CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION
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Motivation is a broadbased term and encompasses a great many aspects of individual as well as collective behavior. Whether it is in work, study, or sports, individuals or groups are needed to be motivated to strive and respond to the incoming stimuli. As a matter of fact, behavior is the result of different motivational factors (conscious and unconscious); some of them are biological in nature, others psychological and still others draw their specific characteristics from the socio-cultural environments.

Motivation is the reinforcer of behavior. A person who is better motivated is bound to achieve greater success than the one who has not been properly motivated if all other factors are equal. The former would look more enthusiastic, lively and over-brimming with spirit than the latter. Butt (1976) asserts: "Two people engaged in the same sports activity may behave in a similar fashion overtly, but each may reach differently under the stress of winning or losing and may have different feelings when talking about his participation in sports". The difference here between the two lies in the degree or the extent to which each one has been motivated.

Norman L. Munn (1959) states that initially our motivation is like that of other organisms and it has the same physiochemical foundations. We share with them such physiological needs as hunger, thirst and sex. We are aroused much as they are when such needs arise and are not
satisfied; like them we are driven to activity. There is, however, an important expression of such needs. Animals satisfy them more directly. When hungry they seek food, where they have learned to find it. When excretory needs arise they satisfy them immediately. When animals are frustrated by others they fight, sometimes killing their opponents. Men on the other hand satisfy needs indirectly and in ways decreed only in part by nature and the immediate situation. They behave as men do. This is because much of human motivation even though it stems from the so-called "animal needs" is influenced by customs, traditions or man-made laws.

L. Dodge (1975) describes that goal directed behaviour, particularly in relation to physiological motives, is sometimes described in terms of a motivational sequence. A need arises due to bio-chemical arousal or sensitivity known as drive, an incentive becomes the focus of behaviour and when the organism acquires an appropriate incentive, reward occurs.

To Woodworth (1953), a motive means about the same as a motor. It is an inner force that moves a person to do something, just as the motor moves the automobile. It may drive the individual to approach and do something to an object in his environment or to get away from it. Motives are what "makes a person go". A number of common words that we use every day readily describe different kinds of motives desire, emotions, needs, interests and purposes.
Sometimes motive for an act is unclear not only to an observer but even to the person who does the act. At other times the motive may be distinct and fully conscious. The most definite of all motives is a purpose.

Bryant J. Cratty (1968) remarks that motivation can be considered in several dimensions. Motives can be defined as factors or conditions which influence events or objects that are selected for attention. The attempt to explain the intensity with which an individual engages in something and/or the effort sustained in some activity.

Motivation can be considered on a time dimension relative to performance of some kind of task. Initially, it relates to the general state of arousal and subsequent level of attention paid to a problem or task facing an individual.

Norman (1959) states that no learning can occur without motivation. The efficiency of learning (trials to learn, errors made, time consumed and so on) of animals and human beings is related to the strength of motivation. Generally speaking, the stronger the motivation the more efficient the learning. It is doubtful whether any learning occurs without motivation. The motivated organism is usually active.

He also stresses that when we consider human individuals it is clear from general observation that some are moved more by blame than by praise, and some are moved more by money than either. We cannot
say which kind of motivation or which incentive is more effective; praise, for example, is better than blame, it is also better than a piece of candy, a certain amount of money or physical punishment. A combination of the two (reward and punishment) has yielded better results than either alone.

Rewards, praise, satisfaction etc. have been regarded as better means of motivation than criticism reproof and rebuke for failure or in committing mistakes. When the student has done a really commendable job he should be praised by the teacher. The comments, the reactions on his performance, compliments etc. inspire the students to go ahead in his achievement; praise is superior to blame, but whatever the drawbacks, must be pointed out without reservation. Yet the false praise not only impedes progress but also kills the career of the performer.

Kamlesh (1983) observes that in the field of physical education and sports, no athlete can win or even show better performance without motivation. It is a wonderdrug which works miracle with athletes on and off the field. It is a sort of warm-up before the final plunge: a way of enticing children to learn and the athletes to compete.

Dorothy Raugh (1987) found that the individual’s optimal level of motivation in sports and related physical activities is unique and task specific; an evaluative instrument that determines the individual’s goals
and their relative strengths for each activity would be a useful tool for the physical educator and athletic coach.

