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The Relationship Between Perceived Motivational Climate, Burnout, and Well-Being
in Division I Athletes
By
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Submitted to the graduate degree program in Health, Sport, and Exercise Sciences and the
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in Division I Athletes

Chairperson Mary Fry, Ph.D.

Date approved: May 5, 2017

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Abstract

58 The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between Division I athletes’
59 perceptions of the motivational climate on their sport team to their levels of sport burnout (i.e.,
60 physical and emotional exhaustion; reduced sense of accomplishment; and devaluation of sport),
61 positive and negative affect, and well-being (i.e., emotional; social; and psychological). It was
62 hypothesized that athletes’ perceptions of a more caring and task-involving climate with less
63 emphasis on an ego-involving climate, would be negatively associated with burnout and negative
64 affect, and positively associated with positive affect and well-being. Participants were 104
65 Division I athletes (44 men and 60 females; mean age = 20.17) from four different sports
66 (baseball, diving, golf, and rowing). Three separate canonical correlations were conducted to
67 examine the relationships between the climate variables (i.e., caring, task, and ego) to burnout
68 via (a) emotional/physical exhaustion, reduced sense of accomplishment, and devaluation of
69 sport; (b) well-being subscales (emotional, social, and psychological) and coach care; and (c)
70 positive affect, negative affect, and subjective vitality. Analysis indicated that perceptions of a
71 higher caring and task-involving and lower ego-involving climate was associated with lower
72 emotional/physical exhaustion, reduced sense of accomplishment, devaluation of sport, and
73 higher emotional well-being, social well-being, coach care, positive affect, and subjective
74 vitality. It will be important in future research to examine how a caring and task-involving
75 climate may buffer athletes’ experiences with burnout and enhance their well-being.

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136 demands placed on collegiate athletes, some can begin to feel both physical and emotional
137 exhaustion. Athletes who feel a reduced sense of accomplishment perceive they are no longer
138 improving their abilities or continuing to achieve; they may be performing well, but they
139 perceive they are not (Raedeke, 1997). Devaluation of sport involves developing negative
140 attitudes toward sport and athletes' views of what is important to them. Athletes who devalue
141 their sport may come to practice, but are not invested in giving maximal effort, or they may
142 begin to miss practices. While physical/emotional exhaustion may come and go, when it is
143 persistent and paired with reduced sense of accomplishment and devaluation, athletes may
144 experience burnout.

145 Raedeke (1997) discovered that athletes who enjoy their sport, perceive more benefits
146 from their sport involvement, view fewer social constraints, and are more attracted to their sport
147 than other activities, are less likely to experience burnout. In contrast, Gould & Whitley (2009)
148 found burnout to be associated with lower enjoyment, as well as perceived lack of control and
149 loss of motivation. Burnout also significantly increases over time (Lai & Wiggins, 2003);
150 athletes who are experiencing low levels of burnout at the beginning of a season are likely to
151 have increased levels of burnout at the end of a season. Since burnout increases over time there is
152 a need to find effective strategies to decrease the likelihood of burnout in athletes. Therefore,
153 additional research in burnout is warranted to discover ways to improve social interactions
154 between athletes and coaches to decrease the likelihood of burnout in athletes.

155 Negative social interactions have been positively associated with global burnout
156 (Defreese & Smith, 2014). Therefore, interventions that address social interactions may be
157 important in reducing burnout in athletes. Giving support for athletes may also be important to
158 enhance athletes' motivation and prevent burnout (DeFreese & Smith, 2013), which can combat

159 negative social interactions. How coaches develop the team environment may impact the
160 athletes' social interactions and burnout.

161 Certain climates can foster motivation and prevent burnout. Research employing
162 Achievement Goal Perspective Theory (AGPT) has considered how motivation can be optimized
163 (Fry & Gano-Overway, 2010; Nicholls, 1989). Through research with AGPT, Nicholls (1989)
164 identified two climates, task-involving and ego-involving. The features of an ego-involving
165 climate include athletes perceiving increased rivalry among teammates, "star" athletes getting the
166 most attention, and mistakes being punished. In an ego-involving climate, coaches send the
167 message that high ability and performance is the criteria used to gauge success, not effort;
168 therefore, athletes who have less ability often feel less valued and successful. The features of a
169 task-involving climate include an emphasis on personal improvement, best effort, mistakes are
170 viewed as learning opportunities, and everyone feels that they play an important role on the
171 team. In a task-involving climate the process of performing is the focus rather than the outcome
172 of winning or losing. Cumming, Smoll, Smith, & Grossbard (2007), in a study with youth
173 basketball players, reported that athletes' who perceive a task-involving climate enjoy playing
174 for their coach, view their coach as a good teacher, and were more likely to want to play the next
175 year than those in an ego-involving climate.

