

How are Athletes Motivated

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Sports motivation is the internal motivation that causes and maintains individuals to engage in sports and to strive to reach their goals (Ma and Zhang, 2003). (Shang Y & Shang S-Y, 2021). Motivation is one of the driving forces underlying athletes' effort expenditure and dedication to their sport. Athlete motivation can be nurtured by a wide variety of factors, including the true enjoyment and challenge of an activity but also more external rewards such as money, contingent regard from others, and media attention. (Boen & Fransen & Mertens & Vandr broek & Vansteenkiste, 2018).

Emotions can affect not only the performance of players in the whole match but also their decision-making and execution in each specific episode (Tenenbaum, Basevitch, Gershgoren, & Filho, 2013). Emotions (primarily anxiety and anger) affect athletes' performance directly, as well as through decision-making processes and extra motivation. The importance of a match is a predictor of emotions and playing against a former team creates this importance for the athlete. (Assanskiy & Shaposhnikov & Tytkin & Vasiliev, 2022). The sum of these decisions determines the athlete's performance. (Assanskiy & Shaposhnikov & Tytkin & Vasiliev, 2022). In important matches, athletes tend to make direct and rushed decisions. (Assanskiy & Shaposhnikov & Tytkin & Vasiliev, 2022). They showed that players competed harder when playing against former teams. The effect increased with the player's tenure in the former club and decreased with the time elapsed after the move. (Assanskiy & Shaposhnikov & Tytkin & Vasiliev, 2022). One of the mechanisms of extra motivation is called "chipped shoulder" (Cherry, 2019). "Chipped shoulder" occurs when players believe that they have been under-estimated. Then the players get extra motivation to prove that the assessments of their abilities have been wrong. A sign of underestimation can be a low position in the draft, a transfer, or criticism from fans and the media. (Assanskiy & Shaposhnikov & Tytkin & Vasiliev, 2022). For instance, soccer players are

more likely to score a goal after scoring an own goal before because they are motivated to correct their mistake (Hüffmeier, Stern, & Schultze, 2020). (Assanskiy & Shaposhnikov & Tylkin & Vasiliev, 2022). Another important emotion is anger. Lazarus (2000) highlighted the appearance of "constructive anger" through the desire to prove one's importance to someone else, which leads to an increase in effort. Moreover, anxiety is one of the predictors of anger (Sofia & Cruz, 2016). (Assanskiy & Shaposhnikov & Tylkin & Vasiliev, 2022). The appearance of anger in important matches is expected. In empirical articles, it was found that anger has both positive and negative effects on performance. (Assanskiy & Shaposhnikov & Tylkin & Vasiliev, 2022). Elite athletes are dominantly involved individuals in sport sections. They are the people who are in front of the public, and many of them are well known, because of their achieved results, but also because of other influential factors. (Doczi & Kovacs, 2018)

In general terms, the main goals for elite athletes are to train well, to qualify for major international meets, and to achieve outstanding results. Parallel with this process, the intentions of the media workers are to publish stories to the audience, which could be positive, negative, informative, provocative, or sensational. Misunderstanding between athletes and reporters could cause conflict in the relation (Shultz & Arke 2016). (Doczi & Kovacs, 2018). The increase in public interest in sport allows the media to scrutinize every move of the organization and the elite athletes within the organization. For athletes, this scrutiny occurs both on and off the playing arena as sport organizations approve of positive media attention of teams for economic reasons. This increased media attention has become another source of stress for the athlete in the public eye. (Halvari & Kristiansen & Roberts, 2010). The quality of the relation of elite athletes and employees of the media may have strong impact on motivations, attitudes, or even on incidents of rejection towards each other. (Doczi & Kovacs, 2018). *"In some cases, the reporter-*

athlete relationship becomes adversarial. Typically, this is determined by the athlete, who has decided that he can no longer trust the media, has been burned by too many critical comments or simply doesn't want to talk" (Shultz & Arke 2016, p.78). (Doczi & Kovacs, 2018). Success and failure are important in the world of sports; if shown in the media, one's success or failure becomes visible to everyone. This invites people who highly identify with sports to compare themselves with the presented athletes. (Martiny & Olsen & Weber, 2021). Durand-Bush and Salmela reported that World Champions and Olympic winners perceived the media as stressful before, during, and after major events. The winners admitted that they said what they perceived the reporters wanted to hear in order to terminate the interviews, and they felt exhausted because the media followed their every move. (Halvari & Kristiansen & Roberts, 2010). Because of the dominant media attention around Olympic athletes, the tabloid media has become hardly avoidable, which could cause uncertainty for elite athletes related to the kinds of topics they should appear in the media. (Doczi & Kovacs, 2018). Also, sports fans appear to be more committed to Instagram content than others, as they watch sports-related Instagram Stories for longer than users in other areas ([Conviva, 2020](#)). (Martiny & Olsen & Weber, 2021). The reason for cooperation between the sport and the media sector is that sport is one of the most interesting topics for the public; and at the same time, the biggest sport competitions, like the Olympic Games, have become global because of the media (Gál 2007). (Doczi & Kovacs, 2018). The media can affect the self-confidence of an athlete by making him/her a hero/heroine, or by making him/her insecure simply from the "slant" of the article. Consequently, the constant media attention may turn into a major stressor when athletes strive for excellence within their sport (Gould et al., 1999; Greenleaf et al., 2001). (Halvari & Kristiansen & Roberts, 2010). From the literature that investigates media stress, we discern that athletes feel the presence of the

