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Enhancing athletes’ self-determination through coaching
ABSTRACT

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In the sports sector, there has been considerable discussion on intrinsic motivation and self-determination and its influence on individual athletes’ development. In other fields such as working life and education, the benefits of self-determination have already been acknowledged and the management models and teaching approaches used in such fields increasingly direct people through their intrinsic motivation and self-determination. Regardless, many coaches and sports organizations rely on coaching approaches that emphasize extrinsic forms of motivation such as relentless coach-control, high authority and even demanding and forcing. Therefore, the question is, why such a significant sector such as sports and especially team sports still lag behind in using approaches that enhance self-determination.

The primary objective of this thesis is to research and collect information about self-determination theory and its sub theories. The second objective is to create a manual that provides useful information and practical tools for coaches and sport organizations to begin enhancing self-determination among their athletes. The intention of the manual is to educate and develop individual coaches and advance coaching in sports organizations. Through the advanced coaching, this thesis aims to consequently empower and motivate athletes towards independency in athletic growth, which would appear as more self-determined form of behavior and as greater athletes.
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1 INTRODUCTION

During an ice-hockey practice or game audience may hear the coach yell comments such as “skate!”, “pass!”, “shoot!” at the athletes. Some might not observe this, some might even think “wow, what an active and knowledgeable coach”, although, the benefits of such demands can be debated. Since, if the coach consistently and strictly makes demands and controls the athletes’ actions, how much do athletes really think for themselves? Could athletes perform better if they were thinking and acting in a self-determined manner and would they be confident doing so?

Much previous research exists on the content of self-determination and in what types of circumstances it blossoms, yet many coaches and sports organizations still rely on coaching approaches that emphasize coach-control, high authority and even demanding and forcing. Often, this results in the thoughts and choices of the athletes being disregarded, encouraging them to become robotic in their actions. In the continuously developing field of coaching, together with other studies, this thesis aims to provide new directions in individual and communal coaching approaches.

The research problem is the quintessential issue of over emphasized use of extrinsic motivation in coaching and its insufficiency towards optimal athlete development. The basis for this thesis begun by seeking answers to the question of how can coaching be changed to favor self-determination. How can coaches enhance athletes to become more self-determine? What kind of result will the changes in coaching create in the sport environment and within athletes’ development?

The primary objective of this thesis project is to research the theory of self-determination and collect individual and practical implementations that enhance athletes’ self-determination. This thesis also intends to educate individual coaches and advance coaching in sports organizations. Second objective of the thesis is to produce a coach’s manual covering the content of “enhancing athletes’ self-determination through coaching”.

The coach’s manual that is made as an end-product, consists practical implementations for individualized situations relevant in sports and ice-hockey. The manual will be self-created as well as based on different sources. The main emphasis of the manual is to present practical tools for coaches to develop their knowledge and procedures in coaching, which consequently empower and motivate athletes towards more independent athletic growth and a more self-determined form of behavior. Thirdly, through advanced coaching, this thesis aims to contribute to gaining more self-determined athletes in the future.

One of the main concerns with forming coaching around athletes’ self-determination is that the athletes may have only very rarely experienced independence under coaching and are thus unable to take or may resist taking responsibility for their own actions in the sport. Therefore, if changes in coaching approaches are not handled correctly, the coaches may be seen as unreliable and incompetent. This thesis project was conducted to avoid such situations and because there is a lack of research concerning self-determination theory specifically in the context of ice-hockey.

This thesis is written as a case study and it consists of three parts. The first part of the thesis examines self-determination theory in depth. The second part of the thesis examines self-determination more closely from the standpoint of ice hockey coaching. The third part displays the product development process and the case study within the Kärpät Oulu youth organization. The thesis ends with a results and discussion section, in which the outcomes and observations of the project are discussed.

The author aims to address theoretical practices from a practical standpoint, so they can easily be applied in everyday situations. Such a practical perspective also relates to the subject being a relatively new approach in team societies. The author uses “athletes” as a character and as a point of view in the theory, since also athletes are humans and fundamentally behave and feel emotions like any other.
2 SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

2.1 Coaching

In sports, coaching is a process that consists of a person called the coach who provides mentoring, guidance and support for athletic development by planning and organizing the training for an athlete or team. The whole process of coaching is usually directed towards the fundamental aim of finding athletes’ greatest potential in order to improve and maximize performance. To reach the best possible performance requires a creative process that inspires and empowers athletes, as well as provides them with more optimized decision-making skills, better self-reflection and higher motivation towards development, growth and excellence in sports. The basics of coaching include guidance, questioning, clarifying, listening and giving feedback. (Withmore, 2009; Grant, 1999; ICF, 2015)

In competitive sports, the performance of athletes also needs to result in success. Therefore, the question remains as to which goal – the athletes’ development or competitive success of the team – should be the primary concern in coaching. Especially in youth sports, the priorities of coaching can be debated. For the coach, it is important to be able to identify, value and approach these competing priorities and to consider how to contribute to them. Coaching is a solution-focused and result-orientated process that is carried out in collaboration by the coach and the athletes, which should meet the athletes’ needs. Within this process, by being the performer, athletes retain ownership of the outcomes, and thus should be the primary focus of coaching (Passmore, 2015). Also, as athletes are the performers and can influence the outcome more directly than coaches, they should be able to act self-determinedly and not only through the coaches’ instructions. Nowadays it is becoming increasingly noted how self-determination contributes to peoples’ behavior and that it should be promoted throughout childhood and adolescence (Palmer & Wehmeyer, 2003; Stewart et al., 2009). The following theory discusses self-determination from the viewpoint of coaching.
2.2 Self-determination theory

Motivation is the origin of all the athletes’ actions, starting with participation in the sport, engaging with the exercises and striving for development and success. Often, inherently interesting tasks are the ones that produce self-determined behavior and therefore produce higher productiveness. However, athletes are usually driven by a variety of different forms of motivation, which are more or less controlled by the coach and feel more or less inherently interesting. To examine motivation more closely, Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan (2000) presented the self-determination theory (SDT), which discusses different forms of motivation, what fosters each of them and explains how they can be changed. SDT presents three psychological needs that need to be satisfied in order to positively influence the athletes’ motivation and subsequently lead behavior towards self-determination. These are autonomy, competence and relatedness, and they are also described as the three nutriments for psychological well-being. Fostering these needs is essential to the athletes’ well-being, growth and integrity. The following sections detail what SDT includes and how they relate to coaching.

2.2.1 Autonomy

Autonomy may be the most central need to be satisfied, in terms of self-determination. Autonomy is described as a propensity for self-regulated actions. Autonomy consists of volition and independence over decisions and actions, meaning that decisions are made by using freewill and actions are self-endorsed. In contrast to autonomy are forced and controlled actions, in which decisions are made or influenced externally. Having independent control over decisions and self-regulating actions is perceived as autonomous behavior, as they are reflected with experiencing integrity, volition, and vitality (Ryan, 1993). Consequently, autonomy acts as a key source of intrinsic motivation, enthusiasm and higher productivity (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Self-determined actions are chosen autonomously and are self-regulated since behavior comes from the athletes’ inner interests. Due to autonomy, the athletes
are more likely to make intrinsically motivated decisions and to trust in making the correct decisions. Autonomously made decisions do not feel forced nor controlled, thus, the athletes are likely to identify the more suitable and intrinsically motivating action since it is self-chosen. Intrinsically motivated athletes will enjoy the activity itself and feel appreciation towards the goals of the activity. If the athletes’ opinions and awareness are inhibited, the athletes are generally less able to perform effective self-regulated actions, which require autonomy. (Deci & Ryan 2000, 254; Jarenko & Martela 2014, 30.)

2.2.2 Competence

Competence describes the athletes’ sense of having the required skills and abilities to complete a task successfully. General competence can be extended and vary in activities that are relevant to effective social interaction. A sense of competence is highest in challenging tasks when still having a feeling of success. Succeeding in challenging tasks can lead to experiencing flow, where the sense of competence is so high that the athletes’ awareness of irrelevant irritants can begin to alter. When athletes are performing well and are charged with competence the general vitality of behavior towards the activity is found to be higher. It is also clear that athletes will enjoy a task more in which they sense capability more than inability. Having the need to experience competence is not only generated by extrinsic motivation and given tasks, but originates from early childhood where spontaneous playing, exploring and interacting is a part of learning and growth. Thus, the need to experience competence is essential. Therefore, also with intrinsically motivated activities the need for competence is apparent. (Elkind, 1971; White, 1959; Jarenko & Martela 2014, 30.)
2.2.3 Relatedness

Relatedness refers to the desire of sensing a connection to others. Relatedness is about having a social companion to interact with and sensing social cohesion among other people (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Bowlby, 1958; Harlow, 1958; Ryan, 1993). Establishing and sustaining belongingness is natural and essential to everyone, which is why also the athletes’ wellbeing is connected to the people around them. When athletes feel they are appreciated and cared for, they can profoundly connect with people and start experiencing enjoy. Furthermore, when the social environment provides encouragement, safety and warmth, the athletes are emotionally at their best. Essentially, humans are not individuals but gregarious creatures (Jarenko & Martela 2014, 30.) The need for relatedness can at times compete or conflict with self-organizational tendencies, that is with the need for autonomy (Deci & Ryan 2000, 253). In team sports, such as ice hockey, relatedness is relevant and cannot be ignored. However, an overview of “team spirit” or atmosphere among the team does not give a precise answer to how individuals experience relatedness in the team.

2.3 Behavior

In self-determination theory, the athletes' behavior has two extremities, either self-determined or nonself-determined. In the self-determination continuum (Figure. 1) there is a vertical line by these two extremities to describe if the behavior can be defined as self-determined or nonself-determined. In between these two dashed vertical lines the degree of self-determination varies due to the depth of internalization of external motivation and with the perceived locus of causality.
2.3.1 Self-determination

Self-determination is a process by which athletes regulate their own actions, behave independently and are highly motivated. Self-determined athletes have the ability to make decisions for themselves without external influences, and thus, engage with activities spontaneously. Self-determined actions can be regulated by either intrinsic motivation or fully integrated extrinsic motivation. It is worth considering that athletes are not only self-determined while intrinsically motivated, but also through well-integrated extrinsic motivation since in both forms of motivation the perceived locus of causality is internal, and the action emanates from the athletes themselves by showing self-endorsement and appreciation of the produced outcomes of the action. This denotes that even if the coach influences the athletes’ decisions and actions, the behavior can still be self-determined, as long as the athletes are provided with autonomy to make informed decisions and accept them as their own.

2.3.2 Nonself-determined

Nonself-determined situations occur when athletes’ actions are exclusively controlled and regulated from the outside by extrinsic motivation. Nonself-determined athletes have no control over their actions and are poorly motivated or have no motivation at all (i.e. amotivated). Thus, they are forced to engage with the activity. Since, nonself-determined actions are regulated externally, and the perceived locus of causality varies in the different degrees of externality. With nonself-determined actions, athletes do not understand, endorse or agree with the outcome values of the activity, and therefore they are poorly motivated to behave and perform as indolent.
2.4 Type of motivation

Motivation is an intellectual force that drives athletes' behavior and vitality. When the level of motivation is high, they are devoted to the activity and direct their bodies and minds to perform well on the task at hand. However, there are not only various levels of motivation, but also different types of motivation. Therefore, motivational changes and performed behavior not only alternates according to the level of motivation (i.e., amount of motivation), but likewise the orientation of the motivation (i.e., type of motivation). The type of motivation can also vary by situation through the attitudes and goals that produce the action. Motivation can be divided in to three categories: amotivation, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. These three types of motivation differ from each other distinctly and generate different kinds of behavior, however often actions are produced by mixture of motivation types (Ryan and Deci, 2000; Hagger and Chatzisarantis, 2007).

Extrinsic motivation consists of an external force that pushes and forces the athletes towards contributing something. In sports, this force is usually the coach. Intrinsic motivation is an internal will and interest arising within the athletes, to complete an action spontaneously. Extrinsic motivation contrasts with intrinsic motivation and amotivation indicates a situation where there is no motivation.

