

Developing coaching strategies to enhance Singaporean athletes' competency motivations

Mark Brooke*

National University of Singapore

Abstract

The environment fostered by a coach can be an extremely important variable in an athlete's or team's drive towards success. Choices about whether perceived competence is seen as predominantly self-referenced, task-mastery oriented, other-referenced or performance-avoidance oriented are very important. Also, the extent to which the coach nourishes group-oriented or individual-oriented competence motivation in team sports is important. This study set out to analyse questions regarding competence motivations in the elite sporting landscape of Singapore. The results suggest that four basic competence needs should be considered highly by coaches in this context. In both team and individual sports, the following are important: the development of an athlete's feelings of self-worth through awareness of competence; athletes should be reminded that they are perceived as competent by other competing athletes; and coaches should make explicit that athletes are competent and that the spectators of a match are enjoying their play. The final basic competence relates solely to team sports: the importance of the team's performance or competence above all else. It is hoped that findings from this study might be useful to coaches and transferable to other Asian contexts.

Key words: Perceived competence; self-worth; Confucianism; coaching strategies

Introduction

In his paper, *Modelling the Complexity of the Coaching Process*, Cushion (2007) states:

“Perhaps coaching is an enterprise where a definitive set of concepts and principles will always be elusive and as such a singular all-encompassing model may not be possible” (p. 396).

Indeed, coaching is a multidimensional concept that is extremely complex. However, despite this, it is generally agreed that coaches can clearly benefit from knowledge of

research into the field of athlete motivation and in particular, competence motivation as they can develop coaching strategies informed, in part, by athletes' perceptions of what motivates them with regards to competence.

A positive motivational environment for athletes might be one that focuses positively on competence with mistake-contingent reinforcement behaviour. Fraser-Thomas, Cote and Deakin (2008) reported that these settings have lower dropout rates than environments fostering performance-avoidance. These latter tend to focus more on what the athlete does wrong rather than what is effective. Further, coaches who nourish a caring atmosphere might enable athletes to deal better with criticism or negative affect (Gano-Overway et al., 2009), which could lead to more positive learning. In addition, as demonstrated by

Duda et al. (1989), coaches who develop self-referenced and task-mastery oriented environments could have a more successful approach than those who foster ego orientation or other-referenced motivations. In other words, focusing the athlete or team on their performance rather than beating their opponents may be more beneficial for competence motivation coaching. Finally, in team sports, it could be true that pro-social, group-oriented motivations have a greater importance to athletes than individual orientations. Greenleaf, Gould, & Dieffenbach (2001) found that team building exercises in team sport training programmes improved performance. Therefore, coaches might also work towards building a strong group orientation. In recent research on empathy, it appears that this might be particularly salient for teams in Asian contexts where Confucianism is valued (Kuah, 2007; Sevdalis & Raab, 2013), the context of this research. There is a need, as Cushion (2007) posits, to make coaching practice context-dependent: “the practical context is the context in which the coaching process exists” (398). Therefore, empirical studies set in their contexts for coaches in those contexts might be highly informative for practitioners.

Researching athlete competence motivation needs should enable participants to express their opinions so that coaches can adapt strategies fitting these for training. This study takes a person-centered approach (see Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998) with interactionism as its underpinning. Individuals construct meanings through interaction with their environment over time. In this way, reality is highly dependent on the subjectivity of interpretation. Through open-ended qualitative interviews, it is possible to explore the views of elite athletes regarding the importance of the environment fostered by a coach.

Athlete notions of the importance of self-referenced, task-mastery oriented, other-referenced or performance-avoidance oriented were elicited and analysed. In addition, whether this changes if an athlete is involved in individual or team sports was also explored. Again, it was hoped that this would be beneficial for coaches involved in elite athlete preparation. In this latter area, for coaches of team

sports, in particular. It is hoped that results from this study might be transferable to other Confucian contexts such as China, Japan and South Korea. Additionally, it could be fruitful to explore any differences between those involved in individual or team sports in Asia, as well as differences between athletes from these Asian nations to further develop understandings.

Literature review

Competence motivations

The need for competence is the desire to be effective in dealing with one's environment and this can be clearly linked, in sport, to maintaining, or more preferably, improving, performance (Vallerand & Rousseau, 2001). Research in competence motivation as identified by Elliot and Dweck (2005):

“Must account for the ways in which individuals' behavior is energized (instigated, activated) and directed (focused, aimed). Our analysis of the energization of competence relevant behavior is grounded in the premise that competence is an inherent psychological need of the human being” (p.6).