176 Other research has extended Nicholls (1989) research, examining how creating a caring
177 climate, where athletes feel valued, safe, supported, and respected, can impact their sport
178 experience (Newton et al., 2007). When athletes are in a caring environment they have increased
179 sport commitment, enjoyment, and more positive attitudes about their fellow teammates and
180 coach (Fry & Gano-Overway, 2010). Athletes also feel a sense of belongingness on a team

181 where coaches support and value them. Through creating a caring climate coaches can model the
182 behavior they want their athletes to use, changing the climate on the team.

183 Coaches at the collegiate level have successfully created caring climates for their teams.
184 Knust & Fisher (2015) interviewed coaches to determine how NCAA coaches create caring
185 climates. These coaches described viewing their team as a family, listening to their athletes
186 through open communication, working hard to resolve conflicts between players, and viewing
187 situations through their players' eyes as important strategies that help create a caring climate for
188 their athletes. Other NCAA coaches have described how they create caring climates (Fisher,
189 Bejar, Larsen, Fynes, & Gearity, 2017), specifically, they shared how they felt that developing
190 their athletes as overall individuals through academics, athletics, socially, and emotionally was
191 important in creating a caring climate. These coaches also viewed the athletes' lives outside of
192 sport, knowing when their athletes needed support, and responding to athletes needs as important
193 aspects in caring for their athletes. Through this research, coaches at the NCAA level have
194 shown that they can create caring climates that foster athletes' confidence in their ability. In
195 summary, a caring and task-involving climate seems to be the optimal climate, for athletes, over
196 an ego-involving climate.

197 Recent research has linked athletes' perceptions of the motivational climate to their levels
198 of burnout (Isoard-Gauthier, Guillet-Descas, & Duda, 2013; Lemyre, Hall, & Roberts, 2008;
199 Vitali, Bortoli, Bertinato, Robazza, & Schena, 2015). In adolescent athletes, a task-involving
200 climate was negatively associated with all three burnout dimensions (physical/emotional
201 exhaustion, reduced sense of accomplishment, and devaluation of sport), while an ego-involving
202 climate was positively associated with all three burnout dimensions (Vitali et al., 2015). Isoard-
203 Gauthier, Guillet-Descas, & Duda (2013) discovered that athletes with high levels of

204 devaluation of sport and reduced sense of accomplishment perceived a more ego-involving
205 climate. Coaches who create a task-involving climate may help protect their athletes from
206 experiencing burnout; whereas, athletes in an ego-involving climate feel that they are in an
207 environment where they must demonstrate higher ability than those around them, and may have
208 an increased risk of experiencing burnout (Lemyre et al., 2008). While research with adolescent
209 athletes has focused on the perceived motivational climate and burnout, further research is
210 needed to examine the effects of the caring climate on burnout in collegiate athletes.

211 Motivational climates can affect burnout, but also impact other factors that may influence
212 burnout like positive affect (i.e., enthusiasm, alertness, etc.) and negative affect (i.e., anger,
213 contempt, disgust, etc.). Research involving perceived motivational climate and positive and
214 negative affect has found that perceptions of an ego-involving climate were positively associated
215 with negative affect and negatively associated with positive affect (Harwood, Keegan, Smith, &
216 Raine, 2015). Additional research involving collegiate intramural sports found task-involving
217 climates to be modestly, positively related to positive affect (Webb & Forrester, 2016). Links
218 between burnout and positive and negative affect have been identified as DeFreese and Smith
219 (2014) found that negative affect significantly predicts global burnout in collegiate swimming
220 and track and field athletes. Seifriz, Duda, and Chi (1992) reported that the climate coaches
221 create can impact their athletes positive affect. While there is a link between burnout and positive
222 and negative affect, further research is needed to determine how perceptions of the climate relate
223 to positive and negative affect and burnout.