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can be divided into two different stages by their duration: situational- and general motivation. Situational motivation is temporary and varies in different specific situations. General motivation, on the other hand, is permanent and even lifelong (Viitala, 2004, 153). Situational motivation is very dynamic and strongly affected by external irritants and can change weekly, daily or even during one practice. Situational motivation portrays the athletes' behavior in specific situations and the productivity of actions in them. General motivation reflects the level of interest and motivation in general. General motivation has consistent influences on behavior and vitality, for example towards training. General motivation is often mentioned as a synonym for attitude, yet there are some differences. Attitude is relatively permanent, internalized and difficult to change, as well as general motivation, although motivation usually reflects vitality in activities and attitude towards life in general. Changes in motivation do not necessarily require
changes in attitude, even though there is correlation between these two. The dynamic and situational nature of motivation should be understood. Attitude implies the athletes’ way of thinking, acting and feeling emotions. It also signifies valuing and not appreciating some objects and subjects. (Ruohotie 1998, 41–42.)

Ultimately, athletes’ motivation varies individually and is affected by both external and internal irritants, which together cause certain behavior. Situational motivation is often dependent on general motivation, since generally motivated athletes are more likely to adapt in situations and is willing to make compromises (Ruohotie 1998, 41).

2.4.1 Amotivation

Amotivation indicates a situation where there is no motivation at all towards the activity. Amotivation does not produce any productive action and signals resisting and negative behavior. Amotivation is a state in which athletes are unwilling and do not intend to act satisfyingly. Athletes are likely to be amotivated when they have a lack of effectiveness or respect for the desired outcome of the activity. In such situations, athletes are not able to regulate themselves (Pelletier, Dion, Tu-son, & Green-Demers, 1999). Amotivation stands in contrast to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, since all forms of extrinsic and intrinsic regulations contain inten-tentional actions and amotivation represents a total lack of motivation, thus either no action at all or nonself-determined behavior (Ryan and Deci, 2000).

2.4.1 Extrinsic motivation

Extrinsic motivation is defined as performing an action or behavior to attain a separ-able outcome. Extrinsic motivation is led by an outside force and it often consists of either instrumental or social values that are used to increase the athletes’ moti-vation to perform better. Extrinsically motivated behavior is not invariably con-trolled but can vary in the degree to which the behavior is perceived as self-deter-mined or controlled. Often extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation are related
as reciprocal concepts, however, there are situations where both affect motivation. Therefore, the concept of external motivation has been formulated around the concept of internalization of extrinsic motivation. This concept illustrates the variation in the degree to which the behavior is controlled versus self-determination. The degrees are forms of regulation: external, introjected, identified and integrated, and represent less than fully intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

In the ice hockey context, the outside force leading the athletes is the coach and instrumental values such as rewards and punishments (i.e. carrot-and-stick approach) are still broadly in use, although their benefits could be arguable. If the athletes are engaging in an activity entirely for the sake of an external outcome, without any willingness that reflects an inner acceptance of the value or utility of a task, the long-term outcomes can be considerably less beneficial and instructive. Creating forced and extrinsically motivated actions, often result in resentment, resistance, and disinterest towards the activity. For example, athletes who perform training to prevent being punished, are extrinsically motivated athletes, who act to attain the separable outcome of avoiding sanctions. Similarly, athletes who train while truly identifying the value and utility of the exercise, jointly with personal desires and goals, is still extrinsically motivated. Both situations involve instrumentalities, yet the latter case entails self-endorsement and a feeling of choice, volition and autonomy, whereas the former involves more compliance with an external control. Nevertheless, the latter case represents a situation of more deeply internalized extrinsic motivation. Since the coach cannot always rely on intrinsic motivation, it is important to understand the different degrees of internalized extrinsic motivation, and what fosters them.

2.4.2 Intrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation is defined as performing an action for the enjoyment of the activity itself, not the outcome of it. Inspiration for this behavior evolves within the athletes and out of pure interest towards the task. With initially interesting activities, the athletes are likely to engage with them genuinely, consequently becoming self-determined (Deci & Ryan, 2000).
Intrinsic motivation appears when interest towards the task is discovered alone by the athletes and is unaltered by external factors. When external factors occur, the action is perceived to be led through integrated regulations. The difference between intrinsic motivation and fully integrated extrinsic motivation is narrow but notable; in integrated regulations the athletes have independently identified the values of the action but have discovered it by the help of some external factor, in contrast fully intrinsic motivation can be achieved only by the athletes themselves, individually. Therefore, in the self-determination continuum there is a vertical line between integrated regulation and intrinsic motivation, to emphasize that fully internalized extrinsic motivation is not typically intrinsic motivation but remains as extrinsic motivation because even though fully volitional, it may have instrumental or social influences.

With extrinsic motivation rewards are common and occasionally noted to be beneficial, however with intrinsic motivation external rewards are not required. If rewards are offered to intrinsically motivated athletes, one may not feel that their own motivation is the true origin of the behavior, thus causing a negative impact between action and outcome. This is because intrinsically motivated athletes are performing the action due to interest in the activity itself, where the reward is the action itself. In cases where satisfaction is already achieved, external rewards should be avoided.

Even tough, intrinsic motivation is an essential type of motivation, many of the activities that athletes perform in their personal life are not intrinsically motivated. For example, as adulthood comes closer athletes are increasingly occupied by different social situations and responsibilities that are usually non-intrinsically interesting tasks. This issue advocates having extrinsically motivated actions in sports for supporting growth.

Intrinsic motivation is found to result in more interest, excitement, confidence, enhanced performance, persistence, creativity, self-esteem and general well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 1991; Sheldon, Ryan, Rawsthore, Ilardi 1997; Deci & Ryan, 1995; Ryan, Deci & Grolnick, 1995).
2.4.3 Intrinsic motivation and autonomy

With intrinsic motivation and such performed behavior, the locus of causality needs to be internal, thus autonomy is essential to intrinsic motivation. Since events such as threats, surveillance, evaluation and deadlines are reflected as external consequences and not as volition, they will only undermine intrinsic motivation. When external consequences are only associated with extrinsic motivation, they should not be introduced while the action is already intrinsically motivational, seeing that with any external influence, the locus of causality would shift to the external. (Deci & Cascio, 1972; Lepper & Greene, 1975; Harackiewicz, Manderlink, & Sansone, 1984; Amabile, DeJong, & Lepper, 1976.)

In other words, motivational strategies such as rewards and threats undermine autonomy, presumably because when they appear athletes may feel like they are controlled by the rewards and threats, thus making their true desires less of the origin of their behavior. In contrast, providing athletes with chances to make uncontrolled decisions will enhance satisfaction in the need for autonomy. (deCharms, 1968). Creating situations for independent decision-making will strengthen autonomy and intrinsically motivate behavior, in turn producing self-determined activities (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

2.4.4 Intrinsic motivation and competence

Experiencing competence is necessary for both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, although, with intrinsic motivation sensing competence alone does not apply. In addition, a sense of competence also requires a sense of autonomy for motivation to be intrinsic (Ryan, 1982; Fisher, 1978). Intrinsic motivation can be enhanced by creating a sense of competence, which can be achieved for instance by giving positive feedback. It is presented that positive feedback enhances intrinsic motivation compared to no feedback, and in turn, negative feedback decreases intrinsic motivation compared to no feedback (Boggiano & Ruble, 1979; Deci, 1971; Deci & Cascio, 1972). In addition, athletes need to feel responsible and autonomous in their actions and performance, for positive feedback to have an impact on
intrinsic motivation (Fisher, 1978). Therefore, optimal situations to enhance intrinsic motivation appear to be the ones that produce satisfaction for both competence and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1980, 1985b). Circumstances that enhance both competence and autonomy are also labeled as informational situations (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

2.4.5 Intrinsic motivation and relatedness

Relatedness has occasionally been found to be less central to intrinsic motivation, when compared to the influence that autonomy and competence have on intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Still, in team sports relatedness should never be disregarded. Satisfying the need for relatedness is not only associated with intrinsic but also to extrinsic motivation. Therefore, as mentioned before, extrinsic motivation is divided into four different degrees in which the internalization of extrinsic motivation is transferred. These degrees concern the type of regulation that affects the behavior and relationship between the external irritant (i.e. coach) and the athletes. With fully integrated external motivation and intrinsic motivation, athletes will identify the importance of social regulations and assimilate them into their sense of self. In doing so, athletes will become socially more integrated (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Biological, environmental, social and psychological variables all affect athletes’ engagement with sport (Biddle & Mutrie, 2001). Even if athletes engage in intrinsically motivated behaviors and are isolated, social relations with others will remain more distant. For example, if during the independent training period of summer, athletes are in isolation from other members of the team, they will still have a relational base that appears as a distant support for intrinsic motivation. (Ryan & Deci, 2000.)
2.5 Type of Regulation

Forms of regulation change with the type of motivation, but the changes are most central with extrinsic motivation. As noted before, different degrees of external motivation are formulated around the concept of internalizing extrinsic motivation. With the internalization of extrinsic motivation, the type of regulation represents how far the integrative process of extrinsic motivation is, how has it united with the self of the athletes and how the action is regulated. Consequently, the type of regulation also illustrates the variation in the degree to which the behavior is controlled as opposed to self-determined. The four degrees of internalized extrinsic motivation are external, introjected, identified and integrated regulations (Deci & Ryan, 2000.)

The self is an important concept in regulation. An inherent tendency for activity, the integrative process and fundamental needs are aspects of the athlete’s nascent self. The self is elaborated through the integrative process, thus altering the type of regulation. Through the integrative process, extrinsic motivation, emotional regulations and cultural values can become a part of the self. When extrinsic motivation is fully integrated into the self, behavior will begin to have independent tendencies. Therefore, fully integrated external motivation and intrinsic motivation can both create self-determined actions. Still, all degrees of the integrative process can alter the type of regulation, thus affecting the vitality of behavior and relation between the athletes and the coach (Deci & Ryan, 2000, 248).

2.5.1 External regulation

External regulation appears with controlled tasks, in which the athletes’ behavior is externally forced. If the athletes are only behaving to attain outcomes such as instrumental rewards or to avoid a punishment, the athletes will be extrinsically motivated, and their behavior is regulated externally (Deci & Ryan, 2000, 236; Hagger and Chatzisarantis, 2007). External regulation is considered to have poor persistence and seen to reduce the athletes’ fullest potential (Deci & Ryan, 1985b).
Behaviors that are led by external regulations are found to undermine intrinsic motivation, in several studies (Deci et al., 1999a).

2.5.2 Introjected regulation

Introjected regulation is a step closer from external regulation to internal regulation. Introjection represents a situation where the athletes have partially internalized the behavior, but the behavior is still not a part of an integrated set of motivations nor affects the self. In this case, the athletes are trying to attain externally referenced approval or in contrast trying to avoid external disapproval (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2007). Introjected regulation, that is still relatively external to the self and only partially internalized, remains unstable and unpredictable to maintain. Nonetheless, introjected regulations are more likely to be maintained over time than external regulations (Koestner, Losier, Vallerand, & Carducci, 1996). Furthermore, since introjected regulations are not assimilated into the self, behavior is not yet self-determined (Deci & Ryan, 2000, 236).

2.5.3 Identified regulation

Identification is a process in which the athletes truly understand the outcome values of the behavior and accepts the outcome objective as something that they personally want to accomplish. When the value of the behavior is identified, athletes will internalize the regulation of the behavior better, thus will accept it more as their own. For instance, in a situation where the athletes truly recognize the need for endurance training to be less exhausted after performance the athletes are more willing to train it. In this case, internalization is fuller than with introjection and the behavior becomes a closer part of the athletes’ identity, which results in the behavior being more autonomous, but extrinsically motivated, seeing that the outcome is instrumental (e.g. being in better shape). In fully internalized behavior, endurance training would be undertaken spontaneously, because it satisfied psychological needs and is a source of enjoyment. Identified regulation is expected to be maintained longer and to create higher commitment and performance in the
athletes, since the self endorses it (Deci & Ryan, 2000, 236; Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2007).