At its basic level, competence motivation can be self-referenced and task-mastery oriented (Bortoli et al., 2011; Duda, 1989; Duda & Nicholls, 1992; Papaioannou et al., 2006; and Barnett et al., 2008; Wang, Liu, Nikos, Chatzisarantis and Lim, 2010) or other-referenced and performance-avoidance oriented (striving to perform well to avoid punishment and/or embarrassment and unhappiness) (Heckhausen, 1984; Lewis, Alessandri, & Sullivan, 1992; Stipek, Recchia, & McClintic, 1992; Hill, 2008; Wang, Liu, Nikos, Chatzisarantis and Lim, 2010); it may also be group-oriented if responsibility to a team is viewed as the main focus driving athletes to perform effectively (Fulgini, Tseng, & Lam, 1999; Tomasello, Carpenter, Call, Behne, & Moll, 2005; Naylor, 2006; Sebanz et al., 2006a); and this might be as a result of

Confucian values in Asian contexts (Fulgini, Tseng, & Lam, 1999; Chang, Wong, & Teo, 2000; Kuah, 2007; Sevdalis & Raab, 2013).

Models to analyze competence perceptions have been constructed and these have greatly contributed to our knowledge on intrinsic motivation. For example, Johnson and Johnson (2002) have focused on the relationship between relatedness and competence through cooperative achievement striving and Elliot and Dweck (1983) have found a positive correlation between task involvement and competence development as task-mastery striving. This positivity between these variables is reiterated by Wang, Liu, Nikos, Chatzisarantis and Lim (2010):

“When task involvement prevails, perceived ability is evaluated in a self-referenced manner and the focus is on achieving mastery, effort investment and progress in learning” (p. 325).

Indeed, research in achievement motivation in the sport domain (Duda, 1989; Duda & Nicholls, 1992; Papaioannou et al., 2006; and Barnett et al., 2008) has demonstrated that elite sport involvement is primarily task-mastery competence-oriented; that is, continued participation in high level competition is driven by the need to acquire physical mastery in the sport. This positive relationship between a mastery-approach goal and intrinsic motivation has also been confirmed by Adie and Jowett (2010). Mastery leads to highly positive affects such as joy and pride. In contrast, a lack of task-mastery may lead to negative affects such as unhappiness and shame (Heckhausen, 1984; Lewis, Alessandri, & Sullivan, 1992; Stipek, Recchia, & McClintic, 1992).

With regard to the role of affiliative concerns, different cultures may produce different competence motivations. In Asian cultures such as China, Japan and South Korea, where Confucian values are prominent (Kuah, 2007), some research (Chang, Wong, & Teo, 2000) seems to demonstrate that there is a more positive attitude to group-oriented competence motivation that considers obligation and responsibility to the team as essential factors (Fulgini, Tseng, & Lam, 1999). This leads Sevdalis & Raab (2013) argue that the locus of attention on team competence rather

than individual accomplishment might be more motivational in Asian contexts. Their research suggests that interacting with others to accomplish concrete collective objectives in teams is a more rewarding competence motivation for these individuals from Asian contexts, especially those involved in team sports.

Finally, competence motivation is also intricately related to notions of normative comparison regarding performance. Focusing on concepts such as self-presentation and self and affiliative worth rather than task-mastery is known as ego-involved goals. As Wang, Liu, Nikos, Chatzisarantis and Lim (2010) state, when ego involvement prevails:

“Success is other-referenced and the focus is on outperforming others or winning with less effort” (p. 325).

A performance climate of this nature is generally viewed as one that tends to nurture negative attitudes, including the possibility of athletes adopting deceptive strategies (i.e., cheating).