224 Although more research is needed with positive and negative affect, research on
225 perceived motivational climates and well-being has found a caring and task-involving climate to
226 be the most beneficial for individuals (Brown & Fry, 2014; Reinboth & Duda, 2006). In an

227 exercise setting, Brown and Fry (2014) found that individuals' sense of well-being was
228 positively related to a caring and task-involving climate. When examining athletes, Reinboth and
229 Duda (2006) found that to facilitate athlete well-being through sport, a caring and task-involving
230 climate needs to be emphasized. This research suggests that caring features (e.g., feeling valued,
231 listened to, and supported) exhibited by the coach are important for athlete well-being.

232 For athletes to thrive in sport, a caring/task involving climate should be emphasized to
233 reduce burnout, increase positive affect, and increase athlete well-being. While research has
234 supported these relationships, there have been limited links between motivational climate,
235 burnout, positive and negative affect, and well-being in the Division I collegiate athlete
236 population. There is a need to examine these relationships to better understand how the
237 motivational climate can impact athletes' willingness to play and their well-being, which could
238 impact their performance over time. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships
239 between collegiate athletes' perceptions of the motivational climate on their sport team to their
240 levels of sport burnout (i.e., devaluation of sport; physical and emotional exhaustion; and
241 reduced sense of accomplishment), positive and negative affect, and psychological well-being. It
242 was hypothesized that athletes' perceptions of a more caring and task-involving climate with less
243 emphasis on an ego-involving climate, would be negatively associated with burnout and negative
244 affect, and positively associated with positive affect and psychological well-being.

245 **Method**

246 **Participants**

247 Data was collected from a convenience sample of 104 Division I athletes. The sample
248 consisted of males (42.3%) and females (57.7%) age 18 to 24 years. Athletes were freshmen
249 (32.7%), sophomores (20.8%), juniors (24.8%), and seniors (18.8%); three percent of the

250 participants had redshirted. The sample was mostly Caucasian/White (90.4%) followed by
251 athletes who identified as multiple race/ethnicity (3.8%). Few athletes identified as African
252 American/Black (1.8%), Asian/Pacific Islander (1.8%), and Hispanic/Latino (1.8%). Athletes
253 participated in rowing (52.9%), baseball (33.7%), golf (8.7%), and diving (4.8%) and 48.5% of
254 athletes identified as starters for their team. Four different teams were represented from one
255 NCAA Division I school. Most athletes in the sample (38.8%) were in their first year of college
256 play, while only 18.4% were in their fourth year. Athletes indicated that they had been
257 participating in their sport for 1 to 20 years. Most athletes participated for multiple reasons
258 including scholarship, love for their sport, wanting to play professionally, their teammates, and
259 other. After college, most athletes (72%) planned to keep participating in their sport. Ways they
260 plan to keep participating in their sport included coaching, pursuing a professional career,
261 playing in a recreational league, playing on a club team, being an agent, athletic director, sport
262 marketing consultant, playing in the minor leagues, and others. A little over half of the athletes
263 were not currently injured (58.7%), but half of athletes indicated they were playing with pain
264 (52.4%). Most athletes rated their pain at or below 4 (72.2%) with the highest pain rating being 8
265 out of 10.

266 **Measures**

267 The survey assessed demographic information as well as the motivational climate, caring
268 climate, athlete burnout, positive and negative affect, well-being, and subjective vitality.

269 Described below are the measures that were used to assess the study variables:

270 *Demographics.* Participants identified which sport they were playing, age, level of
271 eligibility, gender, race/ethnicity, starting status, number of years of college experience, and

272 number of years of overall experience in the sport. Participants also indicated if they were
273 currently injured and how much pain they had while playing.

274 *Motivational Climate.* The perceived motivational climate was assessed using the 21-item
275 Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire (PMCSQ; Seifriz, Duda, & Chi, 1992).
276 Athletes' perceptions of the dominating motivational climate on their team during the season was
277 assessed. The item consists of two subscales: task-involving (9 items) and ego-involving (12
278 items). Perceived task-involving climate was assessed using items that indicate the emphasis is
279 on best effort, personal improvement, mistakes are viewed as part of learning, and everyone
280 plays an important role (e.g., "The coach focuses on skill improvement"). The perceived ego-
281 involving climate was assessed using items that signify encouragement of team rivalry, most
282 attention given to "star" players, mistakes being punished, and value placed on
283 winning/performance (e.g., "Out-playing teammates is important"). Responses were recorded
284 using a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = "strongly agree", 5 = "strongly disagree"). The PMCSQ
285 has demonstrated adequate validity and internal reliability (Seifriz, Duda, & Chi, 1992).

