

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRAINERS' COACHING STYLES AND YOUNG FOOTBALL PLAYERS' MOTIVATION

Original scientific paper

Ina Reić Ercegovac¹, Tonča Jukić² and Ana Kegalj³

¹ *Department of Psychology, University of Split, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Split, Croatia*

^{2,3} *Department of Pedagogy, University of Split, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Split, Croatia*

Abstract

Starting from the behaviourist and constructivist principles of teaching and coaching and motivation of young athletes in the context of self-determination theory, this paper discusses the relationship between different types of the motivation of young football players and the preferred coaching styles of their trainers. A study was conducted on a sample of $N = 132$ young football players, aged 12 to 18, and $N = 12$ coaches in one large Croatian football club. General data questionnaires were applied in sub-samples of players and coaches for gathering data on age, length of coaching, length of work experience of coaches, type of coaching education completed, and daily and weekly time commitment in coaching. The trainers also filled out a Coaching Style Assessment Questionnaire designed for this research, while players completed an adapted version of The Behavioural Regulation in Sport Questionnaire for assessing motivation for training and playing football in the context of self-determination theory. The results showed a high level of intrinsic motivation in young players but also pointed to the important role of coaching styles for players' motivation, especially the intrinsic ones. Specifically, the results confirmed the significant contribution of encouraging autonomy and commitment during training in explaining individual differences in young players' intrinsic motivation. For the level of extrinsic motivation, the selected predictors were not significant. The results were interpreted in the context of the previously mentioned theoretical frameworks and limitations of the research were highlighted. Implications of the results were discussed with the emphasis on the importance of educating all stakeholders involved in the training process of young football players.

Keywords: *coaching styles, football, motivation, self-determination*

INTRODUCTION

Playing sports affects the development of positive traits in young athletes such as organizational skills, coping with stressful situations, adherence to rules, creativity in problem-solving, high levels of work habits, and others (Weathington, Alexander & Rodebaugh, 2010). Sport is linked to different educational goals, so the creators of the training process are required to implement different pedagogical knowledge to shape the content and different motor and tactical exercises to facilitate the development of young athletes. Coaches, with their knowledge and pedagogical skills, shape the learning process while raising a young person by introducing different educational goals into the coaching process (Armour, 2013). Besides, using different teaching approaches and ways of shaping the training process, coaches have a great influence on the development and maintenance of motivation in young athletes (Light & Harvey, 2017; Marcone, 2017).

Motivation in sport is one of the key factors for achieving high results, and it can also influence the satisfaction that athletes, especially young ones, experience by training and improving their sports skills. It is the young football players' motivation that is the focus of this work. Motivation in sport can be studied in the context of different theoretical perspectives, and for this research, motivation has been operationalized in the context of self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

To explore the impact of different coaching styles on the motivation of young football players, coaching styles were analysed from a behaviourist and constructivist perspective. The behaviourist perspective emphasizes the system of substantiation, that is, the consequences that certain behaviour has for the individual (Tomic, 1993; Vizek-Vidović, Vlahović Štetić, Rijavec & Miljković, 2014), with punishment and rewarding behaviour being the most common tools that regulate athlete's motivation. Therefore, the emphasis is on the external regulation of behaviour and extrinsic motivation that

is sought to be maintained high based on reward and punishment (Smith, 2006). On the other hand, the constructivist perspective emphasizes internal processes, and motivation is regulated by encouraging the individual to explore and think, whereby the individual feels satisfied with participating in the process of knowledge creation (Ertmer & Newby, 1993). Also, an interactive learning process is realized (Light & Wallian, 2008). Curiosity is the main motivator in constructivism, and it is encouraged in a way that answers and solutions are not offered, but the individual must find them. While in behaviourist theory feedback plays a significant role in motivation, in constructivist perspective importance is attached to the meaning and interpretation of feedback, that is, to the information a student (athlete) receives and to the student's analysis and evaluation of own work and feedback that he receives (Ertmer & Newby, 1993; Pšunder & Ribić Hederih, 2010).