Coaching strategies to enhance competence motivations

Applying the Developmental Model of Sport Participation (DMSP) to investigate the factors that lead to dropout and prolonged engagement in competitive sports, Fraser-Thomas et al., (2008: 2750) found that coaches with a greater focus on task orientation and mastery-approach goals were more readily accepted by athletes in individual activities such as swimming than those who concentrated primarily on more extrinsically-motivated goal orientations such as other-referencing and winning. These coaches focused primarily on winning or punishing losing and were more likely to exhibit performance-avoidance motivations. VandeBergheet al (2013, p.6) and Slack (1997) had similar results. Slack (1997) argues that ‘scold’ behaviour is ‘dysfunctional because it alienates people and builds up resentment’ (p. 181). In contrast, praise is said to be much more effective in promoting positive competence motivation (ibid).

Amorose and Horn (2000) also report that in team sports, coaches who discuss the teams’ performance

positively, focusing on task-orientation rather than other-referencing, create more productive environments. Yukelson's (1997) research also suggests that coaches who seek to build team identity and group pride, along with instilling in individuals an explicit team goal orientation, are more successful. Further, Wallace, Baumeister & Vohs (2007) highlight that it is important that coaches work towards training athletes not to choke under pressure by perceiving a lull in their individual performance to be instrumental to their team's loss. If athletes tend to blame themselves for the team's overall performance, it may increase the potential to focus less on task-mastery and more on performance-avoidance and hence have a negative impact on the team.

The context

Although Singapore does not boast to be amongst the major sporting nations, its athletes compete at high level international competitions. Among its most successful sports are badminton, bowling, sailing, Sepak Takraw, Silat, swimming, table tennis and water polo. Singaporeans have won one gold in swimming Rio, 2016) and two Olympic silver medals in the women's double table tennis of the 2008 Beijing Summer Olympics. Despite this success, sport in Singapore remains at amateur status. That is, most athletes who compete nationally and internationally also commit to higher education or work.

Perhaps as a result of sport's minor status, little research has been done in Singapore to connect achievement motivation, and in particular, competence motivations, to high level competitive sport involvement. Koh et al (2012) conducted a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to analyze motivations in competitive youth sport. They found correlations between positive sporting experiences and psychological need satisfaction (i.e., sense of autonomy, perceived competence and relatedness). Their conclusions were that policies and programmes should seek to promote autonomy, perceived competence and relatedness in order for youth athletes involved in

competitive sports to gain a positive experience. Wang et al's (2010) study was also situated in Singapore high schools. It demonstrated that distinct groups of basketball players had invariant attitudes towards particular coaching behaviour emphasizing a mastery rather than a performance climate. In particular, performance-avoidance goals had negative repercussions whereas mastery-approach goals were viewed positively and fostered intrinsically-motivated athletes.

Although both of these studies have produced some interesting results, they focus on 14 to 17 year olds only and, although partially related, were not specifically directed at competence motivations. There is therefore a need to address this gap in the literature. Specifically, are motivations of elite adult athletes similar to those indicated in these studies of youth athletes? What competence motivation orientation is prominent, if any? To what extent is group-oriented motivation deemed important by athletes in team sports? Is there a difference in competence motivations if an athlete is involved in individual or team sports? Finally, how may this information inform coaching strategies in this setting?

Method

As presented by Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black (1998), this study implemented a person-centered approach. The theoretical underpinning of this approach taken is interactionism. It postulates that individuals construct meanings through interaction with their environment over time. However, individuals do not merely react predictably to social stimuli but demonstrate agency and autonomy in constructing understandings through social interactions. In this way, reality is highly dependent on the subjectivity of interpretation.

Thus, the research adopted a relative ontology contending that different individuals interpret reality in differing ways depending on past experience. In addition, a subjective epistemological position was taken in considering the ways in which knowledge can be constructed regarding

athletes' views on competence-relevant settings and the correlation between the coach–athlete relationship and competence motivation. The research prioritized the individuals' interpretations as social phenomena and consequentially, sought to extrapolate meaning from the symbols the individuals associated with feelings of competence and the correlation between the coach–athlete relationship and competence motivation.

Participants

Both purposive and snowball sampling were applied to acquire the candidates for the research. The criteria for interviewees were: (a) aged between 19 and 25 (b) must have represented Singapore in national or international settings (c) for a continuous period of at least 2 years and (d) professed to have had a coach in a competitive setting for at least one year. A sample of ten highly competitive athletes both males ($n=5$) and females ($n=5$), from a variety of team and individual sports were selected (canoe, figure skating, floorball, handball, hockey, squash, rock climbing, football, swimming, taekwondo and track & field). Athletes from both individual and team sports were selected to observe if competence motivations were perceived differently by these samples. Any differences in motivation orientations could be recorded and might be useful for coaching purposes.