286 *Caring Climate.* Athletes' perceptions of the caring climate was assessed using the 13-
287 item Caring Climate Scale (CCS; Newton et al., 2007). The CCS measures multiple caring
288 elements including support, acceptance, value, and concern (e.g., On this team, athletes feel they
289 are treated fairly). Responses were recorded using a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly
290 disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Previous research shows adequate validity and reliability for the
291 scale (Newton M. , et al., 2007).

292 *Athlete Burnout.* Athletes' perceived burnout was assessed using the Athlete Burnout
293 Questionnaire (ABQ; Raedeke & Smith, 2001). The ABQ contains three subscales consisting of
294 five items each, which measure (a) reduced sense of accomplishment (e.g., It seems that no

295 matter what I do, I don't perform as well as I should), (b) devaluation (e.g., I feel less concerned
296 about being successful in basketball than I used to), and (c) emotional/physical exhaustions (e.g.,
297 I am exhausted by the physical and mental demands of basketball). Participants responded on a
298 five-point Likert-type scale (1 = "almost never", 5 = "almost always"). Subscale scores will be
299 calculated by averaging the item scores corresponding to the dimensions of athlete burnout. A
300 total burnout score will also be created by averaging the scores on all items. The ABQ has
301 exhibited acceptable internal consistency and good reliability with constructs related to burnout
302 (Cresswell, 2009; DeFreese & Smith, 2013; Raedeke & Smith, 2001).

303 *Positive and Negative Affect.* Athlete affect was assessed using the Positive and Negative
304 Affect Scale (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). The PANAS consists of 10 positive
305 (e.g., interested) and 10 negative (e.g., distressed) items. Participants respond on a five-point
306 Likert-type scale (1 = "Very slightly or not at all", 5 = "Extremely") on how they have felt
307 during this season. The PANAS has shown adequate internal consistency and reliability (Watson,
308 Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

309 *Well-Being.* Athlete well-being was assessed using the short form of the Mental Health
310 Continuum (MHC-SF; Keyes, 2009). The MHC-SF consists of 14 items that measure emotional
311 well-being (3 items), psychological well-being (6 items), and social well-being (5 items).
312 Participants respond on a six-point Likert-type scale (0 = "never", 5 = "every day"). The MHC-
313 SF has shown good internal consistency (> .80) and reliability (> .55 on all subscales).

314 *Subjective Vitality.* Six items from the Subjective Vitality Scale (SVS; Ryan & Frederick,
315 1997) were used to measure athletes' feelings of vitality (e.g., "I look forward to each new
316 day"). Participants responded on a seven-point Likert-type scale where they indicated how true

317 the statement was for them (1 = “not at all”, 7 = “very true”). The SVS has shown good
318 reliability and validity in past research (Ryan & Frederick, 1997).

319 *Additional Items.* Ten items were created to assess athletes’ feelings of care outside of
320 sport from their coaches and teammates. Five items assessed athletes’ feelings of coach care
321 (e.g., “My coach cares more about what is best for my well-being than winning a game”). Five
322 items assessed athletes’ feelings of team care (e.g., “I spend time with my teammates outside of
323 sport”). Participants responded on a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = “strongly disagree, 5 =
324 “strongly agree”). There was good reliability for both scales (coach care = .82, team care = .85).

325 **Procedure**

326 Following institutional review board approval, permission was secured from athletic
327 directors and team coaches via telephone to recruit athletes for the survey. Thirty-four coaches
328 were contacted to participate in the study and four agreed to have their athletes participate. Two
329 coaches declined to have their athletes participate, and the other 28 did not return email or
330 voicemail messages.

331 When coaches agreed to allow their teams to participate in the study, a session was
332 scheduled, and trained research assistants travelled to practice sites on days specified to collect
333 data from each team. Athletes gave their consent to participate in the study through an
334 information statement given to each athlete on the day of data collection. They were informed
335 that participating in the study was optional. A questionnaire was administered in person during
336 the athletic season and took athletes 12 to 15 minutes to complete. To avoid potentially biased
337 results due to an order effect, where survey responses are affected by previous responses, the
338 questionnaires were placed in counterbalanced order. At the time of data collection, all teams
339 were experiencing moderately successful seasons.

