

Fall 2012

A Positive Approach: Training Coaches to Build a Positive Motivational Climate

J. Spencer John

University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/thesesdissertations>

 Part of the [Child Psychology Commons](#), [Social Psychology Commons](#), [Sports Management Commons](#), and the [Sports Studies Commons](#)

Repository Citation

John, J. Spencer, "A Positive Approach: Training Coaches to Build a Positive Motivational Climate" (2012). *UNLV Theses, Dissertations, Professional Papers, and Capstones*. 1468.

<https://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/thesesdissertations/1468>

This Professional Paper is brought to you for free and open access by Digital Scholarship@UNLV. It has been accepted for inclusion in UNLV Theses, Dissertations, Professional Papers, and Capstones by an authorized administrator of Digital Scholarship@UNLV. For more information, please contact digitalscholarship@unlv.edu.

A Positive Approach: Training Coaches to Build a Positive Motivational Climate

J. Spencer John

A professional paper submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for

Master of Science Sports Leisure Studies

Hotel Administration

William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration

Graduate College

University of Nevada, Las Vegas

December 2012

Part One

The purpose of this paper is to develop a training program for youth sport coaches focusing on a positive motivational climate, with an intended outcome to increase intrinsic motivation in youth sport participants. The coaching workshops that are available today tend to focus on teaching the fundamentals of the sport; while largely ignoring the motivational side of coaching. Pop Warner Football is the largest youth football league in the country, they have a large coach training program that focuses on drills and skill development, but fails to address positive motivation. Providing youth sport organizations with a training program that adds positive motivation to the curriculum can be a way that new coaches can develop the skills necessary to integrate a well-rounded coaching style within their team environment.

In the 1970's studies began to emerge questioning the impact of a win at all costs mentality on the psychological well-being of children who participate in youth sports (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Researchers began to shift focus away from primarily studying the physical benefits of sport participation, to a more in depth look at how the culture of sport impacts the emotional development of the children who participate (Horn, 2008). One area of study that received particular attention focused on ego and task orientations. Those with ego orientation tend to think of success in terms of exceeding the performance of others (Gillet, Vallerand, Amoura, & Baldes, 2010) while those with task orientation tend to compare their performances with personal standards (Gillet et al., 2010). Gibbons, Ebbeck, and Weiss (1995) found that when sport participation focuses on ego-orientation, it does not build positive character; and stating that certain ego-oriented environments decrease a child's moral functioning and overall satisfaction with the activity. Some coaches focus on winning, with the thought that as long as the team is winning the children will have fun. However, the literature refutes this claim and

instead says that by creating a task-oriented environment, children are more likely to enjoy the activity, and have an increased desire to continue participating in sports (Gillet et al., 2010).

Examining the impact of different motivational styles used by coaches within teams has shown how coaches might create a positive motivational climate within their teams (Blanchard, Amiot, Perreault, Vallerand, & Provencher, 2009; Gillet et al., 2010). Outcomes such as, moral development, sportsmanship, skill development, and overall enjoyment can be attributed to the motivational climate that a participant experiences within their youth sports team (Blanchard et al 2009; Gillet et al., 2010). Understanding effective ways to motivate players in a youth sport will give coaches the ability to create a motivational environment that develops positive attributes, such as honesty and integrity, in the youth sport participants (Blanchard, et al., 2009). Proper motivation can increase levels of enjoyment by youth participants in sport and physical activity in general; which in turn increases the chance that children will continue to be physically active into their adult years (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Participating in youth sports can build confidence and develop leadership skills if allowed to develop in the proper environment. Children who can develop such skills may be able to transfer what they learn in youth sports into other areas of their lives (Ewing, Seefeldt, & Brown, 1996).

Part Two

Self-determination theory was developed by Deci and Ryan and subsequently used as a framework for understanding motivation in sport and general physical activity (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Self-determination theory is more than a motivational framework, it can be viewed as an insight into the understanding of personalities, social development, and overall psychological functioning (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 2001). Self-determination theory is a macro theory that is made up of four micro theories (cognitive evaluation theory, organismic integration theory, causality orientation theory, and basic needs theory) that help form the total framework (Deci et al., 2001). Within the self-determination theory framework each of the four micro theories function with a belief that all people have a basic desire for psychological growth, self-regulation, and integration (Deci et al., 2001). The thought that people naturally want to challenge themselves to gain new skills is at the center of self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Self-determination theory points out that certain social influence can either help, or retard the natural process (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Therefore, our social environment can either help or hurt our development.