Chiara Bergerone (1985) states that motivation develops within the group if a good relationship is established among children and if bonds of friendship are formed that become a source of satisfaction. A positive relationship between trainer and pupils, in which the children are respected and stimulated to develop their personalities, also becomes a motivating factor that satisfies the children’s needs to have an adult as reference and who acts as a guide and facilitator in their learning processes.

In short, it is important for the trainer to make use of the most genuine motivations of the children and to go halfway in meeting their needs and desires for growth, self-realization, and success, by explaining to them the importance of what they are doing and by permitting them to find motivations for continuing their activity everytime they learn a new movement, perfect a skill, play, cooperate and compete.

One basic aspect that seems to support any human activity and any interpersonal relationship is the need for stimulation, for recognition. The small infant has a real "hunger for stimuli", a need that is basic to his survival, as shown by cases of serious illness or even death due to lack of stimulation during the first year of life. A series of research studies has shown that, without positive stimulation, the difference
between stimuli that induce pleasure and those that induce pain becomes of secondary importance with respect to the absolute need for stimuli. It, therefore, seems that negative stimuli are preferable to no stimuli at all.

Landauer (1972) has stressed that one well known measure of motivation that assesses achievement motivation is the desire to compete successfully with a standard of excellence; people who strive to overcome obstacles are said to be achievement motivated. Their lives are marked by achievement-oriented efforts. In addition, if the motive is strong, their daydreams and the very way in which they express themselves are coloured by this orientation toward achievement.

McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1953) define achievement motivation as the tendency to do well, as the striving for success in competition with intrinsic norms. Intrinsic means here that the satisfying character of the achievement act has its roots in the relationship of the person to the task and not primarily in the relationship of the person to others.

Atkinson’s Model of achievement motivation (1957) shows that great difficulty of tasks, as well as on the contrary—very low demands of pupils, demotivate those who are motivated by success much more, than those who are motivated by failure. For this reason it is necessary to go on respecting individual reference norms in those individuals.
whose achievement motivation was modified in the direction of orientation on success.

According to Vanek et al. (1982) achievement motive is not generalized in all spheres of human activities. It is rather a specific motivation need related to the sphere in which the performance is being carried out, that affects achievement in a particular activity (class of activity), than a generalized ‘quasi-need’ lacking the contents.

Regarding the relationship between achievement motivation and attribution, Rotter (1966) states that high achievers attribute the causes of success or failure internally (e.g. to their own skill and concentration), whereas low achievers consider their outcomes to be externally determined (e.g. to the task demands). Kukla (1971) reports that high achievers more frequently attributed their successes and failures to the degree of effort expended than did low achievers.

Lefebvre and Cunningham (1977) showed the relationship between achievement and causal attribution to be more complex. They found that good performers make internally oriented attribution, i.e. they attribute success or the lack of it to ability and effort.

Norman (1959) maintains that the problem of what motivates people to act as they do is also complicated by the fact that motives are strengthened or weakened by outcomes. Quite often we get what we want only to find that it is no longer as appealing as it once was. Sometime we work toward a limited goal and, after reaching it, acquire
many wants that were not present before and which require additional efforts. Sometimes, two motives undergo radical changes. We are converted to new ideals and goals accordingly. Motives also vary from one person to another.

The effects of various motivational devices are different on different individuals. One may be a collector of stamps, another of coins or antiques. One may want to be doctor, the other an actor. It is often seen that a factor which motivates the poor child may not motivate the rich and vice versa. Children coming from rural areas are motivated by such things which they have not come across in the countryside while the children from the urban areas by those things which they have never experienced in the city setting.

Nuttin (1968) states that the process by which the individual sets himself a goal is vitally important in the influence of motivation on performance. To certain extent, man sets himself the goals towards which he is motivated.

Deci and Ryan (1985) have proposed that perceptions of personal competence are intimately related to intrinsic motivation. Those individuals who perceive themselves to have performed well (subjective outcome) are likely to be more intrinsically motivated than those who perceive personal competence to be low. These perceptions of competence are generally arrived at through positive or negative feedback, within the competitive sport domain, the most immediate
and salient feedback is derived from an objective outcome, winning or losing; winning in most instances, provides positive feedback leading to subsequent perceptions of competence and intrinsically motivated behaviour. However, losing; although a negative factor, does not necessarily imply decreased competence. Indeed, having lost but played well can challenge the individual to persist at the task with renewed efforts.