Finally, motivation in the context of self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Gagné & Deci, 2005) is defined through a continuum of self-determination where any motivation or demotivation is absent at one end and at the other there is intrinsic or autonomous motivation as the highest level of motivation that an individual may have (Vallerand, 2000). An autonomously motivated individual participates in activities, performs tasks voluntarily and in his interest, and takes responsibility for his actions and development. Autonomous motivation has a very positive effect on the psychological well-being of an individual and improves his / her performance when performing certain tasks. The transition between demotivation and autonomous motivation is controlled motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000) manifested in several forms that differ in the level of control and the level of involvement of an individual in an activity or task and in the way that the individual is connected to the end goal and how much he/she considers it as a part of their personalities. The transition from controlled motivation to autonomous motivation occurs gradually through introjected, identified, and integrated motiva-

tion, that is, when an individual becomes aware of the positive consequences of their actions and their well-being for their development and begins to accept external goals and tasks as part of themselves and their identity (Vallerand, 2000).

The environment and the teacher or, in the context of this paper, the trainer, play a major role in reaching an autonomously motivated individual. Moreover, one of the more important influences for the development of motivation is certainly the relationship between coaches and athletes (Marcone, 2017). Coach's behaviours, and even those indirect ones, greatly influence a young athlete's motivation, effort, performance, and behaviour (Weathington et al. 2010). It is usually said that a coach who can encourage change in others' behaviour is a good motivator, and a good motivator is certainly a good model for his players, which is crucial for achieving sports success (Balent, Kobilšek & Šašek, 2017).

In sports, qualitatively different types of motivation are often intertwined to achieve the optimum level of motivation and top results. Intrinsic motivation is more present during the preparation and most of the athlete's activity, while extrinsic motivation becomes more expressed during the competition and before the competition itself (Protić & Maršić, 2014). Regardless of the dominant motivation at some point, the optimal motivation for long-term advancement and development of athletes is motivation oriented to the development of sports skills. Such a motivated athlete always strives for development and therefore his level of motivation remains the same no matter what kind of competition he is in and what results he is currently achieving. Such motivation is related to the continued pursuit of outcomes that are better than they were before, and the athlete's focus is on controllable factors, such as behaviour (training, exercise) rather than on an outcome that is often not under the control of the individual (Balent et al., 2017).

A good relationship between coaches and young athletes can also influence motivation (Marcone, 2017; Lisinskienė & Šukys, 2014). For example, if it is a relationship of trust, a young athlete will find it easier to accept the coaches' suggestions and perform tasks for which he or she may not be autonomously motivated at some point, but because of the confidence, he/she has in the coach, perform tasks. According to the continuum of self-determination, that can ultimately have a beneficial effect also on the intrinsic motivation of the young athlete. A coach who develops confidence and a positive atmosphere concerning young athletes usually manages to evoke positive emotions and a higher level of motivation in athletes. If it most often uses patterns of motivation based on punishment or other forms of negative feedback, it is more likely that young athletes will not develop intrinsic motivation. That may affect the overall coaching process and achievement of results that do not match the capabilities of young athletes. Moreover, in addition to the negative effect on the sport, such athletes may also develop a fear of performance (Weathington et al. 2010).

This research aimed to examine the relationship between different trainers' coaching styles and the types of young football players' motivation. The research began with the assumption that coaches use behaviours based on both behaviourist and constructivist principles, and that such a coaching approach can be associated with the expression of particular types of motivation in the context of the self-determination continuum. Specifically, we hypothesized that athletes whose coaches use behaviours that encourage autonomy, reflection, creativity, and problem-solving will be more intrinsically motivated, whereas athletes whose coaches are more focused on the reward and punishment system will be more extrinsically and less intrinsically motivated.