Data collection

Semi-structured interviews were conducted. Participants were told at the outset that they should express themselves as fully as possible to avoid the construction of an oral questionnaire. Open-ended questions, with relevant follow up prompts were applied. These were felt to be important as they would help to reduce any researcher bias. This method also has the advantage of encouraging rich descriptions (Smith & Caddick, 2012) as it provides respondents with a freedom to express themselves within a subjective space. The method therefore reinforces the interpretivist paradigmatic underpinnings of the research. Perspectives from individuals and their emotions were

welcomed and encouraged during interviews so that qualitative descriptions of the symbols that they associate with these concepts could be garnered.

Initially, a question developed by Amorose and Horn (2000) was asked: how good do you think you are at your sport? This can be seen to relate to The Basic Needs Satisfaction in General Scale (BNSGS). It was deemed a useful opening question as it asked athletes to focus on evaluating their perceived competence. This was followed up with questions such as how important is it to feel good at your sport? After that, another question, related to the Perceived Competence Scale (PCS) by Bortoli et al., (2011) was asked: do you feel you can meet the challenges in your sport? This was selected to elicit from athletes the challenges that they confront and therefore to enable the researcher to pose follow up questions regarding how the athlete deals with these. Both of these questions were designed to produce data to ascertain the level of the athletes' competence awareness. The next question, the most important for the research, was to establish whether the athletes leaned more towards task or ego orientations as a competence motivation. This was elicited using an item from Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ from Duda & Nicholls, 1992): do you feel successful in your sport when you perform well or when you perform better than other players? The use of these scales, already developed for research practices, helped to provide structural validity for this work.

Data Analysis

An inductive, interpretational analysis of the raw data was conducted. The process followed six analytic strategies on data analysis: open coding, selective coding, reflecting on coding, seeking similarities and differences between codes, generalizing about codes to construct theoretical understandings, and then finally analyzing these generalizations through the lenses of existent research results to further knowledge in the field. Citations from interviewees were isolated that could be used to represent general homogenous meanings. Once the data had undergone this process, a second processor was engaged to

analyze selected coding for the results. A high inter-rater agreement was found to confirm the study's reliability.

Results

From the data, it is suggested that four basic competence needs should be considered highly by coaches: the first is the development of feelings of self-worth through awareness of competence; the second is perceived as competent by other competing athletes; the third is competent for the spectators' enjoyment; and the fourth is the importance of the team's performance or competence above all else.

The development of feelings of self-worth through awareness of competence

Task-mastery competency was connected with feelings of self-worth and confidence. All of the athletes reported that feelings about being good at the sport were quintessential to their continued engagement because these boosted their levels of confidence. One athlete described why confidence was so important:

"I enjoy skating because I am good at it. Since skating is all about confidence, the knowledge that you are good helps a lot because it relieves pressure."

All of the athletes demonstrated an incremental view of their talents as malleable and open to development and related this to their levels of self-worth. At several instances during the interviews, the coach's mastery and impact on the athletes was reported as absolutely essential at all levels for the athletes' progression. For example, a runner explained that without her coach's knowledge of mastery, her achievements would be greatly reduced:

"My coach knew I was in that phase, you know... once he pushed me past it, my running improved and I started enjoying it again".

The findings also indicate a need for coaches to be able to recognize that errors often reveal risk-taking. Errors

should be seen as a potential opportunity for constructive feedback and positive reinforcement.

Perceived as competent by other competing athletes or teams

Ego involvement motivations were also present in several interviewee accounts. For these participants, success was partially other-referenced by outperforming competitors. The athletes stressed the importance that other competitors believe them to be competent at their sport. It emerged that this relates to the importance of achievement standards proposed and collectively shared by significant others. One athlete stated that:

"It is good to know that they (competitors) watch me execute my shots with such precision. It shows how hard I've trained and helps to set the standard for the game".

Self-worth is therefore also constructed as dependent on how the athletes project other competitors' views about their performances.

Competent for the spectators' enjoyment

Performance goals in terms of winning positive judgements of competence and avoiding negative ones, were linked to competence motivation also. For these athletes, spectators' judgements and how much they enjoyed the performances, were important signifiers. One athlete stated that he:

"Felt good to know that they (spectators) could watch the team doing their set plays effectively".