Several theoretical models identify perceived competence as a mediator of future choice, effort and persistence (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Harter, 1978; Nicholls, 1984). This theorized relationship between self-assessment and motivation has been supported by studies conducted in the sport setting (Roberts, 1984; Weiss, 1987). The practical implications suggest: continue and try harder with an activity in which the individual positively evaluates his or her own performance. Alternatively, perceptions of poor performance may result in avoidance, apathy and discontinued participation.

Gould (1979) states that the youth sport institution at Michigan State University has identified participation motivation for joining and discontinuing involvement in youth sports as the highest priority research question. Gould also reported the results of a survey of 23 sport psychologists and 33 youth sports coaches and administrators, which indicated why young athletes participate in youth sports and (why young athletes stop participating in youth sports) were rated within the 10 most important of 29 youth sports issues. If we are to
follow the philosophy (child first, winning second), which is a clear guideline of most youth sport programmes (e.g., Martens & Seefeldt, 1979), identification of the child’s reasons for participating is a logical first step.

To date information on participation motivation in youth sports is limited. In fact information on participation motivation at any level is limited. Participation motivation in sports has been examined using various approaches (Martens, 1970; Sonstroem, 1974, 1978; Sonstroem & Kampper, 1980), but these studies provide little guidance for investigations with youth sport populations. Martens (1970) related the general participation motivation categories of affiliation and task orientation to success and satisfaction with University, intramural participants and noted that high affiliation motivated teams were less successful but more satisfied than low affiliated motivated teams whereas high task motivated teams were more successful and more satisfied than low task motivated teams.

Sapp and Hauben-Stricker (1978) reported that "having fun" was the most frequently identified reason for participating in youth sports, with "learning new skill", "becoming physically fit", and "friends played" also cited as important reasons. Generally, then, the area of participation motivation in youth sports lacks research models and standard measures. The few existing studies provide some limited information, but certainly cannot be considered comprehensive.
Butt (1980) proposed a schematic representation of sports motivation according to biological, social, psychological and reinforcement levels that interact to determine and shape extrinsic motivation for the individual in sports. Aggression, conflict and competence composed the psychological level, while competition & cooperation defined the social level.

Some research studies have been conducted in an attempt to identify the needs, objectives and reasons for participation in sports and related physical activities by athletes and non-athletes. The following motivational factors have been identified as most important to the populations surveyed; to develop skills in various sports, learn lifetime activities, have fun, get regular exercise keeping good health and physical condition and challenge.

While a number of different views of motivation have prevailed in the past, contemporary sports psychologists have found it most useful to view motivated behaviour as a continuous interaction between the athlete and the situation in which he or she is placed.

Alderman (1978) finds that an athlete’s level of motivation results from the interaction or personal factors such as one’s personality needs and motives and situational factors such as importance of the game or event, one’s opponent and the approach utilized by one’s coach. Thus to maintain and increase motivation in young athletes and the athlete’s
motives for participation should be recognised and that the athletic situation should be structured to fulfill these motives.

Alderman and Wood (1976) conducted one of the first investigations designed to assess the motives young athletes have for participation, specifically, 425 Canadian male ice-hockey players, ages 11 to 14 completed a survey which assessed seven incentive motives for participation in hockey. These included independence incentives (e.g., doing things without the help of others), power incentives (e.g., controlling others), affiliation incentives (e.g., making friends with others), arousal incentives (e.g., seeking excitement), esteem incentives (e.g., prestige, status) excellence incentives (e.g., doing something very well) and aggression incentives (e.g., intimidating others). The results revealed that affiliation, excellence and arousal were rated as the most important incentives by the players with independence and power incentives being rated as least important. In a subsequent investigation of several thousand young athletes, ages 11 to 18, Alderman (1978) has reported similar results, with affiliation, excellence and arousal being rated as the most important incentives and aggression and independence being rated as least important. Moreover, the young athletes were found to have the same incentives regardless of their age, sport, sex or culture.