2.5.4 Integrated regulation

Integrated regulation is the most comprehensively internalized extrinsic motivation. It involves identifying the importance of the activity and the integration of those identifications to other dimensions of the self. When integrated regulation works as the locus of causality, the athletes have fully accepted the activity and relate it to their own personal values and identity (Pelletier, Tuson, & Haddad, 1997; Ryan, 1995). Thus, what was originally external regulation is now fully converted into self-regulation, which results in self-determined extrinsic motivation by satisfying all three psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000, 236; Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2007).

2.6 Locus of Causality

Locus of causality describes the perceived feeling in the causal connection of what led to the action and behavior. With non-self-determined and amotivated situations the perceived locus of causality is impersonal, since there might not be any action at all. With extrinsic motivation where the regulation type is either external or introjected, the causality is perceived as external or somewhat external. When the external motivation shifts towards more fully internalized extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation, the perceived locus of causality adapts, becoming more internal in stages.
Figure 1. The self-determination continuum retells the different stages within the internalization of extrinsic motivations according to Ryan & Deci (2000) and Hagger & Chatzisarantis (2007).
3 ENHANCING ATHLETES’ SELF-DETERMINATION THROUGH COACHING

3.1 Obstacles to enhancing athletes’ self-determination

In the ice hockey context, one of the major obstacles when aiming to enhance athletes’ self-determination could occur due to changes in the coaching approach. Generally, with the past generation the typical coaching style in ice hockey has been strongly authoritarian and coach-centred. It might be difficult for the coach and the athletes to adjust to an approach in which the coach’s control and power is evidently decreasing. However, as mentioned, in some cases the disempowering form of coach control can be the reason why athletes participate in sports, which favor the persistence of some controlled activities. Balancing these two approaches and finding the proportionate ways to influence the athletes is the main obstacle when trying to implement self-determinate events successfully. Athletes who have never experienced anything else other than control and command might find it difficult to begin taking leadership. Therefore, radical changes in coaching style may appear as uncertainty, thus creating confusion and resisting among the athletes. Athletes often even rely on the coach to be responsible for everything. Therefore, beginning to implement changes that favor self-determination need to be done by degrees.

3.2 Benefits of self-determined athletes

More self-determined athletes and less controlled approach is clearly beneficial, given that athletes need to be self-sufficient and capable of decision making in their performance on ice. Both in the short-term and long-term, making choices is essential for athletic growth, in terms of becoming independent and undergoing positive behavioral changes in one’s maturity. Through enhancing self-determination, athletes begin to comprehend and identify the values of certain actions and
begin to use the best of their abilities due to increased motivation and start executing training more efficiently. Athletes who are able, eager and allowed to train individually, are likely to experience autonomy and competence along with being intrinsically more motivated towards the training. Meanwhile, this also permits more time for the coach to focus on the athletes who need more guidance and support. When the coach leads training sessions by teaching and guiding rather than controlling, the training could be more individualized and sufficient for everyone, this would support autonomy, create greater relatedness between the coach and the athletes and reinforce the athletes’ sense of competence. When autonomy is enhanced frequently enough, the athletes will begin to act autonomously, which can create more positive attitudes towards training, more intentions to continue training, stronger exercise related self-esteem and consequently, lead to improvements in physical condition (Wilson & Rodgers, 2004). Altogether, supporting the satisfaction of the three psychological needs will create intrinsically motivated behavior and the deeper integration of extrinsic motivations, consequently generating more self-determine athletes with improvements in the level of their performance, and general well-being. (Deci & Ryan 2000).

For example, if athletes are provided with a chance to make decisions over the training more suitably for themselves it could increase athletes’ commitment towards the exercise, make the exercise more effective and even increase the amount of training time. Since, when something is chosen and not given, the athletes could be intrinsically more motivated to train due basic needs satisfaction. When the athletes are permitted to make independent decisions, the results can be very beneficial, but the rules for making those decisions need to be clear and agreed by both the coach and the athletes, to avoid unwanted outcomes.
3.3 Coach-centred coaching

In the coach-centred approach, the coach has a precise and relentless control over the athletes and their actions. All the decisions concerning the team are made alone by the coach. The center of attention is the coach, and the coach uses authority and power only to achieve personal goals and desires that often focus on the outcome (i.e. winning), rather than on the development process of the athletes or other separate successful performances. Whether it happens consciously or unconsciously, the coach considers the athletes secondarily (Kidman, Thorpe & Hadfield 2005, 13-14).

In an environment where the culture of winning is high, the pressure of the coach might lead to situations where autonomy and decision-making are taken away from the athletes, to ensure victory. When the coach exploits too much authority, it can result in increased pressure on the athletes, create fear of failure, lower intrinsic motivation and force the player towards robotic actions and decisions on ice, consequently decreasing creativity and individual development. In addition, when athletes are not offered opportunities for decision making but are forced and commanded to carry out actions, they are likely to feel that their awareness and knowledge is being inhibited. When awareness and knowledge is inhibited, the learning process relies more on memorizing rather than truly understanding. In coach-coaching athletes are not empowered nor do they have a feeling of contributing to or being an active part of learning (Kidman, Thorpe & Hadfield 2005, 13-14).
The chart below presents characteristics of coach-centred coaching and the type of behavior that the coaching approach stimulates in the athletes.

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<th>Approach characteristics</th>
<th>Athletes’ behavior</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Focus is on the team and not on individuals</td>
<td>• Obeys coach without doubt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• “winning at all costs” attitude</td>
<td>• Allows coach to set all goals and objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Environment of dependency</td>
<td>• Are insecure to interact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Coach controls everything</td>
<td>• Feel lack of respect or trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Coach makes all the decisions</td>
<td>• Become easily frustrated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• More informing than interacting</td>
<td>• Have decreasing enthusiasm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Rhetorical questioning</td>
<td>• Act stubborn and with disrespectful attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Fear of failure</td>
<td>• Act defensive when challenged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Threats and punishment are used</td>
<td>• Play “robotically”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Mistakes are criticized</td>
<td>• Lack the competence to make decisions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4 Athlete-centred coaching

The athlete-centred coaching style includes broad activity and ownership by the athletes. The aims and objectives as well as the direction of development and goals are determined in cooperation between the coach and the athletes. Encouraging athletes to take ownership and responsibility over their own actions will more likely increase intrinsic motivation than outside set objectives, empowering the athletes and more likely leading to better performance. From the athletes’ perspective, competing to win is often more important than winning itself, therefore the meaning of success is not always winning (Kidman, Thorpe & Hadfield 2005, 14; Kidman 2005, 38).
Athlete-centred coaching consists of eight different characteristics:

1. Mutual respect in the whole team environment, including athletes, coaches, and other members.

2. The coach understands that the sport is not the whole of the athletes' life.

3. Approaching athletes as people and developing them by offering support to their physical, psychological and social growth.

4. Athletes are informed participants in the teams' program design and policy development and are striven to be empowered through the style of training and goal-setting.

5. The rights and responsibilities of the athletes and coaches are clearly defined, agreed and followed.

6. Training aims to develop the athletes' leadership, teamwork and decision-making skills.

7. Athletes' self-knowledge, self-esteem, and moral integrity are enhanced.

8. The coach-athlete relationship is based on a partnership rather than on inequality.

(Clarke, Smith, & Thibault 1994; Kidman 2005, 38; Miller & Kerr 2002, 140-153)

When these eight characteristics occur, the approach strongly endorses athlete-centred values. In athlete-centred coaching, the aims and objectives focus more on individual development, performance, learning and growth, rather than winning. Therefore, in an athlete-centred environment the atmosphere is created by ensuring continuous athlete growth in every exercise and game (Mitchell, 2013). Reforming the atmosphere of the environment requires alignments from the coach, starting by giving athletes authority, choices and control through training and games. Given that self-sufficiency is essential in their performance on ice, giving authority and control to the athletes is expected to have impacts on the athletes’ mindset towards more creative decisions on ice, by also reinforcing athletes’ self-
awareness, increasing intrinsic motivation and endowing them with a deeper understanding and retention of tactics and skills. Through athlete-centred coaching, athletes will be empowered, and they will start contributing to their own learning, while the coach can concentrate on supporting athletes to make informed decisions and facilitating their learning, rather than controlling it. Overall, athlete-centred coaching emphasizes individual growth and change and creates self-aware and self-determined individuals (Kidman, Thorpe & Hadfield 2005, 17). On the other hand, obstacles occur through athletes’ behavior since they may have not experienced situations where they must assume leadership over their actions and decisions. Sudden changes in leadership might create confusion and unwanted pressure for the athletes, and for that reason new approaches and leadership should be implemented in stages. Before implementing the changes, the coach needs to explain what the upcoming changes are and how will they benefit the athletes. When able to expect changes and understand the reasons behind them, the athlete will be more receptive, and implementation will be easier. As mentioned, enhancing self-determination requires retreating from total control. Therefore, the coach should understand the values of athlete-centred coaching and avoid the characteristics of coach-centred coaching. (Kidman & Davis 2006).
The table below presents the characteristics of athlete-centred coaching and the type of behavior that the coaching approach stimulates in the athletes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approach characteristics</th>
<th>Athletes’ behavior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Safe and reinforcing environment</td>
<td>• Mutual trust and respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Respectful interaction</td>
<td>• Feel important due to coach’s actions (e.g. listening, empathy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reinforces healthy values and morals</td>
<td>• Are more receptive to coaching due to freedom and choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Values every athlete’s contributions equally</td>
<td>• Contribute to their own learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Accepts athletes as individuals</td>
<td>• Understand their own responsibility in athletic growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Grows athlete’s responsibility and accountability</td>
<td>• Set individual goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• All-encompassing support to athletes</td>
<td>• Have intrinsic goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Has team and individual goals</td>
<td>• Enjoy their sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Has various types of goals</td>
<td>• Are enthusiastic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Encourages athletes in problem solving and critical thinking</td>
<td>• Are accountable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Constructive feedback</td>
<td>• Engage fully in what they believe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Information about team related matters</td>
<td>• Are committed to achieving excellence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Coach encourages athletes to seek knowledge and ask questions</td>
<td>• Are self-efficacy and due increased competence are able to control their actions by skills and effort</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.5 Autonomy support

Fulfilling phycological needs as a coach requires consideration of how to approach situations, especially with the need for autonomy. To endow athletes with a sense of autonomy, coach must retreat from total control and coercive possession and begin generating trust towards the athletes. In addition, the coach should be supportive of autonomous self-regulation, since the social environment strongly impacts athletes’ capacity to act autonomously (Williams, 1996). At best, the coach’s autonomy support can lead to increased satisfaction of competence and relatedness, along with autonomy. On the other hand, total autonomy in the social context of team sports is unwanted, since athletes often expect coaches to manage the overall concept and have authority over the actions. Therefore, on some occasions the disempowering form of coaches’ control can be the reason why some athletes participate in sport (Kidman, Thorpe & Hadfield 2005, 13-14; Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2007.) Although, especially for juveniles, taking ownership over the training session can be unwanted pressure. (UK Coaching, 2017.)

Supporting the need for autonomy can be enhanced, for example in the team’s goal setting. If the athletes are involved in setting goals, they will experience freewill and autonomy. Thus, throughout the season the athletes are expected to experience higher intrinsic motivation to achieve their self-set goals. In situations where athletes hesitate or are unable to make rational decisions, the coach should support the athletes and act as an information source by encouraging them to make informed decisions and become self-aware.

