

## Review Article

## Psychological Aspects of Leisure and Mass Sports

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**Abstract:** In general, the point of reference of motivation psychology is the questions that ask WHY, because it has to do with the external and internal conditions of human actions. The ultimate goal of this research is the psychological approach to sports / mass sports. The method adopted for the study was a literature review. With respect to the present study, it is found that in explaining the complexity of this human behaviour, the terms motivation and driving force are used from sociology and psychology, which in turn are descriptions of a hypothetical construction. The word motivation is not a descriptive but an explanatory concept. Motivation is an evaluation parameter that characterizes a person and guides his/her actions. The use of motivations can be the result of exogenous and endogenous factors. Elements that are not related to the subject such as avoiding punishment, social recognition or material goods are characteristics of exogenous motivations. In endogenous factors, the process of prompting is caused by the situation itself. Of great importance for those involved in sports is the question of the motivations that incite to sports activities. The answer to this question not only requires the ability to determine human behaviour, but also leads to new conclusions about method and learning, i.e. creating a sports offer. If we go back two decades, in different sub-branches of Psychology and Sociology, the change of motivation in sports is evaluated completely differently. Traditional motivations, like performance and personal improvement as well as competition and success, have lost their importance in view of health, entertainment and recreation motivations, and are currently ranked at the bottom of the motivation list. Finally, it is clear that motivations in sports / mass sports are not individual phenomena because they are complex, and may be based on a structure of multiple motivations of physical, mental, social and historical origin (ZAROTIS et al., 2011).

**Keywords:** motivation psychology, sports, leisure and mass sports.

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## INTRODUCTION

Modern Motivation Psychology is based on a large number of theories, models, views, assessments and concepts. Madsen stated in the 1960s that the extent of the psychology of motivation is as great as Psychology itself (MADSEN, 1968). Heckhausen describes the life of every human being as an uninterrupted stream of activities (HECKHAUSEN & HECKHAUSEN, 2006). Thus, Psychology of Motivation deals with activities that recognize the pursuit of an expected goal and in this sense constitute a unit (HECKHAUSEN & HECKHAUSEN, 2006). That is why it is important to "report these sections of activity in relation to their purpose". Three basic experiences, which can be observed in humans, make it clear that a factor which depends on the individual and the situation can have a decisive effect on the activity.

1. Different people never behave the same in the same situations (individual differences).

2. The same people in similar situations behave the same or in a similar manner (situational homogeneity).
3. The same individuals in the same situations behave as they have done in the past in that same situation (stability over time), (HECKHAUSEN, 1974).

These different factors are identified with the help of the hypothetical constructions' *motivation*, *driving force* and *point of view* (GABLER, 2002; HECKHAUSEN & HECKHAUSEN, 2006). Hypothetical constructions represent auxiliary quantities, "which replace explanatory models and model presentations, with the help of which human behaviour becomes more controlled, and more accessible to scientific endeavours" (ERDMANN, 1983, 13). These are not really quantities that exist, but purely *invented constructions*, which are divided into *predisposition variables* and *functional variables*. The variable predisposition, when examined with respect to time, is a constant quantity. It differs between different

people, but rarely in the same person. A short-term process or situation is characterized by functional variables. It does not differ between different people, but in the same person (HECKHAUSEN & HECKHAUSEN, 2006). Maslow's hierarchical model with the principle of the *relative superiority in the use of motivations* is the basic model of current studies in Motivation Psychology. Based on this principle, basic needs such as hunger, thirst, etc. must be met in order to then leave room for higher needs. These higher needs according to Heckhausen are: 1. physiological needs, 2. security, 3. social ties, 4. self-esteem and 5. self-realization. According to Maslow, the superiority of motivation groups is closely related to the development of individual behaviour (HECKHAUSEN & HECKHAUSEN, 2006). Gabler separates the *use of motivations* from prompting: Motivations process of encouraging is called prompting; the result of this prompting is the use of motivation (GABLER, 2002). Here there is a differentiation between *external* and *internal motivation*. The quantities of external motivation are elements that are not related to the subject, such as e.g. the avoidance of punishment, social recognition or material goods. On the contrary, in the case of internal prompting, the instigation is caused by the person's inner self and is therefore related to the subject. In science, the so-called multiple prompting is undeniable, shaped by multidimensional motivations. The development of motivation combinations is based on the theory of *the multiple accuracy of motivations* (HACKFORT, 1993; SCHMALT & LANGENS, 2009). It states that human behaviour exists in a complex system of interactive individual motivations (WIELAND, 1995). The combination of sport activity motivations can be very different in the same individual due to the heterogeneity of physical, psycho-social and socio-economic conditions. Simultaneously with turning to sports, there is a change in people's motivations in relation to sports. While in the 1950s and 1960s in sports dominated concepts such as performance, elite sports, or records, in their place there are now motivations such as health, fitness, entertainment, mental balance, well-being, good looks and social interaction (ZAROTIS et al., 2011; ELBE, 2020).