340 **Statistical Analysis**

341 Mean, standard deviation, and Cronbach reliability coefficients were calculated for all of
342 the scales. For each measure variable, Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated. Lastly,
343 three canonical correlation analyses were conducted to examine the relationships between the
344 motivational climate (caring, task, and ego) and the outcome variables.

345 **Results**

346 The statistics package used for analysis was IBM SPSS .22. Cronbach's reliability
347 coefficients, mean scores, and standard deviations were calculated for each scale and presented
348 in Table 1. The reliability coefficients were acceptable ($\alpha > .70$) for all variables except
349 emotional well-being ($\alpha = .68$), which was near acceptability. The emotional well-being scale
350 consisted of 3 items, and the item-deletion procedure indicated that deleting an item would not
351 improve the reliability coefficient. The emotional well-being scale was kept for further analysis
352 since the alpha value was near acceptability.

353 Mean scores indicated that athletes perceived a moderately high caring, task-involving
354 climate as well as a moderate ego-involving climate. Athletes reported low to moderate burnout
355 (emotional/physical exhaustion, reduced sense of accomplishment, devaluation of sport), and
356 moderate to high positive affect, subjective vitality, and well-being (emotional, social,
357 psychological). Further, athletes reported low negative affect and indicated their coach and
358 teammates care about them.

359 The Pearson correlation coefficients revealed that perceptions of a caring and task-
360 involving climate were significantly and positively associated with the well-being total score and
361 two of its subscales (emotional and social), positive affect, subjective vitality, and coach care.
362 Furthermore, a caring and task-involving climate was significantly negatively associated with

363 total burnout and the three burnout subscales (emotional/physical exhaustion, reduced sense of
364 accomplishment, and devaluation of sport). No significant relationship was found between a
365 caring and task-involving climate and psychological well-being subscale, negative affect, or
366 team care. Perceptions of an ego-involving climate were significantly and positively associated
367 with total burnout and two burnout subscales (emotional/physical exhaustion and devaluation of
368 sport). Additionally, an ego-involving climate was significantly negatively associated with
369 feelings of coach care. No significant relationship was found between an ego-involving climate
370 and the well-being subscales, positive affect, negative affect, subjective vitality, or team care.

371 Three separate canonical correlations were performed to examine the relationship of the
372 climate to the outcome variables. All canonical correlations revealed one significant function
373 [Model 1: $L = .55$, $F(9) = 6.98$ ($p < .001$); Model 2: $L = .50$, $F(12) = 6.10$ ($p < .001$); Model 3:
374 $L = .68$, $F(9) = 4.14$ ($p < .001$)]. The first canonical correlation examined the relationship
375 between the climate variables (caring, task-involving, ego-involving) and burnout subscales
376 (emotional/physical exhaustion, reduced sense of accomplishment, devaluation of sport; see
377 Model 1). The canonical for the climate variables to the burnout variables was .62 with 38%
378 overlapping variance. The loadings revealed perceptions of a high caring and task-involving
379 climate and a low ego-involving climate were associated with lower emotional/physical
380 exhaustion, reduced sense of accomplishment, and devaluation of sport.

381 The second canonical correlation examined the relationship between the climate to well-
382 being variables (emotional, social, psychological) and athlete perceptions of their coach caring
383 for them outside of sport (see Model 2). The canonical for the climate variables to well-being
384 variables and coach care was .70 with 48% overlapping variance. The loadings for the canonical
385 correlation revealed perceptions of a high caring and task-involving climate and a low ego-

409 task-involving climate with less emphasis on an ego-involving climate are associated with the
410 reporting of lower levels of all aspects of athlete burnout (emotional/physical exhaustion,
411 reduced sense of accomplishment, and sport devaluation). These findings are in line with
412 previous research where perceptions of a task-involving climate in Olympic athletes was
413 negatively associated with emotional/physical exhaustion and reduced sense of accomplishment
414 (Lemyre et al., 2008). Additional research with high level athletes of all ages (13-53 years) found
415 that perceptions of an empowering (task-involving, autonomy-supportive, and socially-
416 supportive) climate predicted decreases in reduced accomplishment and sport devaluation
417 (Appleton & Duda, 2016). In adolescent athletes, Vitali and colleagues (2015) found perceptions
418 of a task-involving climate to be negatively associated with all burnout subscales; while, Isoard-
419 Gutheur and colleagues (2013) found that with handball players, only reduced sense of
420 accomplishment and sport devaluation were significantly negatively associated with a task-
421 involving climate. Across age groups there have been consistent findings that a task-involving
422 climate is negatively related to burnout and the current study suggests that caring climate
423 features may be equally important to buffer athletes' levels of burnout.

