weiss’s (1987) study of young gymnasts found that Harter’s (1978) theory is an acceptable explanation for the relationship between competence and motivation. The researchers found that children high in perceived physical confidence were more motivated by skill development reasons. For example, Klint & Weiss (1987) state “gymnasts high in perceived social competence were more motivated by the affiliation aspects of sport compared to their low perceived competence counterparts”. Therefore, these conclusions lead to the consideration that those interested in skill development may drop out if skills are not improving or they cannot learn new skills. Alternatively, those interested in affiliation may consider leaving if their social
needs are not being met. In summary, the relationship of Harter’s (1978) theory to sport participation is not a strong one probably because of the complex relationship of factors involved (Roberts, 1992). There are similarities between Cognitive Evaluation Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and Competence Motivation Theory; however, they do not completely explain participation motivation in sport and exercise. In this sense, these theories provide only part of the picture; it is to the remaining parts or theories that we now turn.

A study by Brasile and Hedrick (1991) compared the participation incentives of adult and youth wheelchair basketball players. Task, ego, social integration, fitness and health, and social affective responses were analyzed. The top four responses of both youth and adult participants were team interaction, improving ability, testing against standards, and excitement. Adult and youth participants were similar in their perception of motivation participation. Intrinsic task-oriented activities were equally important for adults and youth, but ego and social integration were observed to be more important to youth. Youth responses included, "It gives me the opportunity to be with friends," It pleases others who are close to me," "It gives me a chance to use good equipment," and "It offers me the opportunity to be independent. Brasile et al. (1991) researched the five participation motivation incentives among athletes with and without disabilities. At the time, there was little empirical
evidence devoted to the value of understanding what motivates athletes with and without disabilities to participate in sports. Results indicated that there were more similarities than differences among those with and without disabilities in terms of incentives for participation in sport. It was discovered that task incentives and fitness were important to all athletes seriously involved in sports. Participants also reported ego incentives as important. Social integration and social affective incentives had less impact on participation motivation. Social integration incentives were more important for athletes with disabilities.

Hatfield (1998) investigated motivational incentives among collegiate athletes with and without disabilities. The participants completed a respondent information form and a Participation Reason Scale (Brasile et al., 1991). Participants in this study included division I and II athletes from seven universities. Of the 128 respondents, 37 were males without disabilities, 49 were females without disabilities, 37 were male wheelchair athletes, and five were female wheelchair athletes. The results showed that athletes with and without disabilities appeared to participate in collegiate sports for similar reasons. The only difference was found in the fitness incentives, which were higher for athletes with disabilities. Ego, task, social integration, and social affective incentives were similar.
Harter’s (1978) Competence Motivation Theory, an individual is motivated by a demonstration of competence, therefore he/she attempts mastery (i.e. learn and demonstrate sport skills) at an achievement task. The individual is rewarded with a positive effect if successful, which may result in continued motivation to participate. Therefore, individuals believe they are competent at a skill that will maintain interest, participate longer, and continue mastery attempts. Alternatively, those with limited perceived competence will not be as persistent and may ultimately lose interest.

The responses of the young elite athletes produced results which were very similar to those of previous studies (Alderman & Wood, 1976; Gould, Feltz & Weiss, 1985;). The athletes' motivation for playing was to have fun, challenge their abilities, and have social interaction with peers. Winning was not of paramount importance to the athletes, fun was the most important factor. The data revealed that the players reported a variety of activities and/or situations that they described as being fun. As Ewing and Seefeldt (1990) stated, "developing an understanding of what constitutes 'fun' will be crucial in encouraging greater participation". Having fun and challenge were the dominant themes expressed by the athletes as reasons for participating in sports. In the final interview the researchers asked the athletes to rank the components of fun, personal challenge, and winning according to their importance.
The athletes overwhelmingly rated the components in the following order:

1. Fun
2. Challenge
3. Winning

Winning was ranked as the third most important component of sport participation by the athletes. On the basis of the investigation Ewing & Seefeldt, 1990; suggests that winning was kept in perspective by this group of elite athletes. Because the inherent nature of sport produces more losers than winners, product outcomes such as winning a baseball game or tournament should be de-emphasized. This de-emphasis would contribute to a more inclusive atmosphere, would be congruent with the desires of the youth athletes and would contribute to their desire for continued sport involvement. Therefore, it is suggested that one goal for program administrators, coaches and parents to strive for would be the maintenance of a balanced approach to sport, with the emphasis on winning redirected toward providing fun experiences which provide appropriate levels of challenge for the athletes.
Hietmann (1986) divided the female subjects into the age groups 40-59, 60-69 and 70+ and the male subjects into 60-69, and 70+. The reasons for participation in sport could be achievement, aesthetic, appearance, coping, health, and social. The ranking of the motives were the same for both the male groups that is health, social, coping, appearance, achievement and aesthetics. The female groups aged 60-69 and 70+ ranked their motives similarly that is health, social, coping, appearance, achievement and aesthetics. While the younger females, aged 40-49 ranked their motives as health, appearance, achievement, coping, aesthetics and social.

Kamlesh, Kumari and Kaur (1987) studied the level of achievement motivation in inter-collegiate female players belonging to various games, Kamlesh’s sport achievement test was administered and it was found that the players have a moderate level of sport achievement motivation, and no inter-sport difference on the level of achievement motivation were reported.

Gould and Petlichkoff (1988) have identified the participation motives of children involved in physical activity so as to improve skills, fun and fitness while Meyers, Weizel and Holliday (1989) have identified adult’s motives as to feel better control weight and friendship.
Kamlesh (1989) made an attempt to diagnose the incentive motivation of Indian athletes through Wood’s Incentive Motivation inventory and concluded that excellence, affiliation, success and sensation are the major reasons for the athletes to participate in competitive sport; and male and female athletes do not differ on the level of their incentive motivation. He also found that Indian athletes are average in their motivation profile.

Brodkin and Weiss (1990) have tried to identify the motives for participation in competitive swimming as a function of developmental levels across the life span. Follow-up analysis indicated that the factor characteristics of competitive swimming was rated significantly lower by the older adults while social status was rated significantly higher by older children and high school or college age swimmers. Another factor, significant others were rated significantly higher by children and fun was rated most important by younger children and older adults. Finally, health or fitness motives were rated highest by young and middle adults and lowest by older children and older adults.

Kumari (1991) did a study on selected psychological variables of female Indian Hockey players (N=238). Incentive Motivation Inventory was used to measure the incentive motives for participating in hockey. The result indicated excellence to be the strongest motives expressed by the athletes. Next in the
order were sensation, success, affiliation and power rated the most important incentives by the players with independence and aggression incentives being rated as least powerful.

Kamlesh (1994) did a replicative study on incentive motivation for 61 males and 41 females’ undergraduate students athletes of Lakshmibai National College of Physical Education, Thiruvanthapuram. Their age varied from 17-21 years. The data were collected through administration of Incentive Motivation Inventory. The results indicated that excellence, success, affiliation, and stress are the strongest incentive motives operating in athletes. Further he also found that gender based difference in incentive motivation are insignificant.

Yael Netz and Shulamith Raviv (2004) did a study on Age Differences in Motivational Orientation Toward Physical Activity: An Application of Social—Cognitive Theory. According to social—cognitive theory, an individual's motivation to engage in physical activity is based on three postulates: self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and self-evaluated satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The purpose of the present study was to examine age, gender, level of education, and level of activity in relation to those postulates in 2,298 Australians aged between 18 and 78. The authors conducted regression analyses for self-efficacy and for outcome expectations as dependent variables; age,
gender, education level, and level of physical activity served as independent variables. Chi-square analyses assessed differences in the health incentive to exercise, the perceived level of activity, and the perceived level of fitness. Results indicated significant age differences on all variables. The older individual felt lower self-efficacy in relation to physical activity and expected fewer benefits from participating in physical activity. However, older individuals who engaged in physical activity rated themselves as more active and fit than non-exercisers of their same age and gender. Physical activity and level of education were positively correlated with self-efficacy, and men were more efficacious than women were. The implications are that interventions aimed at increasing participation in physical activity should take into consideration differences in incentives.