METHODOLOGY

The sample consisted of 132 football players and 12 coaches. The average age of the players was $M = 14.37$ years with $SD = 1.91$ years and range from 12 to 18 years. On average, players train football for $M = 8.11$ years with $SD = 2.09$ and range from 1 to 14 years. They train on average $M = 11.69$ hours a week, with $SD = 2.84$ hours, and range from 2 to 25 hours. Most players (81%) live with their parents, 11.36% of them live alone, and 7.58% with other players.

In the sample of trainers, the average age was $M = 33.25$ years with $SD = 7.00$, and the range from 24 to 49 years. In terms of the level of education, one coach has completed three years of secondary education, three have finished four years of secondary education, two are bachelor's, five have completed graduate or undergraduate studies, and one is still a student. When it comes to the type of education, five coaches have completed either undergraduate or graduate studies in kinesiology, one is a senior football coach, and half of the coaches have some other type of education. Three coaches stated that they had acquired competencies for the job of football coach only through formal education, five stated only non-formal education, and four stated that they had acquired formal and non-formal education. On average, they coach $M = 27.90$ hours a week with $SD = 17.70$ and a range of 10 to 60 hours, while in direct work with children they spend $M = 26.90$ hours a week with $SD = 17.57$ hours and a range of 10 to 60 hours.

Two instruments were used in this research, one for players and one for coaches. The instrument for the players consisted of five general questions (age, years of training football, weekly training hours, place of living, daily training) and translated and adapted versions of the Behavioural Regulation in Sport Questionnaire (Lonsdale, Hodge & Rose, 2008). The questionnaire examines player motivation in the context of self-determination theory (Ryan and Deci, 2000). The original questionnaire consists of 24 items, and in this version, three items have been added to capture the aspect of winning as a potential source of motivation for players. The task of the participants is to estimate how much each item relates to them by rounding one of the numbers on the scale (1 - not at all true for me to 7 - completely true for me). The results are formed for different types of motivation: intrinsic motivation, integrated motivation, identified motivation, introjected motivation, external regulation, and demotivation. The descriptive features of the subscale are presented in Table 1.

The second part of the instrument was a questionnaire designed for this research, Coaching Style Assessment Questionnaire, which consisted of 26 items examining some aspects of working with children and young players in the context of coaching, covering the field of player motivation. The task of the participants was to evaluate how much each item related to them on a rating scale of 1 to 5 where 1 meant no reference at all and 5 related to me. Given the small number of coaches who participated in the survey, it was not possible to perform exploratory factor analysis on the entire questionnaire, and based on the presumed five-factor structure (reward, punishment, autonomy, commitment, and progress), factor analyses were performed using the principal component method at a predetermined one factor.

The first analysis included five items that were supposed to capture rewarding as a source of motivation for the players (for example In the coaching process I use different forms of rewards for the children I train). The factor extracted accounted for 52.59% of the variance in total and had satisfactory reliability (Cronbach $\alpha = .76$) with $M = 14.33$ and $SD = 4.77$ and a range of scores from 5 to 20.

The second analysis included items that were assumed to measure punishment as a potential source of players' motivation (for

Table 1. Descriptive features of Behavioural Regulation in Sport Questionnaire

motivation	number of items	M	Sd	Cronbach α	Range	K-S d
intrinsic	4	26.86	2.28	.59	17-28	.40*
integrated	4	24.81	3.83	.57	14-28	.20*
identified	4	20.89	5.38	.56	7-28	.15*
introjected	4	11.10	6.44	.73	4-28	.17*
external	4	6.88	4.82	.78	4-28	.29*
demotivation	4	7.45	5.17	.80	4-28	.25*
winning**	3	12.81	5.09	.71	3-21	.09*

* $p < .05$; ** subscale winning is not part of the Behavioural Regulation in Sport Questionnaire, it has been added for the purposes of this research

example, I use penalties if I notice that a child is not trying hard enough), and it turns out that all five items have satisfactory saturation on one factor, which explained 57.51% of the variance in the total. Reliability was Cronbach $\alpha = .74$ with $M = 7.33$ and $SD = 2.96$ and the range from 5 to 13.