journalists as intrusive and that media reports are not always factual (Durand-Bush & Salmela, 2002). (Halvari & Kristiansen & Roberts, 2010). Media “sensationalize, particularize, and humorize” not only the sports results (Sisjord & Kristiansen, 2008), but everything about how the athletes perceived the game, the opponents, and the referee. Even details about their private lives seem to find its way into the press (Hargreaves, 1986), as the media following often goes beyond what is strictly professional (Dosil, 2006). (Halvari & Kristiansen & Roberts, 2010)

Observers of sport competitions can reliably estimate who is leading or trailing without being aware of the current score (Furley & Schweizer, 2014). (Furley & Gibbons & Schunerch, 2016). In these contests, sending cues such as dominance (Carney, Cuddy, & Yap, 2010; Carney, Hall, & Smith LeBeau, 2005), pride (Martens, Tracy, & Shariff, 2012), and confidence (Driskell & Salas, 2005; Mazur, 2005) serves the adaptive function of navigating the social hierarchy by letting other people know who deserves high or low status (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001). (Furley & Gibbons & Schunerch, 2016). Sending submissive or shameful signals when losing an antagonistic encounter increases the chances of avoiding further potentially life-threatening attacks for primates (de Waal, 2007). Likewise, sending dominant or proud cues helps primates save valuable resources by communicating high status and their superiority over the opponent (Archer, 2006). (Furley & Gibbons & Schunerch, 2016). Hence, leading athletes, whom we perceive as dominant, proud, confident, and currently superior (Furley & Schweizer, 2016), should be of higher ecological importance than neutral or low-status displays (drawing athletes or trailing athletes, respectively). Crucially, the importance of subtle nonverbal cues displayed by leading athletes should have a distinct effect on basic cognitive processes. (Furley & Gibbons & Schunerch, 2016). Recent research has demonstrated that perceivers rated leading athletes as more dominant, prouder, and more confident than trailing athletes without being aware of the

score (Furley & Schweizer, 2016). All of these dimensions have been associated with high social status in the past (Driskell & Salas, 2005; Hall, Coats, & LeBeau, 2005; Mazur, 2005) and suggest that athletes change their nonverbal behavior along the verticality dimension when they are leading or trailing (Burgoon & Hoobler, 2002; Hall & Friedman, 1999). (Furley & Gibbons & Schunersch, 2016). Perfectionism reflects the setting of excessively high standards of performance that coincides with disproportionately critical evaluation of one's performance (Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1990). Perfectionism can be either maladaptive or somewhat adaptive depending on whether the implementation of disproportionate high standards coexists with undue self-critical evaluation concerns (Frost et al., 1990; Hamachek, 1978). Specifically, maladaptive perfectionism may imply concerns over mistakes, doubts about actions, socially prescribed criteria, and over-awareness of discrepancy between actual and expected high-level standards performance (Stoeber & Otto, 2006). (Michou & Mouratidis, 2011). Autonomous motivation refers to activities that athletes volitionally undertake because they either find them interesting and enjoyable (intrinsic motivation), or fully internalize them in their own self (integrated regulation) or internalize them to some considerable degree because they consider them personally important (identified regulation). In contrast, controlled motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2002) implies motivated behaviors for activities that athletes are coerced to undertake because of some intrapsychic (introjected regulation) or interpersonal psychologically pressuring reasons (external regulation). (Michou & Mouratidis, 2011). This pattern of relations comes as no surprise because high personal standards may equally lead to either autonomous or controlled motivation depending on whether such personal standards are perceived as a challenge or as a should-be level of performance that one has to attain in order to prove one's self-worth (DiBartolo, Frost, Chang, LaSota, & Grills, 2004). If

perceived as a challenge, personal standards are more likely to act as intrinsic motivators because challenge-seeking is considered an aspect of intrinsic motivation (Chatzisarantis & Hagger, 2007). In that case, an athlete setting personal standards is expected to regulate her motivated behavior in an autonomous way. On the other hand, if personal standards are perceived as a requisite to attain or maintain self-worth, it is reasonable to assume that personal standards will act as restraints of one's self-regulated behavior. In that case, an athlete is expected to regulate her motivated behavior in a controlled way, that is, to exhibit controlled motivation. (Michou & Mouratidis, 2011)

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