## METHODOLOGY

The present study is a bibliographical review study that presents the critical points of the existing knowledge about the "Psychological Aspects of Leisure and Mass Sports".

There is no specialized and comprehensive research in this area. This study attempts to fill this gap and may be a useful aid for those who will make similar efforts in the future. The main objective of the bibliographical review is to integrate the study into the "body" of the subject in question. The review of the current study refers to clearly formulated questions and uses systematic and explicit criteria for the critical

analysis of a published paper by summarizing, sorting, grouping and comparing.

## BIBLIOGRAPHIC REVIEW STUDY

### Motivation and Motivation Development

Freud and Ach are considered pioneers in the *research conclusions of personality theories*, which include the *branch of motivation psychology*. The *instrumentality theory* forms the basis for the *research direction of motivation psychology*. It takes the view that the driving force for action is also affected by its consequences (HECKHAUSEN & HECKHAUSEN, 2006). As a hypothetical construct, *motivation* is a variable of predisposition. Gabler defines it as follows: "Motivations are positions based on values, beyond situations and time, specific to each personality" (GABLER, 1986, 72). Motivation is a combination of concepts. It also includes characterizations such as *need, driving force and urge*. Erdmann extends Gabler's definition of motivation: "The motivation construct describes relatively stable behavioural predispositions, adapted to general goal presentations (e.g., companionship, performance, strength)" (ERDMANN, 1987, 35). Here, a distinction is made between *personal motivations* (e.g. performance motivation) and *social motivations* (e.g. integration motivation and power motivation). The concept of "motivation" is characteristic of a state of tension, which causes, maintains and directs an act to achieve a goal. Here, the act can serve to satisfy physiological (e.g. hunger, thirst) and/or psychological needs (e.g. performance motivation). The *primary motivations*, which relate to the physiological needs, can be separated from the *secondary*, the so-called *acquired motivations*. However, it is questionable whether individual motivations can be included in these categories (FUCHS, 1978; SAUERLAND et al., 2013). Whether an individual will form strong, specific motivations, is determined by the degree of the socialization process. Thus, for example, upbringing determines the formation of a strong or weak performance motivation. Motivation is not a descriptive but an explanatory concept (HECKHAUSEN & HECKHAUSEN, 2006). Motivations are predispositions of appreciation, with which the person is characterized and his/her actions are guided. Unlike innate needs such as hunger, thirst or sleep, motivations are not necessary for human survival. They develop during the ontogenetic process and are influenced by the social environment. That is why Oerter and Montada (2002) believe that motivations are learned. During life, in different basic situations, conditions of individual behaviour arise, which continue to exist for life and can affect human behaviour. Relevant examples are the motivations for social integration, strength, performance, power, help etc. The whole breadth of the concept of motivation demonstrates the lack of generally accepted definitions in Motivation Psychology. Gabler attributes this problem of definitions to the dependence of any "precise

determination of a concept" on the theoretical position (GABLER, 1986, 86). According to Erdmann, the genesis of motivation is a general psychological problem, because it is about developing reference systems. In this evolutionary process, mainly the family plays a decisive role, because the individual's first experience with himself/herself and the environment (individual-environment relationship) is initially limited to the family space (ERDMANN, 1983, 1987). The complexity of reference systems increases as a person evolves. When one has to deal with new attractive situations, further motivations arise. But this does not mean that one can "unlearn" the motivations that have been learned in the past (ERDMANN, 1987). Heckhausen distinguished five motivations, which are formed during the evolution of a human being. On the one hand, the *integration motivation*, which is the motivation developed earlier, after social inclusion. He also refers to the *attack motivation*, which harms others and torpedoes their interests. The *power motivation*, which subordinates the fate of others to the same views, and wants to direct and influence. The *help motivation*, which assists others during emergencies. And finally, the *performance motivation*, which aims to respond as well as possible to the fulfilment of the tasks and requirements that have been set (HECKHAUSEN, 1974; FRANK, 2013). "Depending on the frequency of each individual's experiences, the personal motivation system is more focused on search or view, more strongly determined by the hope for satisfaction or the fear of dissatisfaction" (HECKHAUSEN, 1974, 147).