424 Additional evidence has found that athletes' perceptions of an ego-involving climate are
425 positively related to burnout. In Olympic athletes, an ego-involving climate was positively
426 associated with emotional/physical exhaustion and sport devaluation (Lemyre et al., 2008).
427 When examined across multiple age groups a disempowering (ego-involving) climate predicted
428 increases in all aspects of burnout (Appleton & Duda, 2016). In adolescent athletes, an ego-
429 involving climate created by the coach was positively related with total burnout (Ntoumanis,
430 Taylor, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2012; Vitali et al., 2015), while additional work has found
431 positive relations with reduced sense of accomplishment and sport devaluation (Isoard-Gutheur

432 et al., 2013). Research across ages has supported that an ego-involving climate may increase
433 levels of burnout in athletes and the current findings contribute to this literature by revealing
434 supporting evidence with a U.S. sample of Division I athletes. The climates coaches create plays
435 an important role in influencing athletes' perceptions of burnout; however, the role teammates
436 play can also influence athletes' burnout.

437 Ntoumanis et al. (2012), in research in peer created motivational climates, found that a
438 task-involving climate negatively predicted burnout. Additional research with adolescents found
439 that specific features of the peer task-involving climate were related to burnout dimensions.
440 Teammates recognizing personal improvement and effort from other teammates was negatively
441 associated with reduced accomplishment and sport devaluation, while having relatedness support
442 from teammates was negatively associated with all dimensions of burnout (Smith, Gustafsson, &
443 Hassmén, 2010). An ego-involving peer climate feature, intra-team conflict, was positively
444 associated with all dimensions of burnout. Examining both peer and coach created climates can
445 help us better understand the influences on burnout and how to reduce levels of burnout in
446 athletes.

447 In accordance with AGPT (Nicholls, 1989), together current research suggests that
448 individuals in a task-involving climate may have less burnout than athletes in an ego-involving
449 climate. Since a task-involving climate promotes recognizing athletes' personal improvement
450 and effort, athletes may be less likely to feel that they are not improving, because they are
451 focusing on giving their best effort and improving based on their past performance, not on being
452 better than other athletes. On the other hand, an ego-involving climate promotes a focus on being
453 better than other athletes and punishing mistakes. When athletes feel that they have to be better
454 than their teammates and are punished when they make mistakes it would make sense that they

455 would feel increased emotional and physical exhaustion and reduced sense of accomplishment as
456 well as begin to devalue their sport by finding other activities where they are valued more
457 enjoyable. This can be a particular problem at the Division I level when athletes are deeply
458 involved in their sport, practicing numerous hours each day and having every hour of their day
459 planned out for them, while also having an intense pressure put on them to win by their coaches.

460 Features of the caring climate, as identified in the framework, can have an impact on
461 athletes' burnout as well. Athletes who experience burnout enjoyed playing their sport at one
462 point, but when they have high levels of burnout no longer enjoy their sport like they once did
463 (Gould, Tuffey, Udry, & Loehr, 1996). The current study showed that a caring and task-
464 involving climate can decrease perceptions of burnout. One reason for this decrease in burnout
465 may be that a caring climate has been linked to increases in enjoyment (Fry & Gano-Overway,
466 2010). If athletes no longer enjoy sport, because of the pressures they feel associated with sport,
467 a caring climate may combat these stressors through increasing feelings of safety, support, and
468 belonging. When a climate focuses on ego-involving features including high ability being
469 valued, intrateam rivalry, mistakes being punished, and winning, athletes may have increases in
470 burnout, because they cannot control variables like their ability. If athletes focus on aspects of
471 their performance like effort, instead of ability, that they can control, they are more likely to
472 experience less burnout than athletes who focus on aspects they cannot control.