The micro theories that constitute self-determination theory all possess the idea of fundamental psychological need (Deci et al., 2001). These needs are competence, autonomy, and relatedness which are linked to personal development (Deci et al., 2001). Competence is the way a person views their ability to effectively interact within their social environment (Baumesiter & Leary, 1995). Autonomy is how a person views themselves as the originator of our own actions and not merely being acted upon (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Relatedness speaks to the idea of feeling connected with those within our social environment. The level to which these three principles are

allowed to develop help explain the social development of an individual, both at the personal and societal level (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

Cognitive Evaluation Theory

The grounding principles of self-determination theory, and its micro theories were developed to explain research results, and help predict types of reinforcement necessary for the most positive development (Ryan, 1982). Cognitive evaluation theory allows those studying an individual's intrinsic motivation to view those aspects within the individual's social environment (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Studies have shown that a person's intrinsic motivation comes from the amount of competence they feel in a particular activity. Circumstances that have both a controlling and informational component can have an impact on intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 2001). Horn (2008) refers to this as "perceived locus of causality;" while things that seem to be viewed as outside of the control of the individual are termed "external locus of causality." The informational aspect has to do with an individual's perceived competence with a particular activity. If a person feels that they are good at an activity they will be more intrinsically motivated to continue the activity (Larsen, 2000). If an individual sees themselves as having a low level of competence in a particular activity, or if their social environment produces a feeling of low competence, it will lower their intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

Organismic Integration Theory

Organismic integration theory is a micro theory of self-determination theory. Organismic integration theory attempts to separate the extrinsic motivation factors from activities and view them as more or less autonomously (Deci et al., 2001). One of the primary purposes of organismic integration theory is its contribution of multiple variations of extrinsic motivation to the overall self-determination theory framework (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Organismic integration

theory uses a continuum to describe the different levels of intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation (Mandigo, Holt, Anderson, & Sheppard, 2008).

Horn (2008) says “The importance of understanding what regulates people’s behavior is clear when considering the consequences of associated with engaging in an activity for more or less self-determined reasons” (p.133). Having a clear understanding of what motivates individuals to participate in an activity has great value; especially when the activity is not particularly enjoyable, but essential (Sapieja, Dunn, & Holt, 2011). Organismic integration theory helps explain how people look for ways to connect or internalize with tasks they may have to perform (Ryan & Deci, 2000). For example, if a person is asked by their employer to take time at home to study literature on a new product, the person may look for other reasons than simply being told to do it. One reason may be they do not want to let their boss down, or they may look at the task as a way to reach their goal of being more successful at their job. Although the person may not enjoy the task of studying product literature, by internalizing the task and finding alternative motivation the person will develop a more self-determined form of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

In summary, each of the micro theories contribute to the overall self-determination theory framework, and combined they give a comprehensive illustration of human behavior. The theory draws essential distinctions between what actually motivates people’s actions. The theory suggests that human behavior moves along a self-determination continuum. The overall framework suggests that specific events in a person’s life can affect their basic needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy, resulting in an influence on motivation.

Self Determination Theory in Sport

Studies that have been conducted that show a connection between the way instructions are given, and the ability people have to internalize the task (Petitpas, Cornelius, Van Raalte, & Jones, 2005). Horn (2008) said “Ultimately, organismic integration theory posits that the degree to which people’s needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness are supported in the social environment will facilitate or obstruct their natural tendencies toward integration, a unified sense of self and autonomous regulation of behavior” (p.134).

Where some of the other micro theories focus on internal causes of motivation; causality orientation theory is broken into three sections: autonomous, controlled, and impersonal (Knight, Neely, & Holt, 2011). Each of these three sections relate to motivation focusing on how people interpret situations (Knight et al., 2011). The category that a person may belong develops over time as they have more interactions within their social environment (Knight et al., 2011). Those who fall in the autonomous category tend to engage in more challenging activities that allow them to expand and grow; these individuals tend to be intrinsically motivated drawing their motivation from within (Smith, Ntoumanis, & Duda, 2007). A person who is in the controlled category relies more on someone telling them what needs to be done. They function better with a reward system; they tend to do things based on others expectations and not for their own personal gratification; these individuals are externally motivated (Smith et al., 2007). Those within the impersonal group are those who feel incompetent; and choose simply not to act; Horn (2008) describes these individuals as having a feeling of helplessness.