3.6 Competence support

The sense of competence is not only related to athletes’ skills and previous success, but also to the social environment. Therefore, creating a sense of competence for the athletes requires detailed consideration from the coach on how to approach success and failure appropriately, as well as, how to give feedback appropriately. When the coach provides positive feedback, the sense of competence can be enhanced, and motivation increased. Conversely, if the coach provides
negative feedback continuously, the sense of competence will diminish, and the athletes are likely to be discouraged and disengaged from the action in hand. Therefore, the coach needs to identify the quality and diction of the given feedback, as well as considering the purpose of the feedback. For instance, if during a post-game video meeting the athletes are only shown failures and mistakes, which led for instance to the loss of possession of the puck or a goal-against, the athletes are not likely to sense competence as a result of those actions, even if the mistakes are presented as understandable points of improvement.

3.7 Relatedness support

A sense of belonging and connection to others is essential for athletes’ integrity and well-being. Relatedness denotes the sense of being included and cared for in social situations of the team. In addition, relatedness with the coach is important since athletes often value interaction with the coach. When interacting with the athletes, it is important for the coach to pay attention to all individuals and not only the “upfront” type of athletes and attempt to notice and give feedback to every member of the team, to create relatedness between with each of the athletes. For instance, if some athletes are often left without feedback, they might begin to feel unnoted, uncared for or even unwanted in the team or by the coach, which also appears as a lack of relatedness and can lead to decreased motivation, sense of competence and vitality. A favorable situation to enhance relatedness between the coach and the athletes can be a coach-athlete meeting, which can concurrently be used for goal-setting.

3.8 When needs are not satisfied

If psychological needs are consistently depreciated, the situation can begin to have costs on the health and well-being of the athletes. If the social climate of the team environment does not provide any reliable ways to allow fulfillment of the needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness SDT predicts significant negative conse-
quences. Since, in situations where athletes are controlled, punished and neglected, the autonomous regulations and the need satisfying benefits are less likely to appear. If athletes must stay in an environment that is consistently inhibiting their needs, the effects can cause inner conflict, alienation, anxiety, depression, and somatization, as well as accommodation in the form of controlling regulatory processes and compensatory goals.

For example, an environment in which the athletes are forced to act only how the coach desires, to gain approval by the coach, the motivational strategy of contingent approval would create a situation in which the social climate is essentially placing the need of relatedness against the need of autonomy. The athletes would now be in the uncomfortable position of being controlled and being forced to renounce autonomy. Behaving to gain approval from the coach notes external regulation, and as mentioned before, external regulation has less beneficial consequences relative to the more autonomous regulation of behavior.

In situations where needs cannot be satisfied, athletes’ inherent tendency toward the activity may lead to protective responses. Accordingly, athletes develop substitute motives, nonautonomous regulatory styles, and rigid behavior, to preserve as much satisfaction as possible in non-supportive situations. These compensatory processes are expected to result as defensive behavior, in goal processes and in situations in which the performance is less than optimal. Failure to satisfy the needs are also associated with deficiency in well-being and development of need substitutes (Deci & Ryan 2000, 249).

3.9 Individual goal-setting

Goal-setting implies choosing a desired level of proficiency to be attained, usually in limited time (Taylor & Wilson, 2005). Goal-setting is used in many different contexts, such as sports and working life, to increase motivation and achieve a desired behavior. Goal-setting can have a pivotal role in the consistency of behavioral change and success. Often, even without achieving goals, the process of pursuing goals has a significant impact on development and change. In ice hockey, the
goals are often set with a focus on either outcome, performance or process (Burton, Naylor & Holliday 2001; Hardy et al. 1996 in Weinberg & Gould 2014, 745).

Outcome focused goals are typically set according to the results of a game or performance (e.g. winning, losing). Outcome focused goals for individuals can mean for example scoring points. However, often in competitive situations, several variables influence the outcome, such as the level and performance of the opponent. Supposing even if one athlete played the best hockey game ever, and the team lost the game nevertheless, the outcome would be perceived as a failure, since the goal was to win the game (Weinberg & Gould 2014, 745).

Performance focused goals are typically aimed at achieving standards or reaching the performance level of a competitor, however this can provide the competitor with more control and flexibility over the outcome (Weinberg & Gould 2014, 745-746). Performance goals should always focus on personal improvement, rather than comparison. For example, skating around the rink in a certain time is a performance goal.

Process goals focus on specific actions needed to improve performance. For example, in power play, the offensive defenseman’s “goal” can be to shoot the puck towards the goal, to create rebounds. Each one of the three separate goal types have an important impact on behavioral change, therefore combining all three goal strategies produce better results than an emphasis a single goal. Therefore, it is recommended that outcome, performance, and process goals be set. (Burton et al. 2001; Filby, Maynard and Graydon, 1999). When setting any of the goal types, the plan of reaching the goal, desired outcome of the goal and ways to measure the goal need to be identified and agreed by both the athlete and the coach.

The goal-setting process should enhance a sense of autonomy, competence and relatedness, to attain self-determined behavioral outcomes from the athlete. In the goal-setting process, a sense of autonomy can be reinforced by including the athlete in goal-setting together with the coach, or in ideal situations, the athlete sets the goals individually. A sense of competence can be gained through the improvements that are noted, either by the coach or the athlete itself. Relatedness can
also be strengthened by the feedback or for instance, if athletes are grouped together with other athletes with similar goals. When athletes’ goal-directed behavior is regulated autonomously, rather than externally, the consequences will likely result as improvements in the vitality of behavior, maintenance of behavioral change and general well-being. Therefore, autonomous regulations of goal pursuits are clearly found to be more beneficial than controlled regulation of goal pursuits, since they allow a fuller need satisfaction on all three psychological needs. (Deci & Ryan 2000, 247).

Five major principles to consider with individual goal setting:

1. Clarity

Clarified goals are easier to measure, as they are practical and direct action more effectively and reliably than vague and general goals. When the goal is specific and there is a limited time for achieving it, it is easier for the athlete to understand what type of behavior is expected. Both the player and the coach must accept goals, to create effective behavior.

2. Challenge

Goals need to be challenging enough, difficult and challenging goals produce better performance than moderate and easy goals. Generally, higher goals produce higher performance and low goals produce lower performance (Locke & Latham 1985). Furthermore, if the goal is distinctly too challenging for the athlete it may lower the feeling of competence and create anxiety, therefore, it is useful to assimilate the challenges in to the flow chart (Figure. 2). Athletes are usually proud of their accomplishment and they measure challenges by, if achieving them creates happiness. Setting realistic and challenging goals is a key factor, when desiring a certain behavior from the athlete.

3. Task complexity

Complex tasks can disturb the performance and create anxiety. If the tasks or goals are too complex or difficult, and the learning process is in its early
stages, it is important to adjourn the time limit and explain the goals to the athlete.

4. Commitment

Athletes are more likely to be committed to training, if they take part in the goal setting and truly agree and identify the utilities of achieving the goal. The athletes’ level of goal commitment can be correlated to how valuable and desired the goal is for oneself. To support goal commitment, a plan of action or strategy on attaining the goals, should be made. Short-term goals can be set, as a mean to attain long-term goals or to renew lost goal commitment. In addition, it is noted that competition can affect performance by raising goal levels, rather than by increasing goal commitment.

5. Feedback

The act of measuring performance and giving feedback itself can often lead to spontaneous goal-setting when there is no formal goal-setting program. With goals set by using a program, it is best to have timely feedback to identify progress in relation to the goal. Feedback offers an opportunity to examine if the athlete has improved and if the athlete has reached the goal. Performance must be measured before giving the feedback. (Locke & Latham 1985, 206-209; Bandura 1991, 251; Robbins 2000, 166 -167; Ruohotie 1998, 55 - 57)

3.10 Flow theory

Flow theory describes experiences in the mental state of flow (i.e. flow-zone). Experiencing flow occurs when the athletes’ action capabilities (i.e. level of skill) and action opportunities (i.e. confronted challenge) are at their highest and somewhat equal. This will create an opportunity for the athletes to profoundly focus and absorb the action and challenge. Consequently, this can lead to loss of concentration to non-relevant external irritants, and even to distortion with the sense of time, when entering the stage of flow. If the skill and challenges are not equally met,
athletes will likely experience either boredom or anxiety. If the action opportunity is excessively high and the athletes’ action capabilities are low, athletes are likely to feel unsatisfied and anxious during performance. In contrast, if the action opportunity is too low, compared to the athletes’ action capabilities, athletes may begin to experience relaxation and boredom. Neither of the previous two situations is supportive for optimal learning or development. In addition, inside the flow zone, experiences may vary as in the low corner of the flow zone athletes may feel apathy and in the top corner athletes may feel ecstasy, even though, in both situations the action challenge and action capability are equal, but the level at which they meet is different (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

The creator of flow theory Csikszentmihalyi states that “the best moments in our lives are not the passive, receptive, relaxing times. The best moments usually occur if a person’s body or mind is stretched to its limits in a voluntary effort to accomplish something difficult and worthwhile.” In the ice hockey context, optimal situations to experience flow are commonly during games.

Figure. 2 visualizes the impact of action opportunities and action capabilities on the athletes’ mental state.
There are a variety of experiences when entering the flow zone. The eight most recognized stages in flow, are combined and modified from Csikszentmihalyi (1990) and Flowskills (2017), below.

1. Complete concentration
2. Clarity of goals and immediate feedback
3. Transformation of time
4. The experience is intrinsically rewarding
5. Effortlessness and ease
6. Balance between challenge and skills
7. Actions and awareness are merged
8. Feeling of control

Complete concentration on one task will allow the athletes to delve deeply into the activity. Since in daily life, there can often be contradictory demands, for example between home and ice hockey, that may cause confusion and dissatisfaction when trying to concentrate on the task.

With each task the clarity of goals and immediate feedback are important. Fortunately, in ice hockey, the rules are clear, and the athletes know exactly what is required to win a game. Therefore, all the successful and unsuccessful actions on the ice are perceived immediately.

Time transformation in flow is either condensed or expanded. The normal perception of time is lost, and time seems to speed up – hours can feel like tens of minutes, or time seems to slow down – seconds feel like minutes.

When the experience is intrinsically rewarding, the activity is fulfilling and enjoyable itself, without external goals or rewards. For example, playing can be enjoyable for social reasons not only according to athletic priorities.
Effortlessness and ease describe the sense of relaxation and ease in flow; everything seems to work effortlessly and automatically. The athletes’ performance on ice may seem strenuous for the coach or the audience, yet the athletes in flow may not feel any physical exhaustion. Playing and decisions on ice arise spontaneously and without hesitation. This is inner logic at its best, or in sport terms – “game sense”.

When there is a balance between challenge and skills, the skill level of the athletes and the confronted challenge are harmonious. A too easy task will create boredom and routine and a too challenging one will likely create frustration and anxiety.

When actions and awareness are merged, the athletes will not experience pressure, fear or self-conscious rumination but a sense of competence. Involvement in actions and awareness can also lead to a sense of unity that expands from one athlete to the whole team (i.e. team flow).

Control in flow is not compulsively dominated behavior nor nervously made up attention. Rather, control in flow is a feeling of safety and relaxation. Also quoted as ‘control without controlling’ (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Flowskills, 2017).

3.11 Empowered athletes

Empowerment is authority or power given to someone to reinforce their integrity, bravery and self-awareness. Empowering athletes is based on the idea of providing athletes with motivation, self-examination, and opportunities, as well as, committing them to be accountable. This will contribute to their self-awareness and satisfaction with the sense of competence. By having athlete-centred approach to coaching and offering opportunities for self-determinate actions in the sport environment will at best generate highly empowered athletes. For productive empowering, coach needs to identify the stages of the process that athletes go through before becoming empowered. Coaches also need to comprehend the priority and role that they have in the process, even if the role would be more passive, coaches are equally definitive variable to the outcome as the athletes.
The stages in the process of becoming empowered are:

2. Connecting and learning.
3. Taking action.
4. Contributing to their own learning.


In the first stage, becoming self-aware, a coach is helping to raise the level of self-awareness among individual athletes. Athletes should first start assessing themselves and by that increasing their own self-awareness. For the athletes, it is important to realize how important the sport is for them and how committed do they feel. Being self-aware makes athletes understand their behavior and performance, as well as, makes them identify the reasons behind certain reactions in different situations. A coach should ask meaningful questions to lead athletes towards self-deliberation. For example, “What things do you enjoy in ice hockey?”.

