

MOTIVATION AND HEALTH MANAGEMENT IN ENHANCING EXERCISE ACTIVITIES : A REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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ABSTRACT

Motivation is the base of all kinds of activities associated with any game. Without a sportsman's desire and determination to progress his/her performances, all other psychological factors such as confidence, strength, focus, and emotions are worthless. Empirical literature of health management indicates that in sport activities, motivational factors are essential when attempts to sustain standards are made by sportsmen. As a result, knowledge towards sustainment of a sportsman's motivation turns into more and more investigation in sport, in the form of both involvement and competition. The usually held view is that motivation is either 'good' (intrinsic) or 'bad' (extrinsic). Though, this understanding is limited and promotes a mistaken understanding of extrinsic motivation and its unstable influences on sports participation. Intrinsic motivation is associated with the natural fun and enjoyment related with sport participation. For example, some athletes naturally enjoy running fast or striking the ball 'sweetly'. In contrast, amotivation is a lack of or decrease in motivation. In between these two opposing forms of motivation is extrinsic motivation, which is generally related with the achievement of some goal, such as winning an Olympic Gold Medal. Thus, it becomes important to come across and understand these intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors that affect players' sports activities. The present review focuses on studies related motivational factors that may be implicated in management of health and wellbeing and gaining positive outcomes in terms of enhancing the quality of sports activity among players.

Key words : Motivation; Intrinsic Motivation; Extrinsic motivation; Controlled Motivation; Amotivation

INTRODUCTION

Optimal motivation is an important construct for engaging in sports as well as other physical activities as it leads to better physical and psychological health of an individual (Biddle, Sallis, & Cavill, 1998). Optimal motivation can be defined as comprising of high quality and a high level of motivation (Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006). Drawing upon self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000), we consider high quality of motivation as self-endorsed and autonomous engagement in a physical activity

and a high level of motivation as the degree to which one is motivated to put determination in such activities. In the context of SDT, we think that the fulfillment of the basic psychological needs for autonomy (i.e., volition), competence (i.e., effectiveness), and relatedness (i.e., belongingness) is necessary for fostering high quality of motivation and that the satisfaction of the basic needs for competence, is extremely important in explaining quantity (i.e., high level) of motivation.

Motivation is among the sport's most

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interesting construct. It is the outcome of social environments such as competition and coaches' behaviors, and influences behavioral variables such as persistence, learning, and performance (Duda, 1989; Vallerand, Deci, & Ryan, 1987). Much of the work on intrinsic motivation in the social, educational, and sport psychology has been conducted to recognize the factors related with motivational direction or that may cause individuals to become intrinsically or extrinsically oriented toward any particular achievement activity. An intrinsic motivational orientation, explains about an individual, who participates in an achievement activity primarily for internal reasons (e.g., for fun, pleasure, personal mastery). An extrinsic motivational orientation, on the other hand, describes an individual who primarily participate in an achievement activity for external reasons (e.g., to gain social approval, social status, material rewards).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Self-Determination Theory

Lirgg (2006) recognized up to eight theories of motivation that have been used in research on physical education, such as need achievement theory, attribution theory, social cognitive theory, self-efficacy theory, competence motivation theory, theory of expectancy value, goal achievement theory, and theory of self-determination (SDT). Every theory has produced insights into primary behavior learners' in physical education, factors including as needs, expectations, and interests. In the last decade, studies of motivation in physical education have been progressively conducted within the context of physical activity levels (Parish, & Treasure, 2003) and health (Pihu, et al., 2008). Physical education has been known as a contributor achieve the recommended amount of physical activity to help children (Fairclough, & Stratton, 2005) and to prevent inactive lifestyles and associated diseases (Lobstein, Frelut, 2003) with motivation as the key factor in this process.

Deci and Ryan (1985) indicate self-determination to be one of the existing frame

works that is increasingly being used to understand exercise motivation. Particularly, self-determination theory proposes that behavioral regulation towards an activity can be amotivated, or motivated extrinsically, or intrinsically. These, in general classifications of motivation differ in the degree to which they are determined by self (autonomous), since they signify different degrees of internalization of external morals and goals. Specially, amotivation represents the lack of both controlled and autonomous motivation and is characterized by the lack of value for an activity, or the belief that the activity will not result in desired outcomes.