The third factor was assumed to examine the encouragement of players' autonomy (for example, I allow children the freedom to choose the type of training or exercise) and a five-item analysis was conducted showing that all five statements had significant saturation on a single factor explaining 57.55% of the variance. Reliability was Cronbach $\alpha = .71$, $M = 20.42$ with $SD = 2.35$, and the range from 16 to 24.

The fourth factor measured the focus on commitment and progress with nine items (for example, While I'm working with children, I need to recognize the importance of effort and commitment in developing sports skills). All of the items had significant saturation on a predefined one factor explaining 48.52% of the variance. Reliability was Cronbach $\alpha = .82$, $M = 38.00$ with $SD = 4.88$ and a range of scores from 29 to 45.

The data collection process was conducted in one football club in Split, with the approval of the club manager. Given that the players were mostly minors, parents have signed informed consent for them to participate in the study. Survey for players was conducted in October and November in 2018, in groups, and the survey for coaches was conducted at one of their joint meetings. Filling out questionnaires took 20 minutes on average.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To examine whether there is a correlation between age, level of education, length of coaching experience, age of children they coach, weekly coaching, and direct work with children and dependent variables (rewarding, punishing, encouraging autonomy, progress, and commitment), a correlation analysis was performed. It was found that younger coaches use rewards more than older ones and that those coaches who spend more time weekly coaching children and young players are less focused on commitment and progress (Table 2.). This result can be explained by the fact that older coaches belong to a traditional coaching school that influenced their development, in which punishment was used as the only way to correct students' behavior while rewards were less frequently used (Claudiu, 2014). Younger coaches are influenced by changes in the educational system and can be expected to reward their players more often (Govender & Sookrajh, 2014).

Table 3 shows the results of a correlation analysis that examined the correlation between players' age, length of training football, amount of weekly training, and various aspects of motivation. The only significant correlation was found between players' age and winning as a source of motivation whereby older players were more motivated to win.

Older players are already entering professional competitive football, where winning brings many benefits (money, a better contract,

the ability to move to a better club, a better score, and the like), and the winning begins to be connected with other life circumstances (Cumming, Smoll, Smith & Grossbard, 2007). For younger players, winning is usually an additional stimulus to the current desire to play football and is not as important as having fun, participating, and belonging to a group of peers (Stern, Bradley, Prince & Stroh, 1990).

Figure 1. shows the participants' average scores for each type of motivation. Comparison of the results showed that there were significant differences in the expression of individual types of motivation ($F = 474.4$, $df = 6,786$, $p = .000$), and subsequent analysis (Table 4) concluded that the expression of all types of motivation differed from one another except for integrated and identified motivations and external regulation and demotivation. The players have the highest level of intrinsic motivation, then integrated and identified, which are indistinguishable from each other, then the winning and introjected motivation. Degrees of external regulation and demotivation that are indistinguishable from one another is the least expressed. The reason for this probably lies in singling out winning as a separate category in the questionnaire because winning belongs to a set of external motives (Piko, Keresztes & Pluhar, 2005; according to Bollók, Takács, Kalmár & Dobay, 2011).

To achieve the main objective of this research, the relationship between the coaching style and the football players' expression of certain types of motivation was examined, according to the continuum of self-determination. It should be noted that each player has several coaches, so the data related to the first coach (who is also the most important because he spends the most time with young players in the training process) and the second coach were taken into the analysis. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. shows that there is a significant correlation between the use of rewarding and punishing by first coaches and the introjected motivation of players. Introjected motivation refers to personal involvement in completing a task, that is, accepting external goals and tasks as part of one's own identity (Vallerand, 2000), and is a partially controlled type of motivation. Among other variables, no significant correlations were found. This result is not surprising if the fact that coaches have a great influence on the development and maintenance of young players' motivation (Light & Harvey, 2017; Marcone, 2017; Weathington et al., 2010) is considered. Rewarding contributes to creating positive emotions and a higher level of motivation, while punishment leads to a lower level of motivation and possibly negative emotions towards sport (Weathington et al., 2010; Pšunder & Ribič Hederih, 2010).