Studies focusing on causality orientation theory have reported that individuals who show autonomous characteristics have had high levels of self-esteem and other positive traits; while those who fall into the impersonal or controlled categories have a less positive outlook, with high levels of social anxiety (Vallerand & Reid, 1984). The feeling of autonomy is connected

throughout the micro theories; showing that people have a basic desire to have control over the aspects of their lives (Vallerand & Reid, 1984).

The final micro theory used in the understanding of self-determination theory framework is basic needs theory. Self-determination theory has always argued that there are basic needs that are fundamental to the psychological well-being of an individual (Wells, & Arthur-Banning, 2008). Basic needs theory adds to the overall framework of self-determination theory by detailing the role of competence, relatedness, and autonomy in an individual's well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Basic needs theory states that competence, relatedness, and autonomy are universal principles required for psychological well-being; that is not to say that every person will experience each of these principles in the same way, but rather these needs can be met in different ways depending on social context (Wells et al., 2006). The extent to which basic needs are met will determine the positive well-being for everyone (Kavussanu & Ntoumanis, 2003). Much of the research that has been conducted on basic needs theory has centered on the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and how they contribute to one's psychological well-being (Horn, 2008).

Another theory that examines the motivational climate is goal orientation theory. Goal orientation theory studies the way that individuals seek to demonstrate competence in a particular activity, as well as the way the individual measures their success (Wells et al., 2006). According to Wells there are two types of goal orientations that are most frequently used, task-oriented and ego-oriented (Wells et al., 2008). People who show a predominantly high task-orientation usually determine competence through their personal growth by acquiring the skills necessary to complete the task or activity (Wells et al., 2008). Individuals with high ego-orientation usually base their competence on their performance compared to other people;

essentially basing their competence on their level of superiority over other individuals in a particular task or activity (Wells et al., 2006).

Self-determination theory has been used in a large amount of research within a sport context. Results have shown that the extent that a person becomes either task or ego oriented in a sport is an intrapersonal factor that has a direct impact on an individual's perception of competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Shields & Bredemeier, 1995).

Using self-determination theory in the context of youth sport helps to understand an effective way to create a positive motivational climate within a program. Understanding that youth sport participants view external rewards differently can be of great value to coaches and administrators. For example, if an external reward (trophy, shirt, and candy bar) is given to a participant it could be viewed as reinforcement of the child's competence at the particular sport; whereas another child given the same external reward may view it as a way to control, or manipulate them into continuing to play the sport (Gillet et al., 2010).

Children who are more ego-oriented, who perceive their competence in a particular sport based on performing better than the other kids, or by winning games tend to have lower levels of intrinsic motivation because their participation in sports is a means to an end (Kavussanu & Ntoumanis, 2003). Ego-oriented children are more likely to feel pressure associated with their sport participation; this leads to a feeling that sports are internally controlling and consequently limiting the child's autonomy (Kavussanu & Ntoumanis, 2003). These feelings of lower autonomy reduce the intrinsic motivation experienced by the child (Horn, 2008). Conversely, those who are task-oriented perceive competence as the learning and developing a new skill tend to have higher levels of intrinsic motivation (Kavussanu M., & Ntoumanis, 2003). These levels

of higher intrinsic motivation lead to positive feelings associated with sport participation (Kavussanu & Ntoumanis, 2003).