In stage two, connecting and learning, a coach clarifies what are the athletes’ own role and responsibilities in the learning process. Athletes should understand being the one who determines the learning, and that the coach’s role is to support and guide the learning, by working as an information source for athletes, for them to begin expanding on their choices and opportunities.

In stage three, taking action, coach needs to offer opportunities for the athletes to take action in the empowering process and make athletes apply the new information about themselves and learning that they have gained. Athletes start to engage in new activities and begin to make decision independently through expressing their own ideas. Athletes’ interaction increases, they ask questions, they answer questions, they participate with awareness of their own performance and act in an empowered manner. Now, athletes begin to become part of the learning process and the coach’s role is to encourage and support the athletes’ ideas and sense of self-expression.
In stage four, contributing to their own learning, athletes are processing their own thinking and gaining an understanding that enhances their ability to solve problems and make decisions. They contribute to the vision and goals of the team and of themselves. The coach’s role here is to encourage the personal growth of individuals. (Kidman 2005, 24.)

In summary, empowered athletes:

- Set their own goals and have an intrinsic desire to reach them.
- Enjoy their sport.
- Show enthusiasm.
- Develop self-efficacy and confidence in their ability.
- Understand that they contribute to and take responsibility for their learning and direction.
- Are accountable for their actions.

3.12 Self-determination supportive coach

As a conclusion from all the sections under the heading enhancing athletes’ self-determination, coaches who desire to develop self-determined athletes, need to begin examining and evaluating their own coaching. Being able to identify different causal connections in approaches applied in coaching, is an advantageous ability for a coach. At first, athlete-centred coaching values and procedures should be understood, cherished and used in the coaching environment. Secondly, athletes should always be considered as individual people and appreciated as persons and not only as athletes. Their psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness should be promoted and a consistent ambiance of approval and well-being implemented. A self-determination-enhancive coach is also a patient and open leader who provides explanations for his/her own actions, bases the athlete-coach relationship on mutual trust and respect, avoids using external pushing factors such as threats and punishments, supports athletes’ mental growth and strives to empower athletes.
4 PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

The manual which is the product of this product development process follows the product development model of the Social and Healthcare field. Social and Healthcare products often have differentiating features compared to other fields of product development. Perhaps the most common product in the Social and Healthcare field is informational, and the objective of such information is to improve clients’ health, wellness and control of life. Informational products always consist of interaction between the receiver and the sender. This is how the effectiveness of the product is ensured (Jämsä & Manninen, 2000).

Objectives for the product development process vary individually in each project, depending on whether the decision about making a product is made in the early stages of the project and the features of the product are clear. On the other hand, if the project requires considerable research and problem solving, the product development does not start until the topic background has been examined. In both cases five stages can be identified in the product development process: identifying problems and demand for development, idea stage, drafting, product elaboration and finalizing the product (Jämsä & Manninen, 2000). The first stage is identifying a precise problem or some specific demand for development. Idea generation consists of a closer assessment of the product. The drafting stage will be used for outlining the product. Product elaboration examines more closely the factors and views that affect the planning and producing of the product. The last phase consists of finalizing the product and testing it (Jämsä & Manninen, 2000). The theory for the manual is created by adapting self-determination theory to the ice hockey context. The product development process of the manual follows the five stages that are mentioned above.
4.1 Kärpät Oulu Youth organization

Kärpät Oulu is an ice hockey club located in Northern Finland, in the city of Oulu. The practical part of this thesis project was executed together with the youth organization of Kärpät Oulu and the specific test group for the project was the U17 team. The manual, which is the end-product of this project was tailored to meet the needs of the Kärpät Oulu youth organization. Below is presented the strategic objectives of Kärpät Oulu towards their vision.

The basic values of the Kärpät Oulu youth organization are sportsmanship, communality, fairness, accountability, respect and openness. The same values are honored in coaching that is performed within the organization. One of the strategi-
38

cal aims of the organization is a comprehensive development of coaching and enabling an opportunity for youth to become elite-athletes. In addition, the educative objectives for the youth teams are to offer everybody a sense of accomplishment, create a positive climate, develop independence and self-image, develop social skills and the ability to cooperate. Altogether, Kärpät Oulu aims to support the overall growth of youth by nurturing active, thoughtful and responsible citizens, as well as by ensuring an opportunity for youth to strive for national and international excellence in ice-hockey.

This thesis project began quickly after the author presented the idea of a coaching development project to Kärpät Oulu, covering the subject of enhancing athletes’ self-determination through coaching. Kärpät Oulu felt that the topic of this thesis would contribute to their overall objectives on the development of coaching in their organization.

4.2 Identifying problems and demand for development

In approaches that include problem solving, the objectives are usually set based on improving an existing product, further development of a product or creating a new product. In this case, the objective is to create a new product. Although the manual is not intended to replace any other coaching manual nor is it created to be in absolute opposition to any other manual, its objective is to offer a source of information for enhancing athletes’ self-determination that can be used by individual coaches to develop their personal coaching approaches. When identifying problems and areas demanding development, it is relevant to investigate the magnitude of the problem, who the problem concerns and how frequent the problem is (Jämsä & Manninen, 2000.) Opinions concerning problems and development demands are not often agreed but vary between organizations, coaches, athletes and others, therefore this manual is created as a response to Kärpät Oulu opinions on how self-determination should be improved in their organization. Foremost, Kärpät Oulu identified that athletes’ self-determination is becoming a growing asset in overall athlete development in other fields of sport and noted that having more self-determined athletes is something that ice-hockey and their organization
lacks. Therefore, Kärpät Oulu addressed enhancing athletes’ self-determination specifically through coaching, since it is a function the organization is interested in developing as a part of continuous development.

4.3 Idea analysis

Idea analysis process began after the development issue and demand had been identified. The intention of the idea analysis process is to discover possible solutions to the identified problems. This process might be short, if the product development process concentrates on reforming or updating an already existing product. Idealizing can be executed with many different approaches, such as meetings, brainstorming, workshop, benchmarking, and idea bank, among others. These approaches are aiming to find various solutions to the precise problem at hand. Not until all the optional solutions have been presented, can the analysis decide which of the presented solutions is the most reliable and offers the fastest results (Jämsä & Manninen 2000, 35, 85.) During the theory writing process, it was determined that the product would be a manual. It was agreed with the commissioning party that the most efficient way to begin implementing changes to coaching approaches in their organizations, would be a manual that provides coaches with information on how to enhance athletes’ self-determination.

4.4 Drafting

The product development drafting stage began after the decision to create a certain type of product, in this case the manual, had been made. For drafting, it is essential to define all the factors and standpoints that affect the planning and creation of the product, since when the demands of each party are considered and combined into a functional unit, the product quality is ensured. The drafting process consists of collecting the theory base, identifying who primarily benefits from the product and setting objectives for the product. Based on a consideration of these matters, the script of the product is made (Jämsä & Manninen, 2000.)
The product development process started with the drafting stage when the theory for the manual had already been collected. In addition, it was determined in a workshop meeting that the primary focus was to improve the coaches’ knowledge of how to consider the athletes’ self-determination issues in coaching. In other words, the coaches benefit primarily from the product and improvements in the athletes self-determined actions are the secondary aim. Therefore, the objective of this product is to develop coaching.

4.5 Product elaboration

After all the possible standpoints, principles and limitations of the product have been considered and solutions selected, product elaboration may begin. Product elaboration follows the decisions that are made in the earlier stages and creates a synthesis of these decisions. When the central feature of the product is information, a structure is created using theory and other subject matters. The main content of the product consists of the fundamental matters of the topic and needs to be presented in a precise, perceivable way and include only the necessary information that the receiver may need. A common problem with informational products, is selecting the most necessary information, limiting the quantity of the information and preparing for the possibility of the information being replaced or expiring. In addition, the receivers may differ, and thus the information must suit all readers.

Wiio (1984) explains that the communication parties are the sender, who has the need and ability to send information, and the receiver, who has the need and ability to receive information. However, the need and abilities of these two parties may not coincide. For example, if the information is not presented in a way that attracts the receiver, the information may not register. Furthermore, also an impractical way of presenting the information and unclear information may disturb the receiver, since only parts of the information may be registered. In such a case, the received information is unlike the transfer information, consequently, the results of the information are not as wanted. (Jämsä & Manninen 2000, 54 – 57, 85.)
A printed publication such as a manual is an ordinary way of forwarding information. The product development processes of printed publications are similar to one another, but decisions concerning the subject matters and layout are not made until actual product manufacturing. Selecting the subject matters depend on who is the receiver, what is the objective and extent of the information. Often the objective of printed publications is to forward information, thus, the text style is formal. With formal style, the information is clear and understandable for the reader. Formatting the headings and structuring the text also clarify the subject. In addition, incidental elements of the text, such as the form of address, argumentation, providing options and using denials and demands all represent the values of the sender. These incidental issues can either advance or forestall the way that the information is perceived. Another aspect of a good printed publication is the layout, in which it is important to use an appropriate font, columns, colors and pictures (Jämsä & Manninen, 2000.) In this manual, the format of the information required plenty of consideration. It was determined that an appropriate way to offer new information for coaches was to offer guidelines, suggestions, notes and observations.

4.6 Finalizing the product

When the product was ready, the product finalization began by with a review of all the stages of the product development process and considering various versions of the product. In this stage, all the details of the product are set in its final format, by the feedback that is received from product testing. As for all the stages of product development, feedback and evaluation is beneficial. However, in the stage of finalizing the product, feedback is considerably more relevant. The best ways to receive such feedback is to trial run or test the product. Testing can be executed by having the product subscriber and other customers use the product. The feedback may be relatively encouraging, since the product subscriber is often already familiar with the product and has provided personal opinions in earlier stages of the product development process, and thus might not be able to criticize the product. For this reason, feedback should be collected from users who are not familiar with the product beforehand. Testing should be arranged in authentic situations,
to receive genuine and practical feedback. Product testers are also allowed to make direct modification suggestions (Jämsä & Manninen 2000, 80 – 81, 85.)
5 RESEARCH METHODS

5.1 Research problems and objectives

In addition to qualitative and quantitative research, the thesis can also be executed using practical methods, in a university of applied sciences. Outcome from a practical thesis can be educational, informational, product or an event. Important criteria for practical thesis are an attractive and user-friendly product, which is based on distinct and reliable theory. This thesis was done by using qualitative research methods during the gathering of the theory and information, and by practical methods later during the product development process. Qualitative research gave a strong and reliable foundation for the practical delivery of the product. The qualitative research focused to a limited area of theories and sub theories, that were generally approved and acknowledged globally. Thorough analysis of the scientific literature together with a subjective approach were both used as research methods to ensure quality of the product. In qualitative researches, authors role is more lenient. This allows more flexible planning and execution of the research. In qualitative research hypothesis is not compulsory; meaning that researcher does not necessarily have certain advance assumptions of the research target or the research results (Eskola & Suoranta, 1996. 13-15; Kananen, 2015, 53-57; Flick, 1998. 2-5.)

The research problem that this thesis debated was the quintessential issue of the over emphasized use of extrinsic motivation in coaching and its insufficient optimal athlete development. This thesis was seeking answers to the questions of how can coaching be changed to favor self-determination How can coaches enhance athletes to become more self-determined? What kind of result will the changes in coaching create in the sport environment and within athletes’ development? The objective for the practical part of this thesis was to create an informative manual covering the topic of “enhancing athletes’ self-determination through coaching”, for coaches. The testing group with whom the manual was developed included a head coach, two assistant coaches, one goaltending coach and a member of the commissioning party’s office.
5.2 Process of the thesis

The thesis process began quickly after the first conversations with the commissioning party Kärpät Oulu and the topic was agreed upon. The topic and the content for the thesis was approved by the commissioning party, since they felt that enhancing athletes’ self-determination would contribute to their organizations objectives on the development of coaching and as they saw self-determination being a common issue among their youth ice-hockey players. Previous knowledge of the field of coaching also helped the author to choose a fitting topic for personal development as a coach and for the development of the field in general.