This feeling of competence was important. The athlete and his team felt motivated if they were able to meet their spectators' expectations and perform as they should in order to entertain. Interestingly, if they were able to meet these standards, they felt that they had performed successfully, even if they had not won the match. This need to demonstrate competence to spectators did not refer solely to parents of players or friends at a sporting event but to all spectators present.

Importance of the team's performance or competence above all else.

Athletes involved in team sports had a tendency to report that individual competence is much less important in team games. What mattered was the team's overall competence. One athlete reported:

"There's nothing more rewarding than when we play well collectively."

Further, if an athlete feels that he has performed badly, it has less significance if the team has performed well overall. One athlete reported that this helped her to forget her individual failings:

"It helps me shift my focus away from my own whims, towards the team goal and team well-being."

Discussion

From the data, it is clear that both task-mastery and performance-related competency motivations are essential for elite Singaporean athletes and their continued participation in top level sport. The following provides input on how coaches' practices might be informed by these results.

The development of feelings of self-worth through awareness of competence

This is the most significant motivation from the research. All participants acknowledged the importance of the coach's views about their competence as a source of motivation and its relatedness to their own feelings of self-worth. This echoes much research in this field that has found correlations between achievement goals and the development of ability (Duda, 1989; Nicholls, 1989; Duda & Nicholls, 1992; Papaioannou et al., 2006; Barnett et al., 2008). This also echoes research finding that coaches with a greater focus on task-mastery-approach goals were more

readily accepted by athletes (Fraser-Thomas, Cote and Deakin, 2008).

In addition, potential self-government in competence amelioration was also rejected by athletes. At several instances during the interviews, the coach's mastery and impact on the athletes was reported as absolutely essential for the athletes' progression. Errors reveal risk-taking and are a potential opportunity for constructive feedback and positive reinforcement. When asked what a good coach does to develop self-confidence and self-worth, athletes reported that it is important that the coach, first and foremost, shows respect for the athletes and their skills. This means recognizing adept performance and communicating this to provide positive reinforcement.

Demeaning the athlete with too much harsh criticism, even if there has been a poor performance, was referred to as an ineffective approach to coaching and therefore not recommended. This supports research by Van de Berghe et al (2013); breaking athletes' self-esteem at times when they are dissatisfied with their own performance may have negative impacts on future performances. This finding also tallies with research from Cameron & Pierce (1994) that argues that positive reinforcement increases intrinsic motivation. Indeed, it seems that at times of self-dissatisfaction such as these, the athlete needs encouragement and confidence-boosting and the coach should try to examine the performance in a constructive way by exploring any mistakes made as part of the learning process. Further, in training sessions, mistakes should not be discouraged as they often can lead to learning opportunities. If an athlete is asked to think through parts of a poor performance or watch a video with mistakes in it or acts that could be improved, this can have very beneficial rewards.

Perceived as competent by other competing athletes

This is an interesting aspect of competence motivation. It can be seen to be related to Hill's (2008) work on the validation of self as the meeting of expectations imposed by significant others. This projection validates athletes'

sense of self and encourages them to focus on their performance. Although the majority of the athletes were very skeptical of performance avoidance as a sound training environment, there were perceptions that a climate in which interpersonal competition is emphasized, can be motivational. This was true for both individual and team sports. If coaches are aware of this importance, they might video the play or refer to it live during a break in play and raise their athletes' awareness about how other players are perceiving them during a competitive event. This kind of feedback is likely to be provided to individual participants as their opposing competitors are similarly specialized. Thus, feedback might make explicit the way a competitor in a similar role is impressed by certain skills presented. For example, in football, a striker might be encouraged by a coach's demonstration of how a defender assigned to that striker might find it difficult to cope with that striker's speed or close ball skills. This personalized feedback could build the confidence of the athletes and enable them to further focus on developing their task-mastery.

Competent for the spectators' enjoyment

From this research, it seems essential that the athletes feel that they perform well-enough to offer an interesting, exciting match for those watching. This has an impact on these athletes' own achievement standards. If coaches are aware of the importance that athletes link to the spectators' enjoyment, they might refer to this at a competitive event or during post-event training to build the confidence of the athletes so that they can further focus on developing their task-mastery. The possible difference this variable has with the above-mentioned perception is that this competence motivation could be more related to the team's performance rather than the individual's. Instead of focusing on how an opposing competitor finds an athlete's successful behaviour difficult to assimilate, the coach could refer to the spectators' involvement during the game and how that reflected the competence of the team.