### **Exogenous and Endogenous Motivations**

The use of motivations is essential for action. It has to do with the motivational causes of human actions, as is demonstrated by the etymological meaning of the verb from which it is derived, "movere – move". The creation of the use of motivations is a functional variable. It is the product of an interaction between given situations and motivations. While motivation is latent and enduring, the use of motivations is the exact realization of motivation in a particular situation. The process of using motivations is subject to the influence of expected possibilities and desired results, which are achieved through individual action, as well as from the expected results of the action itself (OERTER & MONTADA, 2002). Eberspaecher describes this process as follows: "Different situations, which the individual perceives as thematically relevant, stimulate motivation and activate the use of motivation. Motivation, therefore, as a constant attraction of the personality, becomes a declaration of the specific situation, which motivates the actions and keeps them in progress until completion" (EBERSPAECHER, 1987, 281). Once the action is completed, it is judged with personal and social reference standards. In the course of this evaluation, one thinks for oneself about the reasons for the outcome of one's action or agrees for those to be presented to one (EBERSPAECHER, 1987). For Bierhoff-Alfermann, the concept of using

motivations, on the one hand, serves to explain intrapersonal differences in human behaviour and experience in the same situations, on the other hand, it clarifies intrapersonal differences in the individual himself/herself, in varying situations (BIERHOFF, ALFERMAN). Most of the purpose-oriented models, primarily those by Heckhausen, are based on external motivations, which have a great influence on the German-speaking world and have been openly criticized recently. Heckhausen characterizes every motivation that seeks situations or goals as external (HECKHAUSEN & HECKHAUSEN, 2006). He includes in those the behaviour that is directed towards performance, strength, integration, assistance or attack. It is crucial to identify the causative factors when using exogenous motivations. In the case of an external act that is not committed voluntarily but for a reward or due to punishment, it is a case of using exogenous motivation. In complex Western societies, people mainly use motivations, which correspond to the desire for an average satisfaction of needs. So, often in professional daily life, one works not primarily for job satisfaction, but for an external material reward. With this reward, one hopes to satisfy a need, e.g. by exchanging wages for products or services. The decision on how money is ultimately used, therefore, in what way a need will be satisfied, is often determined by the person's environment. On the one hand, it influences how the reward will be used, on the other hand, how big the reward will be and thus regulates the behaviour of the individual. Separating service (work, effort) and profit (satisfaction of a need) from external rewards (money, power) with transferable functions, determines this type of satisfaction of needs. Motivations that bring about this kind of satisfaction of needs are considered external motivations. External prompting here means that the satisfaction of a need ultimately realized by externally motivated behaviour is not directly derived from the behaviour itself, but is achieved by alternative means. The actual satisfaction of the need is only indirectly related to the initial behaviour. Rewards (lures), which most often determine exclusively the provision of work, have no value on their own because it is impossible to immediately satisfy any needs with them. As regards behaviour caused by exogenous motivations, it is troubling that virtually neutral rewards (money as a piece of paper) are so overvalued that they are the price of the provision of labour. If a man accepts this value, then from that moment on an abstract need for external rewards develops, such as money, power or social status, even if possessing them doesn't directly improve one's quality of life. For this reason, according to the saying "money does not bring happiness", exogenous rewards must be transformed into the satisfaction of real needs to have a positive effect. Consequently, the effort for exogenous rewards may, among other things, lose the ultimate goal for a fuller and more reasonable satisfaction of a need. Relatively understandable examples are the children who study to get good school grades and not to prepare