Fry and Fry (1999) used the Theory of Achievement Motivation to examine the goal perspectives and motivational responses of 171 (48 females and 123 males) elite junior weight lifting athletes. Participants were asked to fill out a survey while competing in the 1995 National Junior Weightlifting Championships and the 1996 Junior Olympics. The survey analyzed several variables including: goal orientations, enjoyment, effort, perceived ability, and physical self-worth. Results on gender differences found that females had significantly higher task orientations than males; they correspondingly tended
to have greater enjoyment than males. Correlation data between the predictor variables (goal orientation) and criterion variables (enjoyment, effort, perceived ability, and physical self-worth) found that a mastery goal orientation was positively and significantly correlated to the athletes’ perception of enjoyment and effort. Conversely, a high outcome orientation coupled with a low mastery orientation was significantly correlated with low effort, less physical self-worth, and interestingly enough, a high perception of ability. The fact that those high in outcome orientations tended to have a high perception of their ability further supports Nicholls theory. Nicholls predicted that people that have a high ego orientation, but a low perceived ability would quit, because their success is determined by their ability to defeat others. It is suggested that these individuals must convince themselves that they have a high ability, in order to persevere in sport. However, individuals who are mastery oriented have a more accurate perception of their ability, because ability is not as critical a factor for them. Thus, no matter what their perceived ability, they will still give high effort, seek challenges, and persevere. Therefore, collectively, these results supported Nicholls Achievement Motivation Theory.

Varghese (1994) did a study on the motivational profile of athletes. She used Incentive motivation and Achievement Motivation questionnaire for the collection of data. She selected university athletes and veteran athletes. The
result indicated that the major motivating force for participation in sports by university athletes is independence and aggression, while those of veteran athletes are excellence and affiliation. Despite the age difference between university and veteran athletes and the physiological difference of male and female athletes, the basic underlying components in sport is found to be nearly the same.

Kathy Gill, Virginia Overdorf (1994) did a study to understand whether reasons or incentives for exercise vary across age. According to the theory of personal investment motivation to exercise will be high if the exercise experience meets the person's specific exercise goals. Two hundred and seventy-two females between the ages of 18 and 60 years completed an exercise incentive questionnaire. One-way ANOVAs were conducted to determine whether the importance of eleven specific exercise incentives differed across four age groups; under 31 years (n=75), 31-40 years (n=57), 41-50 years (n=71), and 51-60 years (n=39). Results showed that the youngest age group reported exercising significantly more as a means for gaining recognition than the 31-40 age group. The three youngest groups also reported exercising more as a means to control weight than the oldest group. Physical health, fitness, stress management, task mastery, and appearance were highly valued by
subjects of all ages while competition and creative expression were the least valued incentives across the four age groups.

Kong, Kyung-Ho (2003) did a study to shed light on the influences of the Adult’s demographic characteristics on motivations for sports participation. With this in mind, the researcher made a choice of 30 sports centers out of 45 ones, working with a total of 375 men and women aged over 20 who had been taking part in sports activities at public and civil sports centers in Seoul and Kyeonggi Province for more than three months with the help of the cluster random sampling method. The questionnaire involved such five factors as sex, age, academic background, job and income, including such sports motivations as activity motivation, curiosity motivation, physical motivation, friendship motivation, and personality-development motivation (a total of 16 questions) with Cronbach's = .907. The research calculated Cronbach’s for the reliability test of the questionnaire, depending on average, standard deviation and one-way analysis of variance so as to come up with the relationship between demographic characteristics and motivations for sports participation. The following are the findings:-

1. First, the survey on sex and motivation for sports participation shows that the male subjects were higher than the female subjects in terms of friendship motivation (M:3.27, F:2.78), personality-development motivation
(M:3.22, F:2.93), activity motivation (M:3.84, F:3.30), and achievement motivation (M:3.20, F:2.87), but that the female subjects were higher than the male subjects in terms of physical motivation. There was a statistically significant difference in each factor.