To check whether trainers' behaviours are predictive of intrinsic motivation as the highest form of autonomous motivation, and external motivation as a form of fully extrinsic motivation, four regression analyses (for the first and the second trainers) were conducted and the results are presented in tables 6. and 7.

When it comes to external motivation (Table 7.), the results showed that the training style of the first or second coach does not contribute to the explanation of external motivation, so it is to be

Table 2. Relationship between age, length of coaching experience, level of coaches' education and variables that stimulate motivation in players

variables	rewards	punishment	autonomy	commitment
age	-.60*	-.34	.32	-.37
coaching experience	.16	.29	-.34	-.09
level of education	.13	.24	-.38	-.31
age of children they coach	.11	.11	-.38	-.27
weekly coaching (hours)	-.26	-.22	.04	-.59*
weekly direct work with children (hours)	.02	.06	-.21	.31

*p<.05

Table 3. The correlation between players' age, length of training football, amount of weekly training and various aspects of motivation

motivation	age	years of training	hours of weekly training
intrinsic	-.12	-.03	-.11
integrated	.13	.08	.01
identified	.06	.07	-.15
introjected	.05	-.06	.06
external	-.02	-.04	.02
demotivation	.07	.04	.08
winning	.20*	.10	.10

*p<.05

Table 4. Results of the Post Hoc analysis to compare expressions of different types of motivation

motivation	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. intrinsic						
2. integrated	.036					
3. identified	.001	.981				
4. introjected	.000	.000	.000			
5. external	.000	.000	.000	.000		
6. demotivation	.000	.000	.000	.000	.983	
7. winning	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

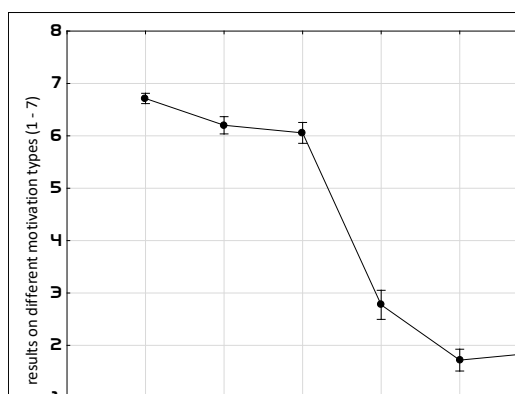


Figure 1. Expression of different types of players' motivation

Table 5. Relationship between football players' motivation and the first and the second coach's behaviour

		intrinsic	integrated	identified	introjected	external	demotivation	winning
first coach	rewards	-.008	-.006	.035	.209*	.016	.022	.086
	punishment	.035	-.029	.035	.211*	.057	.023	.055
	autonomy	.001	-.052	-.048	-.154	.034	-.012	-.078
	commitment	.161	-.059	-.018	.015	.069	-.068	-.098
second coach	rewards	.103	.068	-.067	-.162	-.099	-.106	-.046
	punishment	.086	.102	.066	.018	-.103	-.101	-.060
	autonomy	.106	-.055	-.000	-.083	.059	-.036	-.130
	commitment	-.011	.033	-.025	-.166	-.035	.002	-.032

*p<.05

Table 6. Results of regression analysis with players' intrinsic motivation as a criterion and coaches' behaviours as predictors

	first coach	second coach
rewards	.19	.19
punishment	-.71*	.14
autonomy	.57*	.26*
commitment	.64*	-.20
R	.26	.25
R2	.07	.06
F (df)	2.46* (4,127)	2.02 (4,124)

*p<.05

Table 7. Results of regression analysis with players' extrinsic motivation as a criterion and coaches' behaviours as predictors

	first coach	second coach
rewards	-.19	-.07
punishment	.46	-.07
autonomy	.25	.02
commitment	-.19	-.01
R	.14	.13
R2	.02	.02
F (df)	.59 (4,127)	.49 (4,124)

*p<.05

assumed that some other factors, not examined in this research, play a more important role in the external motivation of young players.