for life, or adults who work for printed banknotes instead of a meaningful life. This can lead to confusion, as observed (not only) in the workplace of our society. Therefore, exogenous rewards involve great risks that can make living a meaningful life difficult (CSIKSZENTMIHALYI, 1991; RHEINBERG, 2006). Csikszentmihalyi reports that the use of motivations for external reward and the fear of external punishment confirm a purely socially developed system of motivations: "By objectifying the prompts in the form of money and social status, societies have created a rationalistic and global system of motivations, which enables them to induce the desired behaviour and create a complex social hierarchy, using precisely defined rewards. The standardization of external reward and the general recognition of its value by the majority of society brought about the type of "homo economicus", which reacts to the legitimacy of supply and demand, as well as the "homo sociologicus", which is held captive by a network of social checks and balances" (CSIKSZENTMIHALYI, 1991, 20). According to Heckhausen, an action is caused by an endogenous motivation, when the subject matter of the action and its goal are the same (HECKHAUSEN & HECKHAUSEN, 2006). De Charms, for his part, talks about an origin-pawn-concept idea. He explains that people have endogenous motivations when they feel that their behaviour comes from themselves, that is, they experience it as the origin (DE CHARMS, 1968). According to Hecker, people have endogenous motivations if they can self-affirm in exercise and learning processes. they must have the ability to formulate goals for their actions and achieve them (HECKER, 1984; PIEPMEIER et al., 2018). For Deci, the intensity of use of endogenous motivations for an action depends on how strongly the sense of self-determination is formed in the person who acts (DECI, 1972). The uses of endogenous motivations are not determined by third parties, namely the satisfaction for an action that has an endogenous motivation results from the behaviour itself. Behaviour and satisfaction of the need occur simultaneously. Endogenous behaviour promotes a positive feeling of freedom as needs are satisfied, independently from external rewards. Thus, the same work can be perceived as difficult and complicated when done under the pressure of exogenous rewards and as easy and satisfying when the worker's behaviour is determined by endogenous motivations. For this reason, Csikszentmihalyi in his research on behavioural patterns caused by endogenous motivations concludes that "every activity can offer an internal reward, provided that it is properly structured and that its requirements are adapted to our abilities" (CSIKSZENTMIHALYI, 1991, 16). Therefore, according to Csikszentmihalyi, the use of endogenous motivations depends on the optimal balance between the *demand for performance* and the *ability to perform*. However, this optimal required level, which does not overload the person and thus brings the experience of success, is the area of *flow*. According to Csikszentmihalyi, the flow

lies inside the dynamic field between the requirements of the environment and the level of ability and suitability of the individual (CSIKSZENTMIHALYI, 1991; RHEINBERG, 2006). Csikszentmihalyi further defines the behaviour caused by endogenous motivation as a so-called autotelic activity: "An activity is considered autotelic (from the Greek word "αὐτοτελής" - autotelēs, formed from "αὐτός" - autos, self and "τέλος" – telos, end or goal), if it required a typical and important consumption of energy but brought little or no conventional reward" (CSIKSZENTMIHALYI, 1991, 30). According to Csikszentmihalyi, completing an endogenously motivated activity can bring satisfaction, self-confidence and a sense of solidarity (CSIKSZENTMIHALYI, 1991; RHEINBERG, 2006). It is observed that in many life areas individuals escape the various compulsions of advanced industrial society. Alternative lifestyles seek to become independent of society, using distributed functions. They have already been expressed in many businesses and movements and symbolize the change in social values. These movements are also systems of a counter-culture that often breaks away from the exogenous and material rewards of a developed society. So, in many of these alternative businesses, success isn't only determined by the usual profit maximization. Ecological and social criteria are becoming more important. They have actually entered the top management levels of conventional companies. And that's where the effectiveness of exogenous rewards is being increasingly challenged. In many sectors, instead of rewarding exceptional performance with money, other lures are increasingly being offered, such as travel or prestige. This is important, as after reaching a certain *level of saturation*, material lures are no longer effective. However, this result largely depends on the development level of each economic system. So, in less developed economic systems with lower wages, the external rewards are certainly profitable and are, as before, a great incentive to work more. This allows us to assume that intangible values are favoured by man only if important basic needs have already been met. So, Maslow concludes that endogenous motivations can fully develop their prompting potential providing that basic exogenous needs have already been largely met. For this reason, Maslow sets the goal of self-realization at the end of his hierarchical model of the five basic needs that man seeks every time to fulfil one after the other (MASLOW, 1981). In addition to Maslow, Csikszentmihalyi concludes in his research that "people are more easily interested in endogenous rewards if they don't lack external rewards" (CSIKSZENTMIHALYI, 1991, 41).

### **Sport Activity Motivations**

So how are the events discussed above expressed in the field of sports? Heckhausen subdivides the use of athletic motivations into the components: *selection* and *behaviour regulation* (HECKHAUSEN &