2. Second, the research on age and motivation for sports participation indicates that in terms of friendship motivation, activity motivation, achievement motivation, physical motivation and personality-development motivation, those in their thirties dominated: 3.20, 3.78, 3.31, 3.84, and 3.29, respectively, and that in case of curiosity motivation, the subjects in their twenties (3.64) dominated. There was a statistically significant difference in each.

3. Third, the survey on academic background and motivation for sports participation shows that in case of friendship motivation, personality-development motivation, activity motivation, curiosity motivation, collegians dominated: 3.26, 3.19, 3.72, and 3.65 respectively and that in case of physical motivation, those who graduated from high schools (3.77) dominated. There was a statistically significant difference. In case of achievement motivation, collegians and those who graduated from universities dominated: 3.14, which mean that there was no statistically significant difference.
4. Fourth, the research on jobs and motivation for sports participation shows that in case of friendship motivation, personality-development motivation, and activity motivation, those engaged in management and administration dominated: 3.41, 3.40, and 3.92, respectively and that collegians, housewives, and others dominated in case of curiosity motivation, physical motivation and achievement motivation: 3.62, 4.06, and 3.46, respectively.

5. Fifth, the survey on income and motivation for sports participation indicates that the majority of the subjects earned more than 2 million won (3.85) in terms of physical motivation and that there was a statistically significant difference, but that in case of friendship motivation, personality motivation, activity motivation, curiosity motivation and achievement motivation, those who earned a living ranging from 1.5 million won to 2 million won dominated (3.17, 3.24, 3.69, 3.48, 3.25). But there was no statistically significant difference.

Alexandris et al. (2002) investigated the influence of constraint dimensions on intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation. The self-determination theory and the hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were used as the theoretical framework. Two hundred and fifty seven (N = 257) adult individuals (residents of the city of Thessaloniki,
Greece), who reported participation in some type of sport and physical activity, completed the Sport Motivation Scale and the leisure constraints questionnaire. The results indicated that intrapersonal constraints accounted for 38% of the variance in amotivation, and 15% of the variance in intrinsic motivation. No relationships were revealed between interpersonal and structural constraints and motivation, and between constraint dimensions and extrinsic motivation. These results suggest that intrapersonal constraints act as de-motivating forces for individuals. They support elements of the hierarchical model of leisure constraints, and further clarify the role of motivation in the model. Finally, they suggest that future research should focus on the conceptualization of intrapersonal constraints, and their relations with other social and psychological mediators of motivation that have been proposed in the literature.

Chen et al (2004) studied to investigate the motivation of sports participation in Chinese elite athletes with physical disabilities. The investigation aimed to determine if sport motives differed between sex (male versus female), age (youth versus adults), level and years of training, and disabilities (congenital versus acquired). 140 Chinese elite athletes with physical disabilities from 14 different delegations were asked to complete the Participation Motivation Inventory (PMI) and Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire. 115 surveys (M=64, F=51) were returned (82.1%
returning rate). SPSS was used for the data analysis, and ANOVA and t-test were used for statistical analysis. Results showed that the important factors of motivation for sports participation was skill development, fun, friendship, achievement, situation factors, and energy release, from the highest to the least respectively. The improvement in skill and fun were as high incentives for sports participation, and the situation factors and energy release were two the least motive factors for participation. The motivation between athletes with congenital and acquired disabilities was significant different (p<0.05), the athletes with congenital disabilities score much higher on “Energy release” than that of athletes with acquired disabilities. There was no significant difference between gender and type of disability on sports participation (P>0.05). There were notable differences between youth and adult on Goal Orientation, the data analysis revealed that the old athletes scored significant higher than younger athletes on Ego Orientation (P<0.01). However, there was no significant difference between young and old athletes on Task Orientation. The survey also found that there was no significant difference between age, self-evaluation, injury time (congenital/acquired), types of disabilities on Task Orientation. The relationship between Goal Orientation and Sports participation had been also analyzed, and the results showed that there was a high correlation between Task Orientation and Skill Development, as well as Task Orientation and Fun. The
results of this study met the findings from other studies. In conclusion, the results of this survey indicated that Skill Development and Having Fun were the two major factors motivating individuals with physical disabilities to participate in sports. Coach should create more competitive opportunities for athletes to compete each other, and at the same time, create more fun activities for athletes to enjoy their participations.