A relationship exists between intrinsic motivation and task-orientation, as well as a relationship between extrinsic motivation and ego-orientation in youth sports (Deci et al., 2001). Sport participants in a task-oriented environment have higher levels of intrinsic motivation, leading researchers to the conclusion that a positive motivational climate has a positive impact on a player's psychological well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Another area of focus has been the fact that when a "winning at all costs method" (ego-orientation) is employed within a sports environment it undercuts a player's intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Early studies that explored the reward system within sport found that when a reward for performance was given in a controlling way it tended to decrease the intrinsic motivation in the participant (Deci et al., 2001). For example, in a study football players who had earned a scholarship were compared with their teammates who had not earned a scholarship; the study found that the players who had earned a scholarship had lower levels of intrinsic motivation; while players who had not earned a scholarship had higher levels of intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Deci and Ryan (2008) went on to compare female athletes in the same way; however, the female athletes who had earned a scholarship had higher levels of intrinsic motivation than did their non-scholarship teammates. Deci and Ryan (2008) explained these results by concluding that the football players might have seen the scholarship as a way of controlling them, consequently lowering their intrinsic motivation; while the female athletes may have viewed their scholarship as reinforcing their competence given the relatively few scholarships available (Kavussanu, Roberts, Spray, 2002). The above examples are an illustration of the implications associated with a rewards based motivational climate.

A study conducted by Vallerand and Reid (1984) focused on individual athletes intrinsic motivation. The study tested athletes' intrinsic motivational levels. Those who tested at a moderate intrinsic motivation level at the beginning of a season were tested a second time at the end of the season. The players were evaluated based on their coaches feedback style. Each coach would give positive feedback, negative feedback, or no feedback following a game or practice. The study found that players who received positive feedback from their coaches had an increased level of intrinsic motivation as well as higher perceived competence. The players who received negative feedback had lower levels of intrinsic motivation and lower perceived competence in the activity (Vallerand & Reid, 1984).

Studies have been conducted on the way a coach offers feedback at many levels of sport; these studies have come back with a commonality that positive feedback leads to higher levels of intrinsic motivation and greater perceived competence (Horn, 2008). Horn (2008) studied a wide range of coaching behaviors to see how they impacted intrinsic motivation within collegiate athletes. The results showed some minor gender differences, but the overall take away from the study was the athletes who had the highest levels of intrinsic motivation received positive feedback; while those who had the lowest levels of intrinsic motivation received negative feedback.

Studies have shown that not only does the type and quality of feedback have an impact on motivation, but coaching style will also impact motivation (Deci et al., 2001; Gillet et al., 2010). For example, if an athlete views their coach as authoritarian and not willing to include the team in decision making process the athletes level of autonomy is lowered; consequently lowering their intrinsic motivation (Gillet et al. 2010). Aristotle (1993) found that when studying athletes, their coach's decision making style was a key predictor in the players' intrinsic motivation.

While there can be many factors that have a role in determining an athlete's intrinsic motivation, one aspect that self-determination theory has helped bring to light is the extent to which an athlete perceives their coach to support their autonomy has a large impact on the athlete's intrinsic motivation (Kavussanu & Roberts, 1996). A coach who supports the autonomy of their players, provides positive encouragement, and avoids using pressure or control to try to motivate can create an environment that will encourage intrinsic motivation (Horn, 2008). Coaches who base their motivational style on controlling, winning, and on comparison to others will diminish the intrinsic motivation within their team (Kavussanu, Roberts, & Spray, 2002).

Over the last few years, several programs aimed at enhancing youth development through sport have been created. A lot of these programs have been designed with the idea that sport provides a positive environment in which kids can develop positive skills and attitudes that will carry over into adult life (Mandigo et al., 2008; Petitpas et al., 2005). While there has been some empirical support that participating in youth sport can have a positive impact on a youths' well-being; some studies have also found that participating in sport can have serious negative consequences for children and adolescents (Petitpas et al., 2005). Petitpas describes the argument for character development in sports this way "The difference between whether sports build character or character disorders has less to do with the playing of the sport and more to do with the philosophy of the sport organization, quality of coaching, nature of parental involvement, and participants' individual experiences and resources" (p.74). Parents, coaches, and league administrators must plan with the above factors in mind. It is no longer enough to assume that participating in a sport alone will build positive character traits (Petitpas et al., 2005). Programs that have a goal of using sports as a way to create positive youth development must carefully consider how that goal will be met (Mandigo et al., 2008).