HECKHAUSEN, 2006). *Behaviour selection* is mainly related to the use of *motivation for sports*, while the *regulation* deals with the question of the *use of motivation in sports*. However, this separation should not be considered binding (BRACKHANE, 1982). In the *use of motivation in sports*, as in other areas of life, the dominant position hold motivations such as performance, social inclusion, sociability, strength, etc. In contrast, the *use of motivation for sports* should be examined as regards the motivations: *using occupation motivation* (entry into sports activity) or *using exercise motivation* (longer-term activity exercise), (NITSCH, 1988). Brackhane also thinks that motivations "which led to a physical activity, play a role within the sport as well" (BRACKHANE, 1982, 45). Due to the multidimensional motivations and their different orientation, it is not always possible to accurately separate the boundaries between the use of motivation for sport and the use of motivation in sport. An example is the motivation for companionship or inclusion, which could fall into both categories of motivational use. The desire to join a group can be the primary motivation for starting a sports activity, because people are looking for social contact with others who think in the same way they do. In this case, the incentive to join would be using motivation for sports. On the other hand, companionship while exercising sports within a team or with a team is for many athlete's part of the motivation for doing sports. At the beginning of a sports activity, a motivation may be predominant, but in the course of time, while continuing the sports activity, its importance could decrease in favour of other motivations. Therefore, occupation and exercise motivations are not necessarily identical and may be subject to change when it is necessary (HACKFORT, 1993). Based on the above, numerous categorizations of sports motivations are proposed. Abele-Brehm and Brehm (1990) point out the strong qualitative convergence of the categorizations proposed above and further develop the well-known standardizations for sports in leisure time. They start by giving different meanings to sports activities, which differ based on three criteria: orientation perspective, content-based standardization, rendering meaning and sports sector. The orientation perspective consists of *prompts for the purpose* on the one hand and *prompts for the situation* on the other. Prompts for the purpose are important for the goal orientation of sports activity and its realistic implementation. The prompts for the situation determine the value of the event during sport exercise. The differentiation according to sports sectors is based on the idea that athletic motivations can vary from one sport to another. "Rendering meaning" and "sports sector" are again separated to answer the question of whether sports disciplines can be separated based on specific motivations or whether there are motivations regardless of the type of sport. Abele-Brehm and Brehm developed ten meanings rendering with 22 individual motivations for sports activities in leisure time, which can refer to the respective orientation

perspective and to the specific sports field (ABELE-BREHM & BREHM, 1990).

### **Performance**

Prompt for the situation: «effort and hard physical load»

Prompt for the situation: «involvement with others and comparison»

Prompt for the purpose: «improvement»

### **Health**

Prompt for the purpose: «to do something for good physical condition»

Prompt for the purpose: «prevention of physical ailments»

Prompt for the purpose: «to do something for the ailments»

### **Well-being**

Prompt for the situation: «to have fun and feel good»

Prompt for the purpose: "Stress relief" "balance"

### **Physical experience**

Prompt for the situation: «to live one's body»

Prompt for the purpose: «to get to know one's body better»

### **Appearance:**

Prompt for the purpose: «acquiring an athletic body»

Prompt for the purpose: «maintaining an athletic body»

Prompt for the purpose: «losing weight»

### **Presentation of the sport**

Prompt for the purpose: «to show how fascinating this sport is»

### **Prominence**

Prompt for the situation: «to become prominent, to present one's own performance»

### **Tension**

Prompt for the situation: «to live more intensely», «new experiences»

### **Company**

Prompt for the situation: «to be with clean people»

### **Contacts**

Prompt for the situation: «contact care during sports exercise»

Prompt for the purpose: «making contacts»

For all forms of exercise, it is true that specific motivations are enough to indulge in sports. However, in order to continue the sports activity, it is important to formulate a combination of motivations (HACKFORT, 1988). This allows us to reach the following conclusions: A more intense coefficient motivation at the beginning of a sporting activity leads to a permanent commitment to the sport, only if endogenous

motivations are involved, in which the sport is determinative.

### **Change of Motivation in Sports**

The general change of values and standards in today's society has had significant effects on sports as well. Indeed, sports enjoy a certain autonomy, but developments and changes in this area as well are shaped by social conditions. The change in sports is often observed with different perceptions and forms of sports. Today, the interested party is offered an increasing number of alternative sport offers, from which one can choose according to one's individual wishes. Today, there is an increasing number of alternative sports offers, from which one can choose according to one's individual desires. Along with the social changes, individual desires have also changed over time. Sports service providers are now required to adapt their sports programs, sport selection and sports organization forms accordingly to the new trends. If we go back two decades, in different sub-branches of Psychology and Sociology, the change of motivation in sports is evaluated completely differently. Two key positions are particularly important: Mrazek accepts a fundamental change in sports motivations: "Previously, the main motivation for sports was performance, competition and in this sense, confirmation. Today, the motivations that predominate are health, entertainment, well-being, appearance, a well-formed body, and work-life stress balance" (MRAZEK, 1988, 207). In one of the most recent publications on the subject, Wieland argues that sports motivations have "undergone a fundamental change" over time (WIELAND, 1995). This view is shared by Digel (1986) and Heinemann (1989). According to Wieland, the traditional motivations *performance* and *personal improvement*, as well as competition and success, have lost their importance in the face of the motivation's *health, entertainment and recreation*, and are now ranked at the bottom of the motivation list (WIELAND, 1995). Janssen, Wegner and Bolte (1992) have completely opposite opinions as regards the change of motivation in sports. Based on their own empirical findings, these authors begin with a heterogeneity of needs in leisure time behaviour, which is most pronounced in sports: "In this heterogeneity of interests and perceptions, a general change becomes less clear than a differentiation of values." (JANSSEN, WEGNER & BOLTE, 1992, 30). Therefore, classical performance values are as determinative for acting as the attributions of social meanings and body-oriented meanings. Dependency factors and target groups determine or decide on the choice of sports activity (BAUMANN, 2009). A newer empirical study presents the general use of athletic motivation in the population: In a representative gallop for the "most important sports motivations", the following motivational hierarchy was found for respondents over the age of 14: 1. entertainment (71%), 2. health (60%), 3. good physical condition (48%), 4. compensation for lack of movement (37%), 4. balance