The first idea was to conduct profound research on how the matters presented in the theory would affect athletes self-determined actions or their behavior changes in general, but later it was noted that there would not be enough time for the research testing to create significant nor reliable changes to examinees behavior. In addition, both the author and the commissioning party felt that self-determination theory was proven to be reliable by other studies in the field of sport as well as many other fields. Therefore, the second idea was to create a manual for coaches about enhancing athletes’ self-determination through coaching, thus to effectively initiate changes in their organization.

The author started the research process from the collection and writing of the theory. In addition to scientific theory on psychology, the objective was also to find practical theory on how such means can be implemented to the social interactions of the coach-athlete relationship, as well as to the team environment.

One of the biggest problems was with implementing the presented means of the theory from individual sports to a team sport environment, together with adding them to the variety of other aspects that need to be considered with coaching a team. Separating the field specific reliable information from the unreliable was also an issue, as some of the information was collected from other fields. Some of the information was eliminated during the testing of the manual, as it was found not to be workable in the field of coaching. Altogether, these problems appeared as issues in the product development project – forming the correct information into a correct and functional appearance. The material for this thesis was acquired
through a thorough examination of a variety of resources such as research, articles, library books, video lectures, and other thesis projects. The meaning of the manual is to educate and present perspectives to everyone who will use the product or read this thesis.

5.3 Case Kärpät Oulu U17

Kärpät Oulu set the coaching staff of the U17 boys’ team to be the testing group for this manual. Pre-testing of the manual took place during May and June 2018, which was an off-season training period for the team. The test group included a head coach, two assistant coaches, one goaltending coach and a member of the Kärpät Oulu office, who also worked as a coach. The testing group shared a variety of age, expertise and experience, which was found to be beneficial for the development of the manual, as different perspectives appeared.

During the test period the manual was first presented to the coaching staff in a pre-test workshop meeting. In the workshop meeting the coaching staff (i.e. test group) was interviewed. The interview showed that half of the participators felt that they were already familiar with the content and for the other half the information was new. It was agreed that the length of the manual would have to be shorter and the contents would have to be narrowed down to cover only the most important and essential information. After the pre-test meeting and the first modification of the manual, the manual was tested several times during practices by each member of the coaching staff individually. The manual was tested by giving the manual to the coaches to study, and the received information was later used while coaching. The testing events were undefined, rather the coaches were free to test the manual within the occasions they felt the most suitable. During the test events, both the author and test group members made observations, which were informally narrated and discussed after each practice in a post-practice gathering. In between the random test events, formal feedback was collected three times from the test group via email, by first presenting a new version of the manual and later adjusting the change suggestions that the testers desired in their written narrations. The manual was modified repeatedly during the summer and finalized in
the post-test workshop meeting, where also the case study related user-feedback was collected. User-feedback was collected by audiotaping the workshop meeting, where a list of questions and themes were presented to the participants. The workshop meeting was chosen to be an appropriate way to collect the user-feedback for this qualitative, practical research thesis, since it was presumed that an open conversation would result in a more thoughtful user-feedback than a traditional written questionnaire. After the modifications from the post-test meeting, the final version of the manual now covers the basic concepts of the theory on self-determination, a goal-setting sheet and guidelines for coach-athlete meetings, coaching in practices and giving feedback.

The chart below presents the events of the product development process during Case Kärpät Oulu U17.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Content/Methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>Familiarizing to Kärpät Oulu organization</td>
<td>Four-week familiarization/observation period to the organization, to the U17 team and the test group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>Informing the athletes about the Case Study</td>
<td>Informing the U17 team about the case study and possible upcoming changes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>Pre-test workshop meeting</td>
<td>Workshop meeting which included a presentation of the first version of the manual, interviewing, setting organizational objectives for the case study and making the first modification to the manual.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>Collecting feedback/Testing the manual</td>
<td>New version of the manual presented and modified according to received feedback.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>Collecting feedback/Testing the manual</td>
<td>New version of the manual presented and modified according to received feedback.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>Collecting feedback/Testing the manual</td>
<td>New version of the manual presented and modified according to received feedback.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>Post-test workshop meeting</td>
<td>Final modification suggestions by the test group and the user-feedback collection.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>Meeting with Kärpät Oulu office</td>
<td>Closure meeting: Final checking and office’s approval for the manual.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6 RESULTS

The final version of the manual includes three main sections; theory on self-determination, a goal-setting sheet and practical guidelines for coach-athlete meetings, coaching in practices and giving feedback. The manual was narrowed down from 34 slides to 21 slides and now covers only the most essential information that is useful for the coach. The three sections include brief and practical contents, since one of the objectives from the commissioning party Kärpät Oulu was to receive a compact and practical manual. The final form is a result both from the specific needs of Kärpät Oulu and the systematic observation of the test group Kärpät Oulu U17 team, that lasted for two months. Identifying the problems was performed by analyzing information about general team environments and modifying it to the specifics of the Kärpät Oulu U17 team. The three premade sections were found to be important and matched the observations and analysis of the commissioning party that took place during the test period. Especially, goal-setting was a key point of improvement for the team, since the team roster was new, and the athletes were not familiar with each other, thus joint and personal objectives had not been set. In addition, the coaches personally desired new information for handling coach-athlete meetings. The drafting stage was performed by joining the coaching staff for four weeks and monitoring the athletes. This systematic observing and analyzing of the commissioning party gave a strong foundation for the manual. Creating the manual based on the team specific needs was easy, since this team was not radically different to the information that the author already had collected about general team environments and about enhancing athletes’ self-determination.

Identifying problems resulted with the observation that the team was new, the athletes did not know each other, and neither were they familiar with the new approaches that the case study was implementing. This was observed by noting that the athletes were shy to act autonomously in a new environment, around new teammates and new coaches. Therefore, it was agreed that the changes need to be implemented by smaller degrees and that the athletes need individual goal-setting, in order to begin acting autonomously. The drafting and product elabora-
tion stages continuously resulted in narrowing down the information, since members of the test group felt that it is challenging to concentrate and receive new information via too much slides, text and contents. Particularly, the reasoning parts of each slide were deleted and changed to straightforward guidelines. From the first version of the manual, a separate goal-setting headline was deleted and combined with the coach-athlete meeting headline. Finalizing the product evermore narrowed down the text and the slides, as many of the guidelines in the second version of the manual were either constricted to shorter sentences or the guidelines were combined.

Chart below presents the results of each event during the case study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Product development stage / (Event)</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>Identifying problems (Familiarization period)</td>
<td>Observation Monitoring</td>
<td>Team is new and recently put together. Team needs goal-setting tools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>Identifying problems Athletes are informed about the Case Study</td>
<td>Observation Monitoring</td>
<td>Athletes are not familiar with the approaches that the Case Study is aiming at. Changes are decided to be implemented by even smaller degrees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>Drafting (Pre-test meeting)</td>
<td>Workshop Interviewing</td>
<td>Contents of the manual are narrowed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>Product elaboration (Feedback from off-ice practices)</td>
<td>Interviewing Narration</td>
<td>Team needs tools for individual goal-setting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>Product elaboration</td>
<td>Interviewing Narration</td>
<td>Test group desires more general guidelines from the manual.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Event Description</td>
<td>Method</td>
<td>Notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>Product elaboration (Feedback from independent training period)</td>
<td>Interviewing Narration</td>
<td>Test group is satisfied with the goal-setting tool but desire clarity in the manual.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>Finalizing the product (Post-test meeting)</td>
<td>Workshop Interviewing</td>
<td>Test group is satisfied with the manual.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>Closure meeting (Finalizing the product)</td>
<td>Workshop</td>
<td>Commissioning party suggests small and after changes is satisfied with the manual.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reason for educating the coaching staff on enhancing athletes’ self-determination was to improve understanding of the needs of the athletes and theory and strategies to improve the motivation and self-determined behavior of the athletes, as well as to consequently develop the athletes as individuals and as a group. From the implementations made in coaching over the summer, any significant results or changes in the athletes are challenging to define in such a short period. However, the author believes that by implementing changes towards more self-determined training environment gained an opportunity to understand the athletes better, therefore, develop the coaching. The results from using the manual were found to be positive and beneficial by the commissioning party as well, therefore it can be used to develop coaching and to enhance athletes’ self-determination. During the product development process, it was also discovered that the ways to enhance athletes' self-determination through coaching, were not the content of the coaching, rather in the habitude of coaching those contents. If the guidelines and tools that the manual offered are continued to be implemented, it is expected that the athletes will begin to gain control over the decisions affecting their develop-
ment over time. When athletes gain opportunities to make choices and partly control the training and their own actions, the athletes will become more self-determined. The ability and the rate at which athletes become self-determined, however, varies in each athlete independently, since each athlete is different.
7 DISCUSSION

Three objectives were mentioned at the beginning of this thesis. The primary objective was to research the theory and create individualized and practical implementations for enhancing athletes' self-determination. It was also desired that this thesis would educate individual coaches and advance coaching in sport organizations. The second objective of the thesis was to produce a coach's manual covering the content of “enhancing athletes’ self-determination through coaching”. Thirdly, through advanced coaching, this thesis aimed to contribute to the production of more self-determined athletes in the future.

The first objective of researching theory and creating individualized and practical implementations for enhancing athletes’ self-determination was achieved, since a large amount of research theory from different fields, including sports, was available. The second objective concerning a successful product development process and creating a manual that would satisfy the commissioning party was also achieved. The product development and testing process showed that the methods presented in the manual can provide benefits for individual athlete development and to their self-determine behavior. However, in the author’s opinion, before applying changes to coaching approaches the coaches should first study the theory behind self-determination and structure a plan to implement it. Thus, when the chosen changes are applied correctly the desired behavioral changes within the athletes are more likely to appear. According to the manual, the study and planned implementation of the changes can be improved. The third objective to consequently through coaching, create more self-determined athletes cannot be examined, yet the future may provide evidence of it.

At the end of this thesis project, the commissioning party felt like the project was beneficial to their organization, its coaches and to athletes as individuals. However, the product testing process could have been improved. For example, a more structured plan about how the coaching was going to provide changes to the athletes to act more self-determinately during the test period, could have made the changes more visible and measurable and would have helped the coaches make even more observations. Also, the athletes' thoughts and feelings about the
changes in the coaching could have been reflected more. Even though the thoughts and feelings were discussed with individual athletes, they were not documented separately but discussed by the coaching staff in meetings.

From a more personal perspective; during this thesis project, the author learned a lot about sports psychology, motivational strategies, self-determination and subsequently has personally developed as a coach. Starting from researching the theory, the author began to critically analyze his own personal coaching approaches and philosophies. Later, with the manual, the author felt like he helped other coaches to develop and analyze their own philosophies too. It is the author’s hope that others will learn from this thesis, use the methods, information and guidelines from the manual and thus provide advanced coaching.
8 LIST OF REFERENCES


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► Self-determination continuum
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  ► Practices
  ► Giving feedback
► Bibliography
Introduction

Motivation is the origin for all of athlete’s actions, starting with participation in the sport, engaging with the exercise and striving for development and success. It is often mentioned, that athletes who are intrinsically motivated, are the ones to succeed. Which could be true, considering that intrinsic motivation is found to produce higher long-term productiveness, engagement and general vitality within actions, compared to extrinsic motivation.

These “intrinsically motivated actions” are alike self-determine behavior, meaning that the athlete is engaging with the activity out of pure interest and volition towards it, and is not forced by any external influences. Therefore, intrinsic motivation is something that can only be found by the athlete itself, thus, coaches are unable to control it. However, self-determination theory has presented a pathway through which extrinsic motivation can be adapted to produce self-determine actions, that is the internalization of extrinsic motivation.