H. Kerr et al. (2004) did a study on Motivation and level of risk in male and female recreational sport participation. Participants in this study were 1469 male and female students who specified a principal sport or physical activity that they had engaged in during the preceding year. They completed a sport and exercise participation questionnaire which contained a modified version of the Motivational Style Profile (MSP). This was used to determine respondents’ situational state balances. In addition, students responded to two sets of statements concerning (a) their reasons for participation (eight statements) and (b) their Meta motivational orientation in life in general (six statements). Both sets of statements were formulated in the framework of reversal theory’s Meta motivational states. Respondents were grouped on the basis of the activity they had stated as their main sport or physical activity, as being relatively low in risk (e.g., aerobics, badminton, dance, hiking, tennis), medium in risk (e.g., athletics, fencing, life saving, netball, volleyball), or high in risk of physical
injury (e.g., basketball, handball, judo, rugby, soccer). Significant overall differences in state balances were found for males \(F(10,1252)=3.414, p=0.0012\), but not for females \(F(10,1448)=1.18, p=0.23\), and in sport specific reasons for participation for both males \(F(16,1246)=9.15, p=0.0001\), and females \(F(16,1470)=2.34, p=0.002\). However, both male and female risk groups showed insignificant overall differences in life meta motivational orientations.

Jones et al (2006) did a study on participation motivation in martial artists in the west midlands region of England. The objectives were to identify the participation motivations and the perceived importance of certain participation factors in martial artists in the West Midlands, England, U.K. A 28-item adapted version of the Participation Motivation Questionnaire with additional demographic questions was distributed to 30 martial arts clubs in the West Midlands region. Eight questions that assessed the perceived importance for participation of progression through grades, learning self defense skills, technical ability of instructors, cost of participating, development of confidence, underpinning philosophy and instructional style were included. Seventy-five questionnaires were returned from a total of 11 clubs from across representing practitioners in Tai Chi, Karate, Kung fu, Aikido, Jeet Kune Do, British Free Fighting, Taekwon-Do and Jujitsu. Results indicated that the rank order in
terms of participation motives was: 1- Affiliation; 2-Friendship; 3-Fitness; 4-Reward/status; 5-Competition; 6-Situational and 7-Skill development. Participants who trained for more than 4 hours per week placed greater importance on the underpinning philosophy of the martial art. Findings suggest that whilst there is a gender discrepancy in participation level, once engaged, females were equally committed to weekly training. The ‘style’ of the instructor is of paramount importance for enhancing student motivation to participate. High volume practitioners would appear to be fully immersed in the holistic appreciation of the martial art through increased value placed on its underpinning philosophy.

Longhurst and Spink (1987), did a study on Participation motivation of Australian children involved in organized sport. The purpose of the present study was to examine the participation motives of Australian youth involved in a number of sports, determine any sport differences, and compare the results with North American findings. Four hundred and four male and female youths from 8 to 18 years of age and from five sports participated in the study. Subjects responded to a 27-item sport participation motive questionnaire. Responses indicated that the most important reasons for participation in sport were 'to improve skills,' 'be physically fit,' 'compete,' 'learn new skills; and 'to be challenged.' These reasons were similar to North American findings except
for the absence of 'fun' in Australian data. Male and female responses were similar, thus supporting previous research. However, significant differences emerged as a function of age and sport. Younger participants endorsed extrinsic and social motives to a greater degree than older participants. Swimmers considered 'having fun,' 'being with friends,' 'action' and 'excitement' as all of significantly less importance than participants from other sports. Factor analysis suggested four dimensions of participation motivation. These were labeled 'team/achievement,' 'situational,' 'status' and 'fitness.' Factor structures varied in several important instances compared with North American data. This study generally supports previous North American findings, but does suggest cultural differences in participation motivation as well as sport and age differences.