from work and stress relief (30% ), 7. camaraderie (23%) and 8. well-being (21%), (OPASCHOWSKI, 1995). This means that health, entertainment and joy are the most decisive reasons for exercise. On the contrary, according to this study, performance and therefore competition and athletic success were in the background.

### **Differences in Motivation between Men and Women**

So far, we have discussed the general change in sports motivation. Numerous studies have been conducted on the effect of the characteristic *gender* on athletic motivation. While much of this research reveals gender differences, Johnsgard explicitly points out in his study that there is homogeneity as regards the change in the use of occupation motivations, regarding the use of gender-based physical exercise motivations (JOHNSGARD, 1988). According to Biener, unlike men, women are more likely to find on their own their way to exercise. In contrast, men in the study report different reasons, which present external influences (e.g. a specific sporting event). For this reason, the conclusion is that women are motivated to exercise mainly by endogenous motives, while men often are motivated by exogenous motives. Another interesting finding of Biener is that men are almost never motivated by their wives and girlfriends to exercise, while the opposite happens often (BIENER, 1980). Some researches analyse trends in certain gender-specific motivations or groups, which are described below:

#### ***Good physical condition / Health***

Meyer emphasizes, as regards women in sports, "an intensely formulated reference to health". According to the author, health is at the first place of women's motivation scale. He substantiates this by saying "it is confirmed that women show a greater sensitivity to the issue of health and ability than men" (MEYER, 1992, 120). Heuwinkel, for his part, finds a significantly higher estimate of the motivation "well-being" in women (85%) than in men (55%) (HEUWINKEL, 1990). According to Heinemann, for men, criteria such as good physical condition and endurance are more important in sports (HEINEMANN, 1990).

#### ***Appearance, fitness, weight***

Opaschowski (1987), Brehm and Kurz (1988), Hueppe and Uhlig (1990) as well as Tantrum and Hodge (1993) find that the motivational group *appearance, fitness, weight* is much more frequently mentioned by women than by men. According to Opaschowski, the motivation *body image improvement* is more important for women than for men. The percentage among women is 26%, much higher than that of men, which is only 6% (OPASCHOWSKI, 1987). This motivation confirms a socio-cultural phenomenon that renders good looks and slimness a doubtful and psycho-hygienically dangerous belief.

This social doctrine has traditionally concerned mainly women. Brehm and Kurz also point to this gender stereotype, but not without warning: "Nevertheless, taking into consideration that women are more willing than men to acknowledge their expectations, that could affect the inclusion of this outcome" (BREHM & KURZ, 1988, 27).

### **Balance**

The balance motivation, in the study of B.A.T. (1994), is more important in men than in women surveyed. In contrast, Bloss (1973), Kroener (1976) and Meyer (1992) found that the balance motivation was more important for women than for men who took part in their study. Bloss's research on the structure of motivation as regards sports activity among students in vocational schools shows that it largely depends on the gender. As concerns the women surveyed, the balance motivation, with a percentage of 20%, is in the second place. Among the men surveyed the percentage is 11%, placing it at the bottom of the motivation ranking list (BLOSS, 1973). According to Kroener, women are more likely to seek compensation for work and greatly desire to relax (Kroener, 1976). The same outcome presents a Meyer study, in which women, compared to men, see exercise as a good opportunity to balance work or house chores. Here the percentages were 78.3% for women and 70.5% for men (MEYER, 1992).

### **Relaxation, well-being**

Kroener finds the motivation group *relaxation, well-being* more often in women than in men (KROENER, 1976).