The primary objective of this manual is to educate and develop coaches in enhancing athletes self-determination. The manual consist a theory part and practical guidelines about enhancing athletes self-determination, thus, this manual intends to provide alternative viewpoints about planning and implementing practices as well as to advance the diversity of coaching approaches. This manual is made as a part of Bachelors Thesis of sport studies.

Vocabulary

- Self-determination is a form of behavior when the athlete is able and willing to make decisions independently, train voluntarily and play spontaneously.

- Intrinsic motivation is a form of motivation that is originating from the individual itself, thus, is cannot be controlled from outside. Intrinsic motivation performs arround activities in which the action itself is rewarding and satisfying. Example of such activity is playing.

- Extrinsic motivation is a form of motivation that is controlled externally. Extrinsic motivation performs when the athlete is only acting in order to gain an external reward, objective or to avoid a punishment. In sports, the external pushing factor is commonly the coach.

- Internalization of extrinsic motivation is the gap of transformation between the extrinsic- and intrinsic motivation. It presents different stages of motivation transforming from extrinsic towards intrinsic, to meet athlete’s own personal values, wants and desires.
Coaching that enhances self-determination

- The ways to enhance athletes self-determination through coaching, are not within the contents of the coaching, rather in the habitude of coaching any contents.
- Initial objective is to nurture the three basic psychological needs and to reinforce the internalization of extrinsic motivation.
- Remember that self-determination is only one portion of the sport and of coaching.

Basic psychological needs

- Athletes have three basic psychological needs, that are the need for sense of autonomy, sense of competence and sense of relatedness. Reinforcing these three psychological needs is linked to the internalization of extrinsic motivation which consequently leads towards more self-determined forms of behavior.

  - **Sense of autonomy** describes athletes freedom on making independent decision and that the motivation is evolving from the athlete itself, and not from external factors
  - **Sense of competence** describes a feeling of being capable, skillful and managing challenges well.
  - **Sense of relatedness** is the need of being connected with people. “I care about others and others care about me”
The self-determination continuum

Practical guidelines
Coach-athlete meeting
Practices
Feedback
Coach-athlete meeting

Coach-athlete meetings are generally all the 1 on 1 meetings that coach and athletes share throughout the season. Coach-athlete meeting’s purpose is often to discuss and create impacts on athlete’s behavior, performance or development. 1 on 1 meetings are favorable situations to reinforce relatedness between the coach and the athlete, and to create a healthier and profound coach-athlete relationship.

A strong and healthy coach-athlete relationship is based on respect, trust and caring. To foster that, coach needs to show that he cares about the whole person and is personally interested in each athlete’s development and well-being. Coach-athlete meetings should focus on promoting athlete’s autonomous goals as well as to examine and rate athlete’s personal exertion and development. To have a successful coach-athlete meeting coach needs to enhance athlete’s sense of autonomy, competence and relatedness. The meetings should always aim to focus on athlete’s volition and suggestions, but produce a mutual agreement between the athlete and the coach.

The following practical guides are presenting how a coach-athlete meeting could be carried through. Meetings is divided into three stages:
1) ask & listen
2) negotiate
3) agree on goals.

1. ASK & LISTEN

Ask & Listen stage intends to create a perception that the meeting is led by the athlete. The objective is also to search for athletes actual, individual and intrinsic motives for engaging in the sport.

- Remember to pay attention to other than hockey (home, education, relationships etc.)
- Avoid asking rhetorical questions
- Avoid excessive pressure and guilt-including criticism
- Provide athlete with chances to speak as much as possible
- Encourage athlete to identify personally relevant reasons, goals and desires and to articulate their own motives for exercising, playing and development
  - “think about why do you want to play hockey and develop in it”
  - “What do you think are the most important reasons for you to train more?”
- When asking about why athlete participates in hockey, don’t accept answers such as:
  - “to win games”.
- Search what really motivates them:
  - “We can’t always win, so what keeps you motivated when we lose?”
  - “What do you enjoy in hockey, other than winning?”
- Be responsive for athletes thoughts and feelings
2. Negotiate

The negotiation stage pursues to create conversation and bring up opinions from both sides. Conversation should focus on attaining competence and not avoiding incompetence.

- Negotiate and counsel rather than command and prescribe
- Focus on athlete’s self-improvement
- Give informational feedback
- Avoid direct persuasion and argumentation
  - Avoid using word such as “should” and “must”
- Avoid social comparison and reference to external standards
- Be responsive to questions and answer to them
- Explore different options for change together with the athlete
- Offer options and ask what the athlete finds feasible
  - Offer a rationale of why athlete should agree to this option and how does it improve them according to their personal desires
  - Make references in believable and realistic fashion
  - Emphasize athlete’s personal goals when making references
  - Avoid making reference to extrinsic motives such as attractiveness, fame and financial success
  - Allow the athlete to decide what to do and how to do it

3. Agree on goals

In goal-setting it is important to note the following five sections:

- Clarity: set practical, individual and clarified goals. When the goal is specific and there is a limited time for achieving it, it is easier for the athlete to understand what type of behavior is expected.

- Challenge: goals need to be challenging enough. Still, remember to consider the relation between realism and challenge and assimilate the goals to the flow-chart.

- Complexity: if the tasks or goals are too complex or difficult, the performance may be disturbed. If athlete is facing difficulties with this, the goals should be explained, simplified or the time postponed.

- Commitment: include athlete to the goal-setting. Make a plan and a agreement about what athlete is going to do in order to achieve the goals.

- Feedback: it is best to give timely feedback to identify progress in relation to the goal. Feedback offers an opportunity to examine if the athlete has improved and if the athlete has reached the goal.
3. Agree on goals

Agree on goals stage should concentrate to athletes proposals and desires, but create a outcome and a goal that is agreed by both the coach and the athlete.

- Use the goal-setting sheet (following slide)
- Athlete leads the decision-making process
- Help the athlete make informed decisions and set realistic goals
- If goals include extrinsic motives, provide athlete with information how the goals are personally relevant
- Agree what changes athlete is going to make for attaining the goals
- Allow athletes to adjust to the commitments
  - “Let’s try this for few weeks and see how are you feeling about it”
- When facing difficulties in goal commitment nor goal achieving - refer to athletes personal values, motives and reasons
- Agree on how will they be measured
- Avoid setting prizes nor threats
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points of improvement: (underline the personally most desirable ones)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goals:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My long-term goal is:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My short-term goal is:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am going to achieve the goals by: _____ <em><strong><strong>:</strong></strong></em>__</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In order to achieve the goals, I am going to:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achieving the goals will be measured by:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Result:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Date:</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Practices

Practices that aim to enhance self-determination does not differ by the content, rather the emphasis is on the habit of planning and implementing the contents. Using individual learning methods, fostering the basic psychological needs and supporting the internalization of extrinsic motivation and existing intrinsic motivation are all important means to consider when desiring to enhance athletes self-determination in practices.

1. Planning practices
2. Before practices
3. During practices

Planning practices

- Include athletes to decision-making on how practices are structured
  - Hear what type of activities the athletes would like to do
  - Let athletes propose drills that they want to practice
- Try to design exercises that optimally challenge athletes current skills and abilities
- Design both optimal and suboptimal drills
- Ensure that athletes develop a sense of competence from the activities
- Use different learning methods
  - Group (equal goals or ability levels)
  - Pair
  - Individual
- Remember to change and variate the practices
- Avoid setting several goals to one drill
- Offer variety of exercises with reason to do them and with information on how will they improve athletes performance
- Allow athletes to participate in new forms of training outside of the team
Before practice

- Offer alternative exercises:
  - Explain the benefits and objectives of each exercise
  - Explain what type of skills are required in the exercises and what skills does it improve
  - Make a reference to personal goals
  - Highlight immediate personal benefits of training
  - Ask athletes to discuss to which exercise will help them the most
  - Let athletes freely choose what suits for them
- When athletes cannot be provided with optional exercises:
  - Use language that conveys choice rather than control
  - Offer a rationale of why athlete should participate on this exercise
  - explain how does the exercise improve them according to their personal goals
  - Acknowledge that some of the exercises are unpleasant, difficult and require effort

During practices

- Start with easy exercises
- Provide both optimal and suboptimal exercises
- Encourage athletes to be creative and try new things without fear of failure
- Give multiple opportunities to success
- Use athletes as examples and encourage them to demonstrate skills to one another
- Encourage athletes to decide on tactics
- Communicate in coaching sessions in a way that focus is on development rather than external outcomes
- Discuss about the exercises together with athletes and ask for their comments and feedback
- Be responsive for athletes thoughts and feelings
- Avoid using prizes and threats as controlling pushing factors
- When using external rewards, use them as result from personal mastery and learning, in contrast to having them as controlling and manipulative forces
Feedback

- Be encouraging
- Ensure that athletes develop a sense of competence
- Offer hints and tips
- Give feedback to each athlete as often as possible
- Give direct- and informational feedback related to the exact performance
- Give effort- and persistence-based feedback
- encourage athletes to make connections between the amount of effort they put in and the successful result
- Make a reference to athlete’s personal goals
- Discuss together with the athlete and ask for opinions and thoughts
- Avoid humiliating manner of speaking
- Avoid creating an perception that the support is only based on athletes success
- Avoid acknowledging obvious mistakes, that also the athlete realized
- Avoid social comparison
- Give feedback based on athletes previous performance, individuals personal standards and own greatest potential

Flow-chart

- Athletes performance and the sense of competence are highest in the flow-zone
- Are your actions as a coach helping the athlete to enter the flow-zone?
Bibliography


Sisällysluettelo

- Johdanto
- Käsitteet
- Itseohjautuvutta edistävä valmentaminen
- Psykologiset perustarpeet
- Itseohjautuvuusjakumo
- Käytännön ohjeet
  - Valmentaja-urheilija palaveri
  - Harjoitukset
  - Palautteenanto
- Lähteet
Johdanto


Urheilija ohjautuu ja harjoittelee vaihteluvaihojen motivoitustoimen tuloksesta. Itseohjautuvuutta edistävä valmentamisessa pyrkimys on vähentää ulkoinen motivaation määrää, tukea urheilijan olemassa olevaa sisäistä motivaatiota ja lisätä ”sisäistetyyn” motivaation (internalization of extrinsic motivation) määrää. Vaikka pyrkimys on vähentää ulkoinen motivaation vaikutuksia, on hyvä ymmärtää, että täysin sisäinen motivaatio on harvinaista ja urheilija usein toimilkin usean eri motivaation lähteen tuloksesta.

Käsitteet

- Itseohjautuvuus on organisoitumisen muoto, jossa urheilija kykenee ja on halukas tekemään päätöksiä itsenäisesti, harjoittelemaan oma-aloitteisesti ja pelaamaan spontaaniisti.

- Sisäinen motivaatio on motivaation muoto, joka on lähtöisin yksilöstä itsestään, ja ei näin ollen ole ulkopuolella ohjattavissa. Sisäinen motivaatio esittyy sellaisen toiminnan parissa, jossa aktiiviteetti itsessään tuottaa mielihyvää. Hyvä esimerkki sisäisestä motivaatiosta on leikkiminen.

- Ulkoinen motivaatio on motivaation muoto, jota kontrolloi jokin ulkopuolinen voima. Ulkoinen motivaatio esittyy sellaisen toiminnan parissa, johon urheilija osallistuu ainoastaan saavuttaakseen jokin ulkopuolisenpäämääran-, palkinnon tai välttääkseen rangaistuksen. Urheilussa toimintaa kontrolloива ulkopuolinen voima on usein valmentaja, ja ulkokia päämääriä edustaa puolestaan esineelliset- ja sosiaalisetarvet.