In another investigation, Sapp & Haubenstricker (1978) assessed participation objectives of 579 male and 471 female athletes, age 11 to 18, involved in non-school sports programmes in Michigan. The
results revealed that 90% of the sample participated for fun, 80% to improve their skills, and 56% for fitness benefits. In contrast, less than 20% of the sample rated "I had nothing else to do" and "to feel important" as important reasons for participation. Unlike Alderman's (1978) findings, several sex differences emerged. Specifically, 55% of the males, as compared to 50% of the females participated because their friends played while 44% of the females as opposed to 33% of the males joined programs to make new friends.

From these studies, it appears that the major motives, young athletes give for their participation are fun, to improve skill, to be with friends or make new friends, seek arousal, thrills and excitement, and to become physically fit. However, many questions remain only partially answered or unanswered altogether. For example, do athletes of varying ages, abilities and levels of experience differ in their participation motives? To what degree do male and female athletes differ in their motives for participation? Do children participating in one game have the same motives as have been found in children involved in other sports?

Marten and Scanlon (1975, 1974) defined competition as a comparison of a person's performance with a standard in the presence of another person "who is aware of the criterion for comparison and can evaluate the comparison standard".
Michael Bar-eli, Gershon (1989) find that an athlete’s competition-related motivation increases when the perceived significance of the competition increases and the more uncertain the perceived chances of success and when competition is extremely significant for the athlete and the perceived chances of success are about 50%, 50%. Motivation evokes a (too) high arousal state which may prevent optimal coping with the competitive requirements, when the competition is of minor personal significance and the chances of success are perceived either as approaching 100% or 0%. Motivation evokes a (too) low arousal state which may prevent an optimal coping with competitive requirements. A balanced motivational state prior to an upcoming competition occurs when the significance of the situation is perceived by the athlete to be of neither too high nor too low and the chances of success are estimated neither as totally uncertain nor as extremely high (maximum) or extremely low (minimum).

A pre-start state situation refers to the athlete’s competition-related motivation. Motivation at this stage may be analyzed in terms of the well known ‘expectancy-valence’ model (Lewin, 1938; Peak, 1955, Rotter, 1955; Tolman, 1959; Vroom, 1964; Porte, Awler and Hackman, 1975). Specifically motivation is defined by the combination of the perceived value of the goal the person is trying to achieve and the expectancy that this behaviour will be effective. Thus, motivation is effected by subjective expectations related to a specific upcoming competition where a coping strategy is anticipated. This degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction expected in case of achieving or missing
the anticipated goal (affect), and to the anticipated effort is associated with attainment of the goal.

Weinberg and Ragan (1979) reported that male subjects engaged in a competitive task were more intrinsically motivated than their non-competitive counterparts.

Butt (1979) states that competition is that in which motivation derives primarily from the desire to defeat others, and cooperation is that in which others are seen as essential partners in the sporting event or contest. The contest is seen by competitors as a chance for self-assertion and dominance over others while it is seen by cooperators as an opportunity for skill development and personal growth. The competitively motivated person will have concerns of status and position when contesting and may be resentful and frustrated if thwarted. In contrast the cooperative athlete will be found in good natured rapport with opponents after a victory or a defeat and will show concern for the welfare of others.

Lefebvre (1979) said that regarding the perception of the causes of success and failure, athletes showed quite different opinions. An outstanding female athlete on the 800 metre distance assumed that her national title was due to luck. One of our best performers on the 1500 metres distance explained his bad performance to his lack of talent. Other athletes, however, referred to effort and lack of effort as the basic cause for the successes and failures. A few athletes also considered the
opponent, the extrinsic circumstances such as weather, as important determinants. Hence, athletes differed very much in the way they explained their successes and failures to luck, talent, effort, and/or task variables. It might also be very useful to link their attributional analysis to the achievement motives of the athlete.

According to Nicholls (1978) for a child of approximately 7 through 9 years of age, performance outcomes on tasks of varying difficulty are based primarily on effort. In sport, for example, a child at this stage would tend to perceive that any one who wins a game was successful because he/she tried hard. Such a child would not yet understand that ability can limit the effectiveness of effort on normatively difficult tasks.