### **Cognitive and motor motivation**

The existence or lack of the cognitive and motor motivation in men and women should be sought especially in the process of socialization of the individual. Thus, girls are often prematurely limited to specific roles. For this reason, a lack of athletic-motor training often occurs, which results to deficient athletic-motor behaviour (KROENER, 1976). "The lack of basic motor standards does not allow or motivate the construction of more complex motor structures for high performance. Where minimal motor skills are lacking (level of motor ability and fitness, level of regular actions), they are pursued for the first time or need to be mobilized, the causes of physical exercise are more of a cognitive nature, and initially aim to prevent diseases due to lack of movement and obesity (...). Women that have lower qualifications are less likely to engage in sports in order to increase the effectiveness of motor activities, rather than to improve the quality of individual movement forms and in the sense of creative motor activity" (KROENER, 1976, 59).

### **Companionship, contact, integration**

In the studies of Artus (1974) and Heinemann (1990) the motivation combination companionship, contact, integration is characterized as specific for

women. In Heitmann's concise presentation, social motivations in women are mainly expressed in the desire for social formation of leisure time in sports and are more important than in men (HEITMANN, 1986). In contrast, Hennig (1965) and Hahmann (1971) as well as Brehm and Kurz, (1988) came to the opposite conclusion. They found that social contacts have greater importance for boys and men compared to girls and women. Hennig's (1965) empirical research on the motivations of young people's sporting interests reveals significant differences in gender-based motivations. According to his research, it is remarkable that pursuing performance is highly important to boys in comparison to girls and social motivation is as well more important to boys than to girls. The great importance of social contact and therefore the need for social integration, which Hennig (1965) finds in boys, is confirmed by Hahmann's empirical research of motivations. According to his research, the use of motivation for groups and society is more common in boys than in girls (HAHMANN, 1971). Brehm and Kurz (1988) arrive at a similar conclusion in a similar study about the motivations for contact. The authors note a greater interest in contact among men than among women. They attribute this to the greater devotion of men to social relations in their sports club. According to the authors, many more men (70%) than women (50%) have regular social contacts with acquaintances from sports teams or from a club.

### **Performance motivation**

The following studies show significantly higher rates of the performance motivation in men than in women: Hennig (1965), Artus (1974), Heitmann (1986), Mrazek and Rittner (1986), Hueppe and Uhlig (1990), Fontane and Hurd (1992), Meyer (1992), Tantrum and Hodge (1993). However, Johnsgard's results (1985, 1988) contradict these findings, because in the motivation of personal demands, a particular component of performance motivation, in comparison to the occupation motivation and the physical exercise motivation, he finds overall increasing rates among women and declining rates among men. Artus' research on boys and girls also shows that boys are more likely to evaluate highly performance than companionship. For their part, girls value more highly companionship than performance (ARTUS, 1974). Research by Mrazek and Rittner also showed differences between the sexes: "Fun, well-being and good looks are more important reasons for women to exercise than for men, while men find performance, fitness and maybe health more important than women" (MRAZEK, & RITTNER, 1986, 65). In contrast to the above differences, which are due to gender, Johnsgard's study clearly points out the uniform classification of motivations for both sexes. In a comparison of older runners, in terms of gender, he finds parallel developments in men and women. While at the beginning of the running career, motivations such as health and good physical condition prevail, over the

years they recede against mental motivations such as self-awareness, reduction of stress, removal of tension (JOHNSSGARD, 1988).

### Motivational Differences In Relation To Age

Psychological and sociological research has shown that the use of motivations presents different values according to age. In his research, Heuwinkel notes the important predominance of *health motivation* over *entertainment motivation* and over all other motivational reasons. He notices a steady decline in the percentage of *entertainment motivations*. Nevertheless, this part is comparatively important as well in old ages. Approximately 42% of the respondents aged between 50-54 years and 55-59 years mention the *entertainment motivation* and also about 25% of the respondents over the age of 70 years. Until this last age group, in which the *entertainment motivation* is displaced by the *contact motivation*, *joy* and *entertainment* occupy the second place in the ranking list of motivations. Leading the way in this age group is *health* and *physical condition* motivation, while it is striking that the importance of this motivation increases especially after retirement age. Heuwinkel attributes this, on the one hand, to the lack of compensation from a professional load, but on the other hand, to the medical advice for more physical activity, which is most often reported by the elderly (HEUWINKEL, 1990). Heinemann also argues that the evaluation of health and fitness becomes more important in advanced age in sports (HEINEMANN, 1990). According to Barb-Priebe's results, the importance of the balance motivation decreases with age. Respectively, *stress*, *imbalance* and *lack of movement* are reduced from 20% or 30% in the 30-year-olds to 6% up to 8% in those who are 61 years of age or older (BARB-PRIEBE, 1991). The results of Artus and Bloss's empirical studies make it clear that young people play sports mainly as an end in itself (ARTUS, 1971; BLOSS, 1973). In contrast, adults seek athletic activity, e.g. for maintaining health, for good physical condition, maintaining a well-formed body and spiritual empowerment (JUETTING, 1976). In the study of B.A.T. to the question "why do you exercise?" the answers of the older respondents (65 years and older) and the younger ones (14-19 years old) are compared. As regards the answer "because it compensates for the lack of movement" the difference in importance is obvious: 26% of the young people report lack of movement as the cause of exercise, while this motivation concerns 57% of the adults. In matters of *stress relief* and *balancing work*, the difference is not significant. However, in both age groups these motivations play a subordinate role (Denk, 1995, 102). A comparison of these two surveys highlights the need for differentiation: The results of Barb-Priebe (1991) come from a gallop of sport active individuals, while in the study of B.A.T. (1994) sport active and non-active individuals were asked based on a representative sample. From the findings we can conclude that the homogenous group of sport active individuals seeks