A report by the Carnegie Council showed that students who came from more affluent homes with greater parental support were more likely to participate in after school youth sport programs (Petitpas et al., 2005). The difficulty of basing youth development on their sport participation comes from the uncertainty that it could simply be that kids who have parental support and more economic advantages will simply develop positive character traits regardless of their sport participation (Mandigo et al., 2008). In some cases when researchers have accounted for parental support and socio-economic factors, that the relationship between sport and positive character development goes away completely (Larson, 2000). The research that has been done on youth development through participation in sport has a large amount of empirical support for the type of environment that best promotes positive youth development (Petitpas et al., 2005). Parents and coaches who place great importance on winning at all costs, and success based on social comparisons create an environment that is ego-oriented (Mandigo et al., 2008). Parents and coaches that focus on skill development can create a task-oriented environment which Petitpas describes as follows “the notion that youth sport participants in task-oriented or mastery climates are most likely to display strong work ethics, persist in the face of failures or disappointments, and commit the time and effort necessary to foster intrinsic motivation and the development of positive life skills.”

A large proportion of youth sport programs are designed with the idea of introducing children to a specific sport or activity that allows the children to get some exercise and experience what it feels like to be a part of a team (Gillet et al., 2010). While it is good that these programs exist, it is estimated that 90% of coaches in youth sport leagues have no formal training in physical education or youth development (Ewing et al., 1996). With coaches and

administrators who lack training, it adds difficulty to the process of children developing the positive skills and attributes through youth sport participation (Gillet et al., 2010).

There is an emerging field within the youth sports industry; leagues that turn their focus from sport related skill development, to the process of using a sports participation as a means of preventing negative behavior (Gillet et al., 2010). These programs try to use sport as a way to get kids addicted to sport rather than to drugs or gangs. Other programs try to give kids who have already started down the wrong path another outlet to explore. While these programs try to accomplish some of the same things as other sport leagues (develop positive life skills) the most important goal for these programs is to provide a safe place for youth in their individual communities to participate in a positive activity (Petitpas et al., 2005).

Another type of youth sport program that breaks away from the traditional league are programs that have a goal of using sport to help kids see the connections that can occur between the skills and attitudes that are obtained in sport and those used in academic or career opportunities (Petitpas et al., 2005). While there may not be a large number of these types of programs operating today, they promote an environment that encourages both sport skill development as well as academic achievement (Petitpas et al., 2005). These programs allow children the opportunity to acquire sport skills, while at the same time teaching important life skills that give the kids a chance to apply the skills they have learned in a non-sports setting (Gillet et al., 2010).

Implications

There are several important implications for coaches and parents of youth sport participants. Motivational climates within teams can have a profound impact on the sportsmanship and moral reasoning of the participants. Proper motivational climates can lead to

higher levels of task orientation and lower levels of ego-orientation. Parents and coaches who hope to have similar environments have options for helping the children focus on individual improvement and avoiding situations where they are compared to others. This is an important factor for both recreation leagues as well as leagues that focus on a higher level of competition. Elite athletes can benefit just as much from a positive motivational climate as the child who is just playing in a recreational league.

Creating a motivational climate that helps the participants develop or maintain a task-orientation should be an important part of any youth sport program. By encouraging participants to judge their success by looking at their own performance and not by comparing their performance to others will foster a positive motivational environment.

A method for creating a positive motivational climate is skill mastery workshops. These types of clinics encourage coaches from different teams and even different leagues to come together to work on individual skills and techniques that can help the participants create a positive motivational climate within their teams. The focus of these types of workshops is on individual skill development; therefore, it works hand in hand with the creation of a task-oriented motivational environment. These types of clinics are generally cost effective ways for leagues to train their coaches in the fundamental skills necessary to create positive motivational climates within their teams.

Training coaches to encourage a task-oriented motivational climate; and look for ways to eliminate ego-oriented behavior from their programs should be a priority for youth leagues. By shifting the focus away from winning and toward skill development will help youth sport participants develop positive characteristics common with a task-oriented environment; helping to transfer the skills and attributes developed from participating in youth sport into life skills.

By utilizing a coaching skills workshop, youth leagues can ensure that their coaches are prepared to create a positive motivational climate for their teams.

Part Three

The goal of this three day workshop is to train youth basketball coaches on a way to create a positive motivational environment within their teams. After completing this workshop a youth basketball coach should have a better understanding of the importance of positive motivation. The coaches will receive instruction that helps create a practice program that they can customize to the individual needs of their players. This workshop requires the facilitator to model all teaching methods that the coaches will be expected to perform with their players, not only in terms of the sport skills, but also in terms of the task oriented motivational climate that is created by the instructional methods. This program is to be presented to organizations such as YMCA and other youth recreation leagues. The idea is to give these organizations a resource that can be used to train volunteer coaches. This three day workshop allows, coaches to participate in exploring motivational models to better understand ways to create a positive motivational climate within their respective teams.