Salguero et al (2004) did a study to find relationship between perceived physical ability and sport participation motives in young competitive swimmers. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between participation motives and perceived physical ability in young Spanish swimmers and to investigate whether swimmers with high or low perceived physical competence differ in their intrinsic and/or extrinsic reasons for participation involvement. Four hundred and twenty-eight swimmers (204 boys and 224 girls), aged 8-22 years, responded to the Spanish versions of the Participation Motivation Inventory (PMI) and the Perceived Physical Ability
Scale (PPA). Swimmers were divided into low (below the 33%), medium (between the 33-66%) and high (above the 66%) perceived ability groups. Multivariate analysis indicated the existence of differences in motives for participation between swimmers with different levels of perceived physical ability. Follow-up univariate analyses yielded significant (p<0.05) effects for five motivational factors: health/fitness, fun/friendship, competition/skills, affiliation and status. In all cases swimmers high in perceived physical ability rated significantly higher than those in the other categories. The PPA by gender, age or level of expertise interaction was not significant. The study found that practitioners must consider the perceived ability of the competitors to better structure the social environment within which their swimmers operate.

Salselas et al (2007) did a study to find the relationship between sources of motivation and level of practice in young Portuguese swimmers. The aim of this study was to examine the relationship between participation motives and level of practice in young Portuguese swimmers and to investigate whether swimmers with a different expertise differ in their reasons for participation involvement. A total of 155 subjects (68 male and 87 female), aged 7 to 18 years, responded to the Portuguese versions of the Participation Motivation Inventory. The subjects were divided into those participating in learn-to swim programs (n=40), advanced programs (n=49) or competition (n=56).
A significant multivariate effect was obtained for level of practice, with children involved in learn-to-swim programs rating fitness, competition, general affiliation, technical skills and fun significantly lower in importance than the other two groups. A 2 (subject gender) x 3 (practice level) MANCOVA, with age at dropout, revealed that the effect of the covariate itself was not significant, but a main effect was found for gender, differing boys and girls only in the emotion factor. A significant interaction was also detected between gender and participation level, with a higher importance given to general affiliation by girls in comparison to boys in the advanced programs and competition categories. The results in a sample of Portuguese swimmers indicate the existence of multiple motives for participation and significant differences in motivational factors in relation to the practice level.

Murcia et al (2007) did a study on young athletes’ motivational profiles. The aim of this study was to examine the relationship between motivational characteristics and dispositional flow. In order to accomplish this goal, motivational profiles emerging from key constructs within Achievement Goal Theory and Self-Determination Theory were related to the dispositional flow measures. A sample of 413 young athletes (Age range 12 to 16 years) completed the PMCSQ-2, POSQ, SMS and DFS measures. Cluster analysis results revealed three profiles: a “self determined profile” characterized by
higher scores on the task involving climate perception and on the task orientation; a “oneself-determined profile”, characterized by higher scores on ego involving climate perception and ego orientation; and a “low self-determined and low non-self-determined profile” which had the lowest dispositional flow. No meaningful differences were found between the “self-determined profile” and the “non-self determined profile” in dispositional flow. The “self-determined profile” was more commonly associated with females, athletes practising individual sports and those training more than three days a week. The “non-self-determined profile” was more customary of males and athletes practising team sports as well as those training just two or three days a week.

Chambles (1983) tried to study the influence of reward in the form of verbal augmented feedback condition on the acquisition of closed gross motor skills by beginners. The sample consisted of 60 female college volunteers. The participants were randomly assigned to one of the three back groups: (a) Pattern feed back, (b) Error correction feed back, and (c) Control group.

The study concluded that for the acquisition of closed motor skills by beginners pattern feed back i.e., feedback emphasizing the appropriate movement pattern with correction of consistent errors is the most effective type
of verbal feedback. Reward in the form of feedback was shown as a significant factor in acquisition of motor skills.

Balazs administered Edwards’s Personal Preference Schedule and personal data questionnaire to female subjects. The psychological dynamics revealed in the case histories were:-

(i) Strong drives to excel, early goal setting and following through the original goals.

(ii) Positive self-image and well developed hetro-sexuality.

(iii) The main motivating force are parent and the coach.