Additionally, as research at the highest level from Wallace et al., (2007) demonstrates, critical audiences may

also lead athletes towards 'maladaptive self-monitoring and over-cautiousness' (p. 429) at critical moments. This can induce an increased self-focus which might impact the automatic execution of the skills performers have developed through their practice. In order to deal with this potential obstacle, coaches might use video to help to condition athletes at the highest level to deal with supporter pressure during competitions. This is, according to these authors' (Wallace et al., 2007), particularly important for more ego-oriented players who might have a tendency to choke if they feel they are underperforming.

The importance of the team's performance or competence above all else.

This relates to the notion that competency in Asian cultures such as China, Japan and South Korea, may have a more positive attitude towards group-oriented competence motivation (Chang, Wong, & Teo, 2000), which considers obligation and responsibility to the team as essential factors in competence motivation (Fulgini, Tseng, & Lam, 1999). This finding appears to support research from Sevdalis & Raab (2013) who present how neurocognitive functions such as empathic tendencies can influence performance. Expanding on work on cooperative achievement striving by Johnson and Johnson (2002), Sevdalis & Raab (2013) posit that interacting with others to accomplish concrete collective objectives requires individuals to perceive others' intentions, empathize with these, and adapt their own accordingly. This occurs during training as well as competitive sporting events. This embodied mutual engagement is important. Sevdalis & Raab (2013) state:

'These perception-performance relationships are underscored by empathic processes associated with the capacity to understand other individuals' affective or cognitive states' (p.3).

Through the development of these relations, a bi-directional link or mutual ground of understanding is created and significant feelings of empathy developed.

According to research (Tomasello, Carpenter, Call, Behne, & Moll, 2005; Sebanz et al., 2006a), these perception–action relations appear hardwired and pivotal in the development of intention, understanding and cooperation. This knowledge is also important for the confidence of each player in the team: if it is believed that the team is good, each individual feels confident, even if particular players might secretly feel that they are performing below their peak. This kind of encouragement can also be used to develop the motivation to win as a team, which is what Naylor (2006) suggests is good competency-orientated development practice.

In order to act in an informed way using these findings, coaches could first, facilitate a substantial amount of team practice; they could also set aside time to discuss performance in relation to the team perspective analysing strong or weak performances as a collective unit using collective terms such as the defense or attack, backs or forwards. Finally, a coach might set up group work activities as part of training such as requiring a group to study their own or another team's performance and to report on it as a collaborative presentation.

Limitations of this study

The main limitation of this study is that it is a piece of qualitative research and thus the sample size is small. It is therefore difficult to make generalisations for coaching practices based on the data sources. Further studies by conducting large scale questionnaires on a Likert scale could be conducted as a follow-up. The instruments used would be the four competence motivations from the findings. Additionally, another potential limitation stems from results demonstrating that athletes hold group-oriented competence motivation drives. It is possible that obligation and responsibility to others, which appear to be a part of motivations for athletes involved in team sports might not be an Asian trait and therefore related more to Asian cultures such as China, Japan and South Korea. It is possible that these are more common factors in

competence motivation in these cultures where empathic tendencies might be more present. However, without interviewing a similar sample from a non-Asian society, it is difficult to draw safe conclusions. It would be interesting in further research to explore this.

Conclusion

It appears that elite athletes in Singapore relate well to the presence of a highly experienced and influential coach who is aware of their competence motivations. A successful coach will focus on task-mastery-approach goals and will understand that athletes are concerned about how others view them in terms of their competence. The findings also indicate that coaches should work with athlete errors as a potential opportunity for constructive feedback. In addition, the results suggest that coaches should be aware that elite athletes consider spectator appreciation and the attitudes of other competitors important. Therefore, other-related motivations do seem to have a significance for these athletes and coaches might make use of strategies such as references to spectator enjoyment or opponent respect for motivation. Finally, the findings support recent research on how feedback focusing on the team's performance rather than the individual can help to build empathic tendencies, which is reported to simultaneously increase the performance of the individual and the team.

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