This workshop requires the facilitator to demonstrate the teaching models, followed by coaches participation by practice-teaching the lessons while their peers and facilitator observe and evaluate the content of the lessons, the instructional effectiveness of the teaching, and the extent to which they promote a task oriented motivational climate.

While employing these methods the coach remains the leader, yet, they recognize the contributions of the members of the group (team). The curriculum utilizes knowledge from social psychology and motivational models in the presentation of how to lead team meetings and foster positive coach-player relationships that encourage a task oriented team environment.

The workshop provides drills, exercises, and practice experiences that allow for individualized development. The coaches each have the opportunity to practice drills before teaching them to players. Coaches participate in equal amounts of classroom and gym time.

During the workshop, coaches enjoy a fast paced, participatory way of teaching and learning; the idea behind this style is after the coaches' experience this type of learning they will be more likely to recreate it with their own players.

Workshop Day 1

I. Section 1(classroom)

Distribute materials:

Name tags

Notebooks

Pens

A. Explain the goals for the 3 day workshop. Describe structure (classroom and gym sections) and content.

1. Autograph game (See Appendix A)

II. Section 2 (classroom)

A. Coaching Objectives

The group works together to determine the learning objectives of the workshop through discussion of their specific goals. Key questions are:

1. What are your goals as a coach?

2. What concerns you the most about coaching?

3. Which skills do you feel are most important for you to teach your players?

All the goals for the workshop were written on the whiteboard and divided into categories that the group will then rank the goals by importance. The facilitator demonstrates Probing Questions during the discussion. This information is used by the facilitator to show the coaches how to use this core process as a way to allow participants to be co-creators in workshop design. The process can then be used by the coaches with their teams in the structure of practice sessions.

B. Active Listening. The Facilitator demonstrates Active Listening skills during Coaching Objectives discussion and then identifies the skills of Active Listening, e.g., restating, and paraphrasing.

III. Section 3 (gym)

A. Demonstration and Practice

The facilitator demonstrates individual and team drills, putting an emphasis on specific movements and positioning. After the coaches participate in each drill, they discuss the experience as a group with the facilitator leading the discussion.

Key discussion questions:

How did it feel to be doing these drills and movements?

How do these drills relate to player development?

Why is this important?

B. Model Pedagogy

The facilitator provides examples of Active Listening and Probing Questions to encourage a positive motivational climate; the goal of this exercise is to help the coaches transfer authority to players when appropriate. The group participates in a review of the gym section; while the facilitator provides feedback.

III. Section 4 (classroom)

A. End of day 1 reflection and critique

Did the coaches achieve their goals?

How did the coaches utilize Active Listening techniques?

What would the coaches like to work on next time?

B. Coaching Journal

Coaches take ten minutes writing responses to

(1) What did I take away from today's activities?

(2) What aspect of today's workshop will I like to learn more about?

The facilitator collects journals.

C. Complete Workshop Evaluation (Appendix B).

Workshop Day 2

I. Session 1 (classroom)

A. Facilitator leads discussion on the value equal playing time. Coaches are encouraged to share their views on what they see as the pros and cons of equal playing time.

B. Practice Planning

Facilitator explains the benefits of planning the entire season and introduces reverse planning. The advantage of reverse season planning allows coaches to envision what they want to accomplish for the upcoming season. The coaches identified what their goals are for their team by the end of the season and then worked to design a practice plan to help them reach their stated goals.

II. Section 2 (classroom)

In order to create a positive motivational climate the group works together to identify behaviors that help create a positive motivational climate within their teams. The group also identifies negative behaviors that should be avoided.

Coaches are instructed to take the written list of behaviors into the gym to use during observations of instructor and their peers.

III. Section 3 (gym)

A. Demonstration and Practice

The facilitator demonstrates individual and team drills, putting an emphasis on specific movements and positioning. After the coaches participate in each drill, they discuss the experience as a group with the facilitator leading the discussion.

Key discussion questions:

How did it feel to be doing these drills and movements?

How do these drills relate to player development?

Why is this important?

How do activities relate to how you think the game should be played?