Raul (1973) tried to study the effects of both reward and punishment on the performance of gross motor skill. The sample consisted of eight year and eleven year old girls. They were randomly assigned to one of the five treatment group’s verbal reward, tangible reward, verbal punishment, tangible punishment and no reinforcement. The gross motor skill employed was kicking play ground balls at a stationary target, which were 23 feet long and 3 feet high and divided into nine sections. The findings of the study concluded that:-

1. Among eight year old and eleven year old girls improvement in performance of a gross motor skill is greater under the condition of verbal punishment than under the condition of verbal reward and
tangible punishment when the subjects have learned the skill enough to exercise control over their performance and are not fatigued.

2. Among eight year old and eleven year old improvement in performance of gross motor skill is greater under the condition of tangible reward than under the condition of verbal reward when subjects have learned the skill well enough to exercise control over their performance and are not fatigued.

3. Among eight year old and eleven year old girls, gross motor skill performance of subjects is not significantly different under condition of verbal reward, tangible punishment and no reinforcement.

Thus rewards and punishment as motivational techniques have affected the groups differently under different conditions.

Similarly Gimbert and Mccaughan (1981) used reward and punishment in the form of positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement during performance of a fine motor task to observe any expectancy and performance difference while both positive and negative reinforcement had significant effects on expectancy.

Woolger and Power (1993) attempted to understand the rapidly growing literature on children's motivation and achievement in sport, the origins of
individual differences in sport orientation are poorly understood. Although researchers have examined the influence of coaching style on children's experiences, research on parental influences is limited. This is unfortunate, because, as has been documented in a variety of areas (e.g., academic achievement, intellectual competence, socio-moral development), parents play a major role in how their children come to view the world and respond to a wide range of situations and activities.

Given the potentially important role of parents as sports socializers and the current lack of a conceptual framework for this area, the purpose of the present paper is to present a framework for understanding parental influences based upon the literature on academic achievement motivation.

Despite the obvious differences between the academic and sports contexts (e.g., nature of the skills requiring mastery, primary contexts in which the activities occur, role of the self and others), a striking number of similarities exist. For example, both contexts involve:

a). Learning, practicing, mastering, and hierarchically organizing basic skills in the development of expertise.

b). Developing, implementing, and evaluating short-term plans in the pursuit of long-term goals.
c). Learning to cope with and learn from failures and successes.

d). Learning to benefit from the evaluative feedback of others.

e). Appreciating the value of motivation, drive, and persistence.

Moreover, both contexts involve evaluation and social comparison, and often the results of one's efforts are made public to both peers and significant adults. In both academic and sports contexts, parents often initially assume an instructive role, which is gradually taken over by peers and/or adult experts as the child improves.

Ntoumani’s (2002) study aimed to uncover the different motivational profiles in physical education. It was expected that at least two motivational profile would emerge: a self determined profile and a controlling motivation / motivation profile. Questionnaire was administered to 428 British students, aged between 14 and 16 years, from two schools in the Northwest of England.

A cluster analysis produced three motivational profile in the first school, which were replicated in the second school. The first was named the ‘self determined profile’ because the students displayed high self determined motivation, effort, enjoyment, and cooperative learning, and low controlling motivation, amotivation, boredom, and unequal recognition. The second profile was the ‘moderate motivation profile’ with moderate scores on all variables
measured. The third was named the ‘controlling motivation / amotivation’ profile because the students demonstrated high controlling motivation, amotivation, boredom, and unequal recognition, and low self-determined motivation, effort and enjoyment. The results demonstrate the importance of developing self – determined in physical education, as it is associated with desirable behavioural and affective outcomes.

Lindner and Kerr (2000) studied to extend the application of reversal theory for understanding motives for participation or non – participation in sport and physical activity. A secondary objective was to add to previous findings by investigating data from an Asian population.

Distributions of different groups of participants and non-participats, including male and female groups, were examined using Chi Square and two-way ANOVA procedures.

New university entrants ( N=3151) responded to a survey questionnaire in which motives for participation or non- participation were phrased in terms of reversal theory’s eight met motivational categories. For group comparison purposes, questionnaire responses were then used to classify respondents according to their primary sport participation or participation meta motivational orientation (MO). Frequency of intended future participation, perceived
physical ability (PPA) and perceived physical fitness (PPF) among MO groups was also examined. The study concludes that Reversal theory meta motivational categories were found to provide a useful means of examining motives for sport participation and non-participation.