When examining the contribution of the first trainer's coaching styles to explaining player motivation, it was found that first trainer's coaching style could explain individual differences in players' intrinsic motivation. In doing so, less punishment and more behaviours aimed at advocating and fostering autonomy in players, thus leading to a higher level of intrinsic motivation, which is consistent with other research (Weathington et al., 2010). On the other hand, the regression equation for the behaviour of the second trainer did not prove significant, which is probably due to the greater amount of time players spend with the first coach and the impact that the first coach has on their training process. The relationship and connection that a player has with the first coach greatly determine the player's further attitude toward sport and influences the development of positive emotions related to training and playing sports, which is why the quality of that relationship is of paramount importance for acquiring a positive attitude towards sports.

There is a paucity of research dealing with the relationship between motivation and coaching styles in the Republic of Croatia, and the results obtained from this research can help to better understand the complex relationship between coaches and players and the impact of this relationship on the motivation of athletes. This was particularly shown for intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, the obtained results indicate the importance of this relationship and its quality and the importance of pedagogical work in the field of sports and education of participants in sports.

We should also mention the limitations of this research in the form of sample representativeness and generalization of results. The research was conducted in a very specific group - with players from one football club, from one city, from Republic of Croatia. The research did not include other team sports, and it is to be expected that coach-athlete dynamics could be different in other team sports, depending on many individual and contextual factors. Furthermore, future research should explore individual sports as well since the relationship between coaches and players in individual sports is probably different and even more complex than in team sports. Therefore, coaching styles could have different effects on players' motivation and other outcomes within the individual sport context. Another limitation of current research is that players often change their coach. As players move along from one age category to another, they change coaches and, in every cycle, they come in contact with a new coach. In doing so, they come into contact with multiple coaching styles that can differ significantly and have different influences on the motivation of a young athlete. The research was conducted in such a way that the obtained results show the current state of the motivation of the player, which may be the result of some other factors from the environment in which the individual resides.

Consideration should also be given to the age range of the participants and the fact that competitions and requirements are higher in older players and may affect motivation itself, whereas in younger players the competitiveness is not as pronounced as in older categories. The severity of the competition and its seriousness is not at the same level. Older players also tend to engage in professional sports, which can also affect motivation, while in younger players that tendency may not be over-emphasized.

Finally, the fact that trainers and football players gave somewhat socially desirable responses may not be ruled out. Although anonymity was assured, we do not exclude the possibility of social pressure influencing the results obtained by the players as well as by the coaches.

CONCLUSIONS

This research aimed to examine the association between trainers' coaching styles and the type of motivation of young football players. In the context of the self-determination continuum, the starting assumption was confirmed that coaches use behaviours based on both behaviourist and constructivist principles and that athletes whose coaches use behaviours that encourage autonomy, reflection, creativity, and problem solving will be more intrinsically motivated, while athletes whose coaches' behaviours are more focused on the reward and punishment system will be more extrinsically motivated.

Players exhibited the highest degree of intrinsic motivation, then integrated and identified indistinguishable, then winning and introjected motivation, and the least extrinsic regulation and demotivation indistinguishable. It has been found that younger coaches use reward more than older coaches and that those coaches who spend more time each week coaching children and young players are less focused on commitment and progress. There was also a significant correlation between the first coach's use of rewards and punishing and the introjected, partially controlled, players' motivation related to personal involvement in completing the task, whereas no coaching style contributes to the explanation of external motivation.

In conclusion, the results show that coaching style is important for the motivation of young athletes, however, it is necessary to further investigate the mechanisms by which the coaching style and overall training process specifically affect different types of motivation.