B. Model Pedagogy

The facilitator provides examples of Active Listening and Probing Questions to encourage a positive motivational climate; the goal of this exercise is to help the coaches transfer authority to players when appropriate. The group participates in a review of the gym section; while the facilitator provides feedback.

C. Coaching Practicum

Each coach will take a turn teaching a specific part of the practice to a group of youth players. The coaches will each take approximately five minutes. The facilitator and the other

coaches in the workshop evaluate the coaching based on the objectives defined by each coach in their practice plan. After all the coaches have had a turn teaching, the coach group discusses the positive and negative aspects of their instruction.

IV. Section 4 (classroom)

A. End of day 2 reflection and critique

Did the coaches achieve their goals?

Did the coaches use probing questions effectively?

Did the coach's behavior promote a positive motivational climate?

How did the coaches utilize Active Listening techniques?

What would the coaches like to work on next time?

B. Coaching Journal

Coaches take ten minutes writing responses to

(1) What did I take away from today's activities?

(2) What aspect of today's workshop will I like to learn more about?

The facilitator collects journals.

Workshop Day 3

I. Section 1 (classroom)

A. The facilitator leads a discussion about appropriate authority, and the levels of authority that are desirable for coaching youth sports. Coaches reflect on what they learned over the course of the workshop about the relationship between task-orientation and motivation.

II. Section 3 (gym)

A. Demonstration and Practice

The facilitator demonstrates individual and team drills, putting an emphasis on specific movements and positioning. After the coaches participate in each drill, they discuss the experience as a group with the facilitator leading the discussion.

Key discussion questions:

How did it feel to be doing these drills and movements?

How do these drills relate to player development?

Why is this important?

How do activities relate to how you think the game should be played?

B. Model Pedagogy

The facilitator provides examples of Active Listening and Probing Questions to encourage a positive motivational climate; the goal of this exercise is to help the coaches transfer authority to players when appropriate. The group participates in a review of the gym section; while the facilitator provides feedback.

III. Section 4 (classroom)

A. End of day 3 reflection and critique

Did the coaches achieve their goals?

Did the coaches use probing questions effectively?

Did the coach's behavior promote a positive motivational climate?

How did the coaches utilize Active Listening techniques?

What would the coaches like to work on next time?

D. Coaching Journal

Coaches take ten minutes writing responses to

(1) What did I take away from today's activities?

(2) What aspect of today's workshop will I like to learn more about?

The facilitator collects journals.

Workshop Conclusion

This workshop has been designed as a resource for youth recreation sport leagues. Implementing this workshop gives organizations such as YMCA the ability to properly train volunteer coaches; the skills taught within the workshop are necessary to create a positive motivational climate within their teams. The combination of sport specific skills as well as motivational training makes this workshop a one stop resource for new coach training.

Appendix A - The Autograph Game

This is a common get to know you activity that engages the group in a fun, non-threatening way. It is important for individuals to feel comfortable speaking with others in the group and this game is a great way to break the ice.

Supplies: A pen and an Autograph Game Worksheet

Directions: The facilitator distributes the Worksheet and explains the categories to the group.

- Someone who has coached youth sports before
- Someone who went to school farthest from Las Vegas
- Someone who has owned a truck
- Someone who has been skiing
- Someone who can speak a language other than English

- Someone who has attended a Professional Basketball game
- Someone who has coached a special needs child

The facilitator says: "Please take the next 15 minutes, to circulate around the room and get as many autographs as you can from people who fit the categories. When you are finished please sit down so that I know you are done. Remember this is a fun activity so take this opportunity to get to know the others in our group. There will also be a prize for the most unique interpretation of a category. Everybody stand up. Go."

When the 15 minutes are up ask everyone to take their seats and report what they found.

Appendix B - Workshop Evaluation Forms

1. What aspects of the coaching workshop were most helpful to you? Why?
2. What aspects of the coaching workshop were least helpful to you? Why?
3. Did you feel there was an appropriate amount of time spent on each activity?
4. Did you feel the workshop was facilitated adequately?
5. Overall, explain how you felt about your experience at the coaching workshop, be sure to include any suggestions for future workshops.