Ommundsen et al. (2003) investigated the relationship between the perceived motivational climate, sportsmanship, and social-moral functioning and team norms in a sample of young male Norwegian soccer players. A cross-sectional study of 279 male soccer players (aged 12 – 14 years) taking part in the international youth soccer tournament, The Norway cup, was conducted in which players responded to a questionnaire measuring different dimensions of social-moral functioning, including moral judgments, priority for more mature social-moral motives or reasons faced with moral dilemmas, amoral and sportspersonship behaviour and team perceptions.

Canonical correlation analysis of variance showed that players who perceived the motivational climate as predominantly mastery orient reported more mature levels of social-moral reasoning and better sportspersonship behaviours. These players were also less apt to report amoral behaviour and perceive team norms as strongly disapproving of pro-aggressiveness. In contrast, players perceiving the motivational climate as predominantly performance oriented were more apt to report amoral behaviours in soccer and
were less likely to express sportspersonship behaviour. The findings illustrate the importance of studying motivational conditions in order to provide an understanding of social - moral functioning, sportspersonship and social – moral team norms in youth soccer.

Digelidis (2003) studied to assess the effect of a year-long intervention in Greek junior high school physical education on motivational climate, goal orientations and attitude towards exercise and healthy diet. Eighty – eight daily lessons aiming to facilitate task – involvement were developed with 262 students in an intervention group and 521 acting as controls. All were at the first year of junior high school (7th grade). The intervention was assessed through questionnaire at the beginning and end of the school year and 10 months after the end of the intervention. Participants completed the measures of motivational climate, goal orientations and attitudes.

Confirmatory factor analyses, and reliability and correlation analyses, supported the psychometric properties of the questionnaires. Covariance analysis results revealed that, after adjusting for initial difference on the assessed constructs, students who took part in the intervention, compared with the control group:-

(i) had more positive attitudes towards exercise and healthy eating,
(ii) had lower ego and higher task orientation scores, and

(iii) perceived that their teacher gave more emphasis on task involvement and less emphasis on ego involvement.

The study concluded that the physical educators can create a positive motivational climate facilitating student’s task orientation and attitudes towards exercise.

Hassandra, Goudas and Chroni (2003), attempted to provide further information regarding factors associated with students intrinsic motivation in physical education using a qualitative approach. Sixteen in-depth interviews were conducted with secondary physical education students who were selected from a pool of 254 students on the basis of their score on relevant questionnaires.

Analyses of interview transcripts revealed that factors associated with intrinsic motivation for participating in physical education were both social–environmental and individual differences. Individual differences in perceived competence, perceived autonomy, physical appearance, and goal orientation influenced student’s intrinsic motivation. Social environmental factors included lesson content, the physical education teacher, classmates, and school athletic facilities, as well as physical activity behaviours of the family and family
encouragement, participation in out-of-school athletic activities, media, cultural values and social preconceptions.

The authors conclude that a wide variety of social factors influence students’ intrinsic motivation in physical education. These need to be taken into account when designing physical education lessons.

Markland (2003), investigated that self determination moderates the relationship between perceived competence and intrinsic motivation. They observed that when self-determinism is high, intrinsic motivation, regardless the level of perceived competence. Further more they observed that when self-determinism was low, the level of perceived competence was important in predicting intrinsic motivation. The study results emphasis the critical importance of both perceived competence and self-determinism in the development and prediction of intrinsic motivation.

Amorose and Horn (2000) studied the relationship between intrinsic motivation and rewards in the form of athletic scholarships. 386 collegiate athletes participating in different sports groups completed the intrinsic motivation inventory (Mc Auley, Duncan and Tammen, 1989) designed to measure five aspects of intrinsic motivation.
Results of the study revealed that male athletes exhibited higher levels of intrinsic motivation than female athletes, and the scholarships athletes exhibit higher levels of intrinsic motivation than non-scholarship athletes. The authors concluded that scholarship may actually serve to enhance intrinsic motivation by conveying positive information suggesting a higher level of competence.