REFERENCES

- Armour, K. (2013). *Sport pedagogy, an introduction to teaching and coaching*. London: Routledge.
- Balent, B., Kobilšek, A., & Šašek, H. (2017). *Psihološka znanja i alati u sportskoj praksi*. Priručnik za trenere. Zagreb: Sportski savez Grada Zagreba.
- Bollók, S., Takács, J., Kalmár, Z., & Dobay, B. (2011). External and internal sport motivations of young adults. *Biomedical Human Kinetics*, 3(1), 101-105. DOI:10.2478/v10101-011-0022-5.
- Claudiu, L. (2014). Rewards and punishments role in teacher-student relationship from the mentor's perspective. *Acta Didactica Napocensia*, 7(4), 7-12.
- Cumming, S. P., Smoll, F. L., Smith, R. E. & Grossbard, J. R. (2007). Is Winning Everything? The Relative Contributions of Motivational Climate and Won-Lost Percentage in Youth Sports. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 19(3), 322 – 336. DOI:10.1080/10413200701342640
- Ertmer, P.A., & Newby, T.J. (1993). Behaviourism, cognitivism, constructivism: Comparing critical features from an instructional design perspective. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 6(4), 50–72.
- Gagné, M., & Deci, E.L. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 26, 331-362. DOI: 10.1002/job.322
- Govender, D. S., & Sookrajh, R. (2014). 'Being hit was normal': teachers' (un)changing perceptions of discipline and corporal punishment. *South African Journal of Education*, 34(2), 1-17.
- Light, R.L., & Harvey, S. (2017). Positive pedagogy for sport coaching. *Sport, Education and Society*, 22(2), 271-287.
- Light, R., & Wallian, N. (2008). A constructivist-informed approach to teaching swimming. *Quest*, 60(3), 387–404. DOI:10.1080/00336297.2008.10483588
- Lisinskiene, A., & Šukys, S. (2014). The athlete triangle: Coach, athlete and parents as an educational system, *Global Journal of Sociology*, 4(2), 46-51.
- Lonsdale, C., Hodge, K., & Rose, E.A. (2008). The Behavioural Regulation in Sport Questionnaire (BRSQ): Instrument Development and Initial Validity Evidence. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 30, 323-355
- Marcone, M. (2017). *The Impact of Coaching Styles on the Motivation and Performance of Athletes*. Kinesiology, Sport Studies, and Physical Education Synthesis Projects, 21.
- Protić, I., & Maršić, T. (2014). Motivacijske razlike između sportaša i sportašica ekipnih i individualnih sportova. *Zbornik radova Medimurskog veleučilišta u Čakovcu*, 5(1), 85-91.
- Pšunder, M., & Ribić Hederih, B. (2010). The comparison between the behavioural and constructivist learning and teaching. *Informatologia*, 43(1), 34-38.
- Ryan, R.M., & Deci, E.L. (2000). Self-Determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development, and Well-Being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68-78.
- Smith, R.E. (2006). Positive reinforcement, performance feedback, and performance enhancement. In J. M. Williams (Ed.), *Applied sport psychology: Personal growth to peak performance* (5th ed., pp. 42–59). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Stern, H. P., Bradley, R. H., Prince M. T. i Stroh, S. E. (1990). Young Children in Recreational Sports: Participation Motivation. *Clinical Pediatrics*, 29(2), 89–94.
- Tomic, W. (1993). Behaviourism and cognitivism in education. *Psychology: A Journal of Human Behaviour*, 30(3-4), 38–46.
- Vallerand, R. (2000). Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination Theory: A View from the Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4), 312-318.
- Vizek Vidović, V., Vlahović – Štetić, V., Rijavec, M., & Miljković, D. (2014). *Psihologija obrazovanja*. Zagreb: IEP – Vern.
- Weathington, B., Alexander A., & Rodebaugh, L. (2010). Coaching Influences on Student-Athlete Motivation, Stress, and Skill. *Athletic Insight Journal*, 2(2), 1-18.