Autonomous Motivation

Autonomous motivation is attractive for the practice of exercise and physical activity. Hagger et al. (2003) in their studies have proposed, if young people in physical education classes are more autonomously motivated, they are likely to be more 'better pupils' in the sense that they will focus and will require only 'light-touch' direction by the teacher, which leads to learn in a positive outcomes and behavior. Further, it is proposed that in situations away from the school, like leisure time, more self motivated young people are more likely to be physically active, because they find physical activity meaningful. Autonomous motivation is contrasted with controlled motivation and amotivation. When individuals with controlled motivation, involve in an activity, they want to meet an internally or externally executed demand. Internal demands include the avoidance of feeling ashamed or guilty, or the internal pressure to bolster one's self-respect (introjected regulation). External demands may take the form of the avoidance of frightening punishments, the meeting of outer expectations, or the search of controlling rewards (external regulation). For example, generally children listen to the physical education teacher, because he threatens with bad grades. If they do not obey during instructions, then children are acting out of external regulation. Amotivation refers to the lack of intention to engage or act in an activity, or doing an activity

with no sense of planning to do it (Deci, & Ryan, 2002).

As mentioned before, numerous studies within SDT have linked pupils' motivation for physical education to different results, including emotional (e.g., well-being), cognitive (e.g., concentration), and behavioral outcome (e.g., activity level). These studies have constantly found more autonomous types of motivation as associated with higher wellbeing, more effort-expenditure and attention, and compared greater activity levels with more controlled types of motivation.

Studies indicate that to enable the internalization of externally regulated behavior for making children become autonomously motivated, it is important to support the individuals' satisfaction of innate, psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competency. These needs are said to characterize psychological nourishment underlying individuals' growth, well-being, and optimal motivation (Deci, & Ryan, 2000). Autonomy refers to the experience of sense of choice and emotional freedom when activities are carrying out (deCharms 1968). Competence concerns feeling effective when understanding responsibilities (White, 1959), and relatedness refers with experience of connectedness and closeness with physical education and sports activity (Baumeister, & Leary, 1995). An adolescent who feels that the physical education class is organized, consistent with his or her values, who feels skilled of efficiently doing the exercises, and who experiences a sense of connection with peers and the educator may score high on need satisfaction. Ryan and Deci (2007) claim that the satisfaction of all three needs is desirable in order to change from controlled to more autonomous regulations and for experiencing the most ideal kind of motivation. While the satisfaction of the needs for competence and relatedness may be sufficient for individuals to follow activities for either different controlled reason, the experience of sense of choice and, therefore, for autonomy satisfaction of the need is a requirement for the development of an identified or integrated

regulation.

Controlled Motivation

Studies indicate that controlled motivation behaviors are divided into four various types of behavioral regulation such as introjected, external, identified and integrated (Deci, & Ryan, 1985; Ryan, & Deci, 2000). External regulation represents behaviors that are regulated through exterior means, such as rewards or fear of punishment (e.g. exercising because of force from significant others). Introjected regulation refers to behaviors that are somewhat internalized, but they are not fully self-determined. These behaviors are performed to gain social agreement and self-worth or to avoid internal stress and negative feelings (e.g. exercising to avoid feelings of guilt).

Identified regulation represents a somewhat self-determined regulation because the outcomes of the behavior are highly valued (e.g., exercising to improve physical fitness), and the behavior is performed with no pressure, even if it is not mainly pleasant. Lastly, integrated regulation represents the most self-determined form of the internalization process. It refers to behaviors that are performed out of choice to harmonize and bring coherence to different parts of the self (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1995). For example, some individuals may view exercise, mutually with healthy eating and adequate rest, one of the important components of a healthy lifestyle. However, even at the higher end of the self-determination continuum, behaviors are engaged in for instrumental reasons, and thus they are extrinsically regulated.

Only when individuals are intrinsically motivated towards an activity the behavior is considered to be fully self-determined. When individuals are intrinsically motivated, they enjoy the process of engaging in the activity (e.g. exercising because enhances fun) rather than the associated outcomes with the latter. Thus intrinsic motivation, integrated regulation and identified regulation represent self-determination (autonomous) motivational regulations, whereas introjected and external regulation represent low

self-determined or controlled motivational regulations.

According to Vallerand (1997) different motivational regulations can directly influence an extensive range of behavioral, cognitive and affective outcomes. In a broad review of self-determination study across a wide variety of life contexts, Vallerand (1997) found that self-determined motivation regulations are associated to more adaptive outcomes compared with less self-determined regulations or amotivation.