As around 9 and 10 years of age, children attribute performance outcomes to both ability and effort. Moreover, conceptions of competence and effort are now "partially differentiated" (Nicholls, 1978). That is, although a child at this age may understand that if some does well in a challenging basketball game without trying hard, that athlete must be very skilled, this reasoning is not used systematically.

Duda (1986) requested 530 adolescents (Mean age 17.2 years) to think of a time when each felt successful in a favorite sport activity. Subjects were asked to describe success in response to questions such as "what was ‘success’ in this instance ?" and "How did you know that you were successful ?" The same procedure was used to examine
perceptions of failure in sport. Results indicated that the students defined sport success and failure (80.5 and 94.6% respectively) primarily in terms of task, for example, "success was when I did the best I could in the game," "Failure was when I did not get any better in my shooting," and ego involvement, "success was when I won the game? "Failure was when I came in last".

Research studies have helped in the identification of different factors that account for motivational behaviour in sports training and competition. This study will be an attempt to investigate the different aspects of motivation in relation to sports participation and performance. Further the investigations will be focused on constructing a test for sports participation motivation and another test for competition motivation. In addition, the norms for two age groups for male and female populations of sports will be prepared.

**STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

This study will be focused to develop an assessment tool for motivation to participate in sports activity and also an inventory to assess the motivation for competitive performance.

It also explores the strength of various motivation sources for sports participation and competitive performance of men and women athletes of different age levels. The title of the study is:
OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following were the objectives of the study:-

1. To construct a scale of motivation for sports participation.
2. To construct a scale of motivation for competitive performance in sports.
3. To develop norms for motivation for sports participation.
4. To develop norms for motivation for sports performance.

DELIMITATIONS

The study was delimited as follows:

1. It was delimited to the State of Punjab only.
2. The study was restricted to the following sports events: Athletics, Gymnastics, Swimming, Basketball, Handball, Volleyball, Hockey, Soccer, Cricket, Badminton, Table-tennis.
3. The study was delimited to the age group of 14 to 22 years.
4. The study was also delimited to the assessment of motivation for participation and competitive performance in sports.

5. The study was further delimited to the student population at plus two and college levels.

LIMITATIONS

1. The investigator could not be able to control the other variables which were considered a limitation of the study.

2. Another limitation of the study appeared to be that no sophisticated instrument was used.

3. No special motivational technique was used during the data collection. This was also considered as the limitation of the study.

DEFINITIONS OF THE TERMS

MOTIVATION

Clifford T. Morgan (1956) defines that the general term Motivation refers to behaviour that is instigated by need within the individual and is directed toward goals that can satisfy these needs.
ATHLETE

An individual who takes part in any sports, individual or team, is an athlete for the purpose of this study.

SPORTS PARTICIPATION

It is the act of physical involvement of a person in a specific sports event leading to the involvement of his total personality.

SPORTS PERFORMANCE

It relates to the proficiency with which a skill in a specific sports event is performed. It is measurable objectively (as the distance in throws is measured in metres and centimetres and the distance covered in a race is measured against time) and subjectively (as the evaluation of gymnastic performance by the judges or rating of team players by the judges).

TEAM SPORT

Team sport is one in which two persons or more than two persons compete against the opponents with the same number and strive for common objectives for competitive success e.g. Basketball, football, Volleyball.
IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Motivation has been found as a strong force which influences human activity. Sports excellence can not be achieved in the absence of motivation. To direct and control human behaviour in competitive sports demand the strength of motivation present in each athlete.

There is no technique available in this part of the country which can be used as an instrument to measure motivation. The scales of motivation which have been constructed out of India can hardly be considered representative of the Indian Athletes and can not be used to measure their motivation. Therefore the construction of the scales and preparation of norms would help in measuring motivation of athletes belonging to different age groups and reflect what factor lead to the participation in sports and similarly what motivational variables lead to enhance competitive performance.

The knowledge about the dynamics of motivation among the athletes of different age groups helps the coaches to tackle the specific groups in a better way. This also allows the coach to use the specific motivational techniques to which the athlete responds better. Similarly the gender differences in motivation provide the specific information about the male and female athletes that may help the teachers and coaches - while working with male and female athletes.