- ”Sisäistetty motivaatio” (Internalization of extrinsic motivation) kuvaa ulkoisten motivaation ”sisäistymisen” eri vaiheita, kohti tilannetta jossa ulkoinen motivaatio kohtaa urheilijan omien henkilökohtaisten halujen, arvojen ja ajatusten kanssa.
Itseohjautuvuutta edistävä valmentaminen

- Itseohjautuvuutta edistävässä valmennuksessa ei ole kyse valmennuksen sisällöstä, vaan tavasta valmentaa.
- Itseohjautuvuutta edistävässä valmentamisessa vaalitaan yksilön psikologisia tarpeita, sekä pyritään muodostamaan urheilijan motivaatiota lähemmäksi sisäistetyn- ja sisäisen motivaation piirteitä.
- Urheilijan itseohjautuvuus on vain yksi osa urheilun ja valmentamisen kokonaisuutta.

Psykologiset perustarpeet

- Urheilijalla on kolme psykologista perustarvetta; tunne autonomiasta, tunne kyvykkydestä ja tunne yhteenkuuluvuudesta. Itseohjautuvuutta voidaan edistää tukemalla näitä tunnetiloja. Psykologisten perustarpeiden ehostaminen linkittyvät muutoksiin “sisäistetyssä” motivaatiossa (internalization of extrinsic motivation), jonka nähdeään edistävän yksilön itseohjautuvuutta.

- **Autonoomia** on tunne siitä, että urheilijalla on vapaa päättää itseään koskevista asioista ja että tekemisen motivaatio kumpuaa urheilijasta itsestään, ei ulkoisista pakotteista.

- **Kyvykkyyys** on urheilijan tunne siitä, että hän taitava, selviää haasteista ja saa asioita aikaan.

- **Yhteenvuorot** on tunne ja tarve olla yhteydessä toisiin. ”Minä välitin toisista ja toiset minusta”.  

Itseohjautuvuusjatkumo

Käytännön ohjeet

Valmentaja-pelaaja palaverit
Harjoituksset
Palautteenanto
Valmentaja-urheilija palaveri


Itseohjautuvuutta edistävä valmentaja-urheilija palaveri sisältää kolme vaihetta;

1. Kysy ja kuuntele
2. Kerro ja keskustele
3. Sovi tavoitteista

1. Kysy ja kuuntele

Kysy ja kuuntele vaiheen tavoitukseena on luoda urheilijalle tunne siitä, että hän “johtaa palaveria” ja että palaveri on häntä varten. Lisäksi tavoitteenä on etsiä yksilön todellisia- ja sisäiseltä motivoaatio lähettää.

- Muista kiinnittää huomiota jääkeikoon ulkopuolisiin asioihin (kuori, koulu ja ihmisisuhteet)
- Vältä retorisia kysymyksiä, joihin odotat urheilijan osoittavan vain samanmielisyyttä
- Esitä avoimilla kysymyksillä ja tarjoa urheilijalle mahdollisuus puhua mahdollisimman paljon
- Rohkaise urheilijaa tunnistamaan hänelle yksilöinä tärkeitä asioita, kehityskohteita ja tavoitteita
- Rohkaise urheilijoita artikuloimaan ja yksilöimään hänen henkilökohtaisia motiveja harrastamiseen, harjoitteluun ja urheilijana kehittymiseen
  “kerro miaksi sinä haluat pelata jääkiekkoa ja kehitteet siinä?”
  “mitkä on sinulle tärkeimmän syyt tulla paremmaksi urheilijakseni?”
- Kun kysyt urheilijan motiveista, älä hyväksy yksinkertaisia vastauksia kuten:
  “että voitellat on peleja”
  Jatka keskustelua ja etsi mikä olkeasti motivoi häntä
  “emme voi aina voittaa, joten, mikä päättää sinut motitointuneena kun me häviämme?”
  “mistä muusta nautit jääkiekkossa kuin voittamisesta?”
- Huomioi urheilijan tunteet ja ajatukset, äläkä torju urheilijan mielipiteitä
2. Kerro ja keskustele

Kerro ja kuuntele vaiheen tarkoituksena on luoda keskustelua ja tuoda esiin molemien osapuolien näkemyksiä. Keskustelussa halutaan keskittyä kyvykkyyden tavoittelemiseen, eikä kyvyttömyyden välittelemiseen.

- Keskitä urheilijakeskeiseen kehitykseen
- Esitä omat näkemykset rakentavaan sävyyn
- Anna informatiivista palautetta (kts. kohta palautteenanto)
- Vältä argumentointia ja suoraa suostuttelua
  - Vältä kontrolloivia sanoja kuten “pitää” ja ”täytyy”
- Vältä viittauksia ulkoisiiin motivaation lähteisiin ja vertailua ulkoisiiin standardeihin tai muihin urheilijoihin
- Ole avoin kysymyksille ja vastaa niihin
- Etsi yhdessä urheilijan kanssa eri ratkaisuvaihtoehtoja
- Pyri tekemään viittauksia urheilijan mainitsemiin asioihin
- Esitä vaihtoehtoja ja kysy urheilijan mielipidettä niihin
  - Perustelee miksi vaihtoehto olisi sopiva urheilijalle ja kuinka se liittyy urheilijan henkilökohtaisiin toiveisiin ja tavoitteisiin
  - Anna urheilijan päättää mitä tehdä ja miten

3. Sovi tavoitteista

Tavoitteiden asettamisessa on hyvä huomioida seuraavat viisi kohtaa:

- Monimutkaisuus: Välttää liian monimutkaisia tai monivaiheisia tavoitteita. Jos urheilija kohtaa vaikeuksia tavoitteiden hallinnassa, on hyvä yksinkertaistaa tarkentaa tai selkeyttää tavoitteita.
- Sitoutuminen: Ota urheilija mukaan tavoitteiden asettamiseen ja tehkää ”suunnitelma” siitä mitä urheilija aikoo tehdä saavuttaakseen asetetut tavoitteet?
- Palaute: Anna urheilijalle palautetta tasaisin väliajoin, jotta urheilija tunnistaisi kehityksen.
3. Sovi tavoitteista

Sovi tavoitteista vaiheen tarkoituksena on keskittyä urheilijan omiin tahtoihin ja ehdotuksiin, mutta lopputuloksena luoda yhteinen sopimus, jonka hyväksyy sekä valmentaja että urheilija.

- Käyttää tavoitelmomaketta (seuraava dii)
- Anna urheilija “johtaa” päätöksestekoprosessia
- Auta urheilijaa tekemään informoituja päätöksiä ja valitsemaan realismisia tavoitteita
- Jos tavoitteet sisältävät ulkoisia motiiveja, pyri perustelemaan urheilijalle, kuinka ne liittyvät myös hänen henkilökohtaisiin tavoitteisiin
- Sovi mitä urheilija aikoo tehdä saavuttaakseen tavoitteen
- Anna urheilijalle aikaa sopeutua muutoksiin
  - “Kokeillaan tätä muutama viikko ja katsoa sitten mitä se tuntuu”
- Sovi kuinka kehittymistä tai tavoitteiden saavuttamista mitataan
- Jos urheilija kohtaa vaikeuksia muutoksissa sitoutumisessa tai tavoitteiden saavuttamisessa - muistuta urheilijaa hänen henkilökohtaisista motiiveista ja haluista
- Älä aseta palkintoja tai rangaistuksia
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<th>Kehityskohdet: (alle viivaa itsellesi tärkeimmät)</th>
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Harjoitukset

Itseohjautuvuutta edistävissä harjoituksissa ei lähtökohtaisesti keskitytä harjoittelun sisältöön, vaan tapaan suunnitella ja toteuttaa harjoitukset. Itseohjautuvuutta edistävissä harjoituksissa korostuu itsenäisten oppimistapojen ja psykologisten perustarpeiden ehostaminen, sekä sisäisen- ja sisäistetyn motivaation tukeminen, harjoittelun sitoutumisen lisäämiseksi.

1. Harjoitusten suunnittelu
2. Ennen harjoitusta
3. Harjoituksen aikana

Harjoitusten suunnittelu

- Salli urheilijoiden osallistua suunnitteluun
  - Kysy minkälaisia harjoituksia urheilijat haluaisivat
  - Anna urheilijoiden ehdottaa harjoitteita
- Pyri luomaan tavoitteita vastaavia harjoitteita, jotka haastavat optimaalisesti yksilön tämänhetkisiä kykyjä
- Luo sekä optimaalisia että suboptimaalisia harjoitteita
- Suunnittele eri oppimistapoja tukevia harjoitteita
  - Ryhmä (yhteinen taso/tavoite)
  - Pari
  - Yksilö/Omatoimi
- Vaihdele ja varioi harjoitteita
- Luo valintoja ja vaihtoehtoja
- Vältä asettamasta liikaa tavoitteita yhteen harjoitteeseen
- Anna mahdollisuksia osallistua joukkueharjoittelun ulkopuolisien aktiviteeteihin ja uusiin harjoittelun muotoihin
Ennen harjoitusta

- Pyri tarjoamaan vaihtoehtoisia harjoitteita:
  - Esittele ja perustele harjoituksen tarkoitus ja tavoite
  - Kerro mitä taitoja harjoitus vaatii ja mitä taitoja se kehitää
  - Korosta harjoitteiden välittömiä etuja
  - Tee viittauksia urheilijoiden henkilökohtaisiin tavoitteisiin
  - Anna urheilijoiden keskustella, mikä harjoite ollisi heille hyödyllisin
  - Luo vuorovaikutusta ja kysy urheilijoiden kommentteja

- Kun urheilijoille ei voida tarjota vaihtoehtoisia harjoitteita:
  - Perustele miksi urheilijan tulisi osallistua annettuun harjoitteeseen
  - Korosta harjoituksen välittömiä etuja
  - Korosta urheilijan näkökulmaa
  - Selitä kuinka harjoittelu liittyi heidän henkilökohtaisiin tavoitteisiin
  - Huomioida ja kerro, että osa harjoituksista on haastavia, raskaita ja epämiellyttäviä

Harjoituksen aikana

- Aloita helpolla harjoitteella
- Järjestä sekä optimaalisia että suboptimaalisia harjoitteita
  - ”Kaaos”
  - Avoin met harjoitteet
- Rohkaise urheilijaa luovuuteen ja salli heidän tehdä virheetä ilman epäonnistumisen pelkoa
- Anna usea mahdollisuus onnistua
- Käytä urheilijoita esimerkiksi suorittajina ja rohkaise heitä esittämään suoritteita toisille
- Rohkaise urheilijoita keskustelemaan ja taktikoimaan
- Keskustele yhdessä urheilijoiden kanssa sekä pyydä heiltä palautetta ja kommentteja
- Ole vastaanottavainen urheilijan ajatuksille ja tunteille
- Vältä rangaistuksien ja palkintojen kontrolloivaa käyttöä
Palautteenanto

- Rohkaise ja kannusta
- Tarjoa vihjeitä ja ohjeita
  - "mieti muita keinoja", "voit yrittää"
- Anna palautetta jokaiselle urheilijalle mahdollisimmien useasti
- Anna suoraa- ja informatiivista palautetta, joka tarjoaa tarkkaa tiedoa yksityiskohdista
- Huomioi urheilijan panos ja yrityks sekä korosta urheilijan onnistumisia ja kehitystä
- Pyri takaamaan, että urheilijan tunne kyvykkyydestä kasvaa
- Viittaa urheilijan henkilökohtaisiin tavoitteisiin
- Vältä huomioimasta selkeitä virheitä, jotka urheilija jo tiedostaa
- Vältä luomasta mielikuvaa, että tuki pohjautuu vain onnistumisiin
- Vältä retorisia kysymyksiä
- Vältä nöyrystävää tai kontrolloivaa puhetapaa
  - "sinun pitää", "sinun täytyy"
- Keskustelee urheilijan kanssa ja kysy hänen mielipiteitään sekä huomioi hänen ajatukset ja tunteet
- Vertaa urheilijaa hänen aiempin suorituksiin, yksilöön omiin standardeihin ja omaan parhaaseen potentiaaliin
- Vältä vertaamista vastustajaan tai toisiin pelaajiin

Flow-kanava

- Flow-kanavassa urheilijan kyvykkyyden tunne ja suoritustaso ovat korkeimmillaan
- Edistääkö toimintasi ja palautteesi urheilijan pääsyä Flow-kanavaan?
Lähteet