References

- Aristotle, N. (1993). A comparison of theories for the prediction of goal directed behaviors. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 34*, 437 – 461.
- Baumeister, R., & Leary, M., (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as fundamental human motive. *Psychological Bulletin, 117*, 497-529.
- Blanchard, C. M., Amiot, C. E., Perreault, S. Vallerand, R. J., & Provencher, P. (2009). Cohesiveness, coach's interpersonal style and psychological needs: Their effects on self-determination and athletes' subjective well-being. *Psychology of Sport & Exercise, 10*, 545-551.
- Deci, E.L., & Ryan, R. (1985). Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior. New York, NY: Plenum press.

- Deci, E.L., Koestner, R., & Ryan, R.M., (2001). External rewards and intrinsic motivation in education: Reconsidered once again. *Review of educational research, 71*, 1-27.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008). Facilitating optimal motivation and psychological well-being across life's domains. *Canadian Psychology, 49*, 14-23.
- Ewing, M.E., Seefeldt, V.D., & Brown, T.P. (1996). Role of organized sport in the education and health of American children and youth. New York, NY: Carnegie Corporation.
- Gibbons, S.L., Ebbeck, V., & Weiss, M.R. (1995). Fair play for kids: Effects on the moral functioning of children in physical education. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 66*, 247-255.
- Gillet, N., Vallerand, R.J., Amoura, S., & Baldes, B. (2010). Influence of coaches' autonomy support on athlete motivation and sport performance: A test of the hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 11*, 155-161.
- Holt, N. L., Tamminen, K. A., Black, D. E., Mandigo, J. L., & Fox, K. R. (2009). Youth sport parenting styles and practices. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 31*, 37-59.
- Horn, T. (2008). *Advances in sport psychology*. Human Kinetics: Champaign, Illinois. 129-137
- Kavussanu, M., & Ntoumanis, N. (2003). Participation in sport and moral functioning: Does ego orientation mediate their relationship? *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 25*, 1-18.
- Kavussanu, M., & Roberts, G.C. (1996). Motivation in physical activity contexts: The relationship of perceived motivational climate to intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 18*, 264-280.

- Kavussanu, M., Roberts, & Spray, C. (2006). Contextual influences on moral functioning of male youth footballers. *The Sport Psychologist, 20*, 1-23.
- Kavussanu, M., Roberts, Spray, C. (2002). Contextual influences on moral functioning of college basketball players. *The Sport Psychologist, 16*, 347-367.
- Knight, C. J., Neely, K. C., & Holt, N. L. (2011). Parental behavior in team sports: How do female athletes want parents to behave? *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 23*, 76-92.
doi:10.1080/10413200.2010.525589
- Larson, R. (2000). Toward a psychology of positive youth development. *American Psychologist, 55*, 170- 183
- Mandigo, J. L., Holt, N. L., Anderson, A., & Sheppard, J. (2008). Children's motivational experiences following autonomy-supportive games lessons. *European Physical Education Review, 14*, 415-434.
- Petitpas, A.J., Cornelius, A.E., Van Raalte, J.L., & Jones, T. (2005). A framework for planning youth sport programs that foster psychosocial development. *The Sport Psychologist, 19*, 63–80
- Ryan, R.M., (1982). Control and information in the interpersonal sphere: An extension of cognitive evaluation theory. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 45*, 736-750.
- Ryan, R.M., & Deci, E.L.(2000). Self determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well being. *American Psychologist, 55*,68-78.
- Sapieja, K., Dunn, J. G. H., & Holt, N. L. (2011). Relationships between perfectionism and parenting styles in male youth soccer. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 33*(1), 20-39.

- Shields, D.L., & Bredemeier, B.J.L. (1995). *Character development and physical activity*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Smith, A.L., Ntoumanis, N., & Duda, J.L. (2007). Goal striving, goal attainment, and well-being: An adaptation of the Self-Concordance Model in sport. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 29*, 763-782.
- Vallerand, R.J., & Reid, G.(1984). On the casual effects of perceived competence on intrinsic motivation: A test of cognitive evaluation theory. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 6*, 94-102
- Wells, M.S., Ellis, G.D., Arthur-Banning, S.G., & Roark, M.(2006). Effect of staged practices and motivational climate on goal orientation and sportsmanship in community youth sport experiences. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 24*, 64-85
- Wells, M. S., & Arthur-Banning, S. G. (2008). The logic of youth development: Constructing a logic model of youth development through sport. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 26*(2), 189-201.