Physical Activities and Motivation

Engaging in regular physical activity confers a variety of health benefits with reduced likelihood of coronary heart disease, adult onset diabetes, obesity, certain cancers, and more recently, metabolic syndrome (Bouchard, Blair, & Haskell, 2007; Gilmour, 2007). Specified the value of regular physical activity to opposing disease onset and progression, it seems contradictory that population health reports frequently reveal insufficient participation in health enhancing physical activity, particularly in adults. Gilmour (2007) derived data from the Canadian Community Health Survey, which show that 47.8 per-cent of Canadians aged 12 and over were lazy during their leisure time. Considerable variation was clear across population levels with varying physical activity rates as a function of age, gender, geographic region, and status of immigration ethnicity, and income (Gilmour, 2007). Therefore, a concerted effort has been made to understand why some people engage in physical activities such as exercise and sports with passion, whereas others prefer to maintain a more inactive lifestyle (Hagger, & Chatzisarantis, 2007).

The theoretical perspective that seems useful for understanding various motivational issues in physical activity settings is theory of self-determination (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2002). SDT accounts for the quality of motivation regulating behavior, as well as, the procedures that enables motivational development (Deci, & Ryan, 2002) that holds substantial appeal for understanding "why" people start, continue, and

conclude their involvement in various physical activities (Hagger, & Chatzisarantis, 2007). One application of research acceptance of SDT as a guiding framework has examined the applicability of the theory to contexts of exercise. Physical activity and exercise are not identical terms, with exercise typically considered of as a subset of leisure-time behavior, involving repeated bodily movements in planned and structured physical activities designed to improve the physical fitness (Bouchard et al., 2007).

Recently Self-determination theory has been used by researchers to study motivation in the contexts of exercise. Similar results have been found in other life situations, in which self-determined motivation to exercise has been related with more positive behavioral, cognitive and emotional outcomes compared with controlled motivational regulations or amotivation. For example, in terms of self-reported behavior, Ingledew, Markland and Medley (1998) found the association between different exercise and sports motives and the stages of behavioral change is explained by the trans-theoretical model (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1984), which argues that in context of exercise adoption, individuals move through five stages of behavioral change, starting from being inactive physically and ending up as exercise regularly. Ingledew et al. (1998) examined that extrinsic, especially body-related, motives are more essential in the early stages of behavioral change, while enjoyment (an intrinsic motive) was imperative for development of regular exercise patterns.

In contrast, Mullan and Markland (1997) examined the variations in four motivational regulations (intrinsic motivation, identified, introjected, and external regulation) across the various stages of change. Mullan and Markland (1997) explored that those individuals, who reported that they exercised rarely (preparation stage) had considerably lower scores on intrinsic motivation and identified regulation to exercise as compared to individuals who indicated that they exercised on a regular basis but for less than six months (action stage), and those who regularly

exercised for six or more months (maintenance stage). No stages of differences were found in external regulation and introjected regulation. This is shocking, given that controlling behavioral regulations are more likely to be related with maladaptive behavioral outcomes (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

CONCLUSION

Undoubtedly, more research is needed to be done, whether there are significant variations in self-determination among the different stages of change. This type of research is essential to understand why (i.e. the underlying motivational mechanisms) as well as individuals how they move across different stages of exercise behavior and manage their health.

However these days 'researcher and clinicians facing greatest challenges like, how to stop relapse for those individuals who have newly started exercising. There is an obvious need to use theoretical frameworks to study relapse behavior, as previous research studying relapse in exercise settings has been mainly a theoretical (Sallis et al., 1990). The acceptance of an active lifestyle is frequently related with positive attitudes toward exercise. Several models have been proposed in recent years, to account for the relations between attitudes and behavior. In the area of sport psychology, models have attempted to give practical answers for keeping participants concerned in regular exercise and to increase our understanding of the factors influencing voluntary health-related behavior and health management. Understanding the determinants of exercise behavior is the first step in the development of successful interventions to change that behavior.

Participation motivation is the first step for improving and sustaining motivation. Social reasons that influence participation in physical action may include affiliation, social status being part of a team, social recognition. Allen' (2003) study indicated that adolescent's social motivation influenced their enjoyment and interest in sport. It is of great importance however,

that extra pressure may result in discontinuation or support drop out. Discontinuation is a result of many sporting negative experience but equally a lack of positive experiences.

The studies included in this review confirmed the motivational system proposed by SDT, confirming the relevance of translating the explained beliefs of SDT into the practice of exercise and sports. Future research on self-determination in sports and exercise could be of added value to the policy of physical education. Given the increasing number of studies investigating SDT in the context of physical education, the present review targets at realizing a better addition of psychological knowledge in future SDT grounded work in the context of exercise, health management, and sports activity.

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