much less the balance. With sport activity, this motivation loses its significance, and even more so, the longer one exercises. Especially in this group, health care is more important (BIENER, 1980). Allmer (1985, 1988, 1992) examines subjective motivational values in sport and their change with age. In his opinion, sport activity is valued as worth trying and is accomplished if the individual is convinced that exercise can achieve results that meet his or her needs. Based on research data gathered in three age groups of 30-39 years, 40-49 years and 50-60 years, Allmer finds the following: In the first age group there is a whole combination of prompting values, such as e.g. maintaining health, physical rest, improving performance, mental rest as well as experience. All prompting values are at a similarly high level. In groups 2 and 3, on the other hand, maintaining good health is the central prompting value compared to the other motivations (ALLMER, 1988). This focus on maintaining health and at the same time the limited variety of prompts is justified by the growing health care. According to Allmer (1988), it develops with the deterioration of physical well-being with age. From a comparison of the motivation profile of all groups in a variability analysis, the following age differences arise: As regards the older ones, the part of the physical exercise that shapes the personality is estimated to be significantly less important in comparison to the younger ones. This may be because older people are no longer expecting changes in their personality or are not interested in it at all. Another conclusion is that the older ones value the structuring of the day with sports more than the younger ones. This need is not surprising, because when children leave home and after retirement, they are left with more free time. In this situation, sports can make sense and fill their lives. Changes in depth of sports activities for the older people should be expected, when the generation of today's forties and younger reaches an older age. Based on the fact that these generations grew up with better conditions for socialization than their parents and grandparents, they have a stronger and differentiated connection to sports. Thus, we can assume that the elderly in the future will definitely be more active in sports (TOKARSKI, 1993).

### CONCLUSION

In general, the point of reference of motivation psychology is the questions that ask WHY, because it has to do with the external and internal conditions of human actions. In order to explain the complexity of this human behaviour, the terms motivation and driving force are used from sociology and psychology, which in turn are descriptions of a hypothetical construction. This hypothetical construct is based on behavioural observations as well as behavioural theories and is used to explain a phenomenon that is barely measurable or recognizable. The word motivation is not a descriptive but an explanatory concept. Motivations are evaluation parameters that characterize a person and guide his/her actions. They are not acquired; they are extremely



necessary needs for living, such as hunger, thirst or sleep. They are mainly learned during orthogenetic development and are established by the process of socialization of the individual through the influence exerted by external factors. While motivation is described as a latent and enduring phenomenon, in the sense of using motivation we mean the exact realization of a motivation in a particular situation. Unlike motivation, it is not an explanatory form, but a combined concept for a multifaceted sequence of actions and results. These processes make people's actions predictable and prove that people's actions depend on the expected results, and furthermore that people act in such a way in order to achieve a goal. The use of motivations can be the result of exogenous and endogenous factors. Elements that are not related to the subject such as avoiding punishment, social recognition or material goods are characteristics of exogenous motivations. In endogenous factors, the process of prompting is caused by the situation itself. Endogenous factors are released after the exogenous basic needs that proceeded have been met to some extent. In this way, people seek intangible goods after first covering their material needs in general (SCHMALT & LANGENS, 2009). Of great importance for those involved in sports is the question of the motivations that incite to sports activities. The answer to this question not only requires the ability to determine human behaviour, but also leads to new conclusions about method and learning, i.e. creating a sports offer. Motivations in sports / mass sports are not individual phenomena because they are complex, and may be based on a structure of multiple motivations of physical, mental, social and historical origin (BAUMANN, 2009). Along with individual differences, there are also intra-atomic developments. This is obvious when we compare the reasons and motivations for physical exercise. The dominance is evident, such as: health / good physical condition followed by joy / entertainment, balance work related stress, well-being, companionship, performance and appearance (ZAROTIS et al., 2011).

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