473 The implications for climate and burnout show how climate can influence athletes' ill-
474 being; however, climate also impacts athletes' well-being. This study also examined the
475 relationship between the motivational climate to athlete well-being (emotional, social, and
476 psychological) and coach care, indicating that perceptions of a high caring and task-involving
477 climate with low emphasis on an ego-involving climate are associated with higher emotional

478 well-being, social well-being, and coach care. In the current study the psychological well-being
479 subscale of the MHC-SF (Keyes, 2009) did not meet the requirements for significance within the
480 canonical model, although previous research has identified that a caring and task-involving
481 climate can influence psychological well-being. Fry and colleagues (2012) found that in youth
482 athletes, psychological well-being (i.e. increased hope and happiness; decreased depression and
483 sadness) is strengthened by the caring climate through emotional efficacy. When athletes
484 perceived a caring climate their emotional efficacy was strengthened which increased their
485 psychological well-being. Stark and Newton (2014) found a mixed climate (where ego-involving
486 features are most prominent and caring/task features are less emphasized) can threaten
487 adolescent dancers well-being (i.e., body esteem, positive relationships with teachers and peers,
488 more friends, positive affect, and decreased negative affect).

489 Additionally, British elite dancers' perceptions of a task-involving climate were
490 positively related to well-being (i.e., positive affect), while, an ego-involving climate was
491 negatively related to well-being and positively related to ill-being (i.e., negative affect and
492 emotional/physical exhaustion) (Quested & Duda, 2010). In British adolescent soccer and cricket
493 players, a task-involving climate positively predicted well-being (i.e., self-esteem) and
494 negatively predicted athletes' ill-being (i.e., physical symptoms) (Reinboth & Duda, 2004).
495 Psychological well-being (self-esteem, positive affect, and satisfaction with life) was also
496 significantly and positively related to an autonomy supportive environment in youth athletes
497 (Cronin & Allen, 2015). While a task-involving climate has a positive relationship with well-
498 being, ego-involving climates consistently are negatively correlated to well-being. In addition,
499 when adolescent athletes perceive they have low ability and are in an ego-involving climate they

500 report lower levels of well-being (self-esteem) than athletes with higher perceptions of their
501 ability (Reinboth & Duda, 2004).

502 Contrary to our findings and past research, Lundqvist and Raglin (2015) found that a
503 task-involving climate served as only a minor contributor to well-being (i.e. positive affect, life
504 satisfaction, and psychological well-being) and perceptions of an ego-involving climate did not
505 contribute to differences in well-being suggesting that motivational climate is less important for
506 elite athletes. This research is not in line with our findings where Division I athletes' perceptions
507 of a more caring and task-involving climate was positively associated with well-being. Lundqvist
508 and Raglin's research examined orienteering athletes which is a unique sport and may require
509 much practice; however, Division I athletes are intensely involved in their sport which may
510 account for a stronger link to motivational climate.

511 According to AGPT (Nicholls, 1989), a task-involving climate includes features of all
512 athletes playing an important role and mistakes being viewed as part of learning. These features
513 can help athletes cope with stressors and feel valued which can increase their well-being. While
514 an ego-involving climate includes features like rivalry among teammates and only star athletes
515 getting attention, when athletes feel increases in conflict and stress through these features they
516 can be potentially detrimental to athletes' well-being. Adding to the positive impact a task-
517 involving climate can have on well-being, a caring climate may provide additional benefits
518 through making athletes feel safe, supported, and welcomed. When athletes feel more supported
519 and safe while having a sense of belonging on their team they are more likely to be able to cope
520 with the stresses sport can cause and have increased well-being compared to athletes in a more
521 ego-involving climate.

522 Several specific aspects have been examined as part of athletes' well-being including
523 positive affect, negative affect (ill-being), and subjective vitality. These aspects have been used
524 as markers of well-being in previous research, but were examined as specific aspects that can be
525 influenced by the climate in our study. The current study revealed that a high caring and task-
526 involving climate was associated with increased positive affect and subjective vitality. Negative
527 affect did not contribute to the canonical correlation. Our results align with previous research
528 where Olympic athletes in an autonomy-supportive environment reported increases in positive
529 affect (Solberg & Halvari, 2009). Athletes in an autonomy-supportive environment feel their
530 opinions are valued and that they have input on how practices are structured. In a caring climate
531 athletes also feel that their opinions are valued while also feeling safe, supported, and a sense of
532 belonging; therefore, if athletes in an autonomy-supportive environment report increased positive
533 affect it would make sense that athletes in a caring climate would feel the same. Kipp and Weiss
534 (2015) found that adolescent gymnasts' perceptions of a task-involving climate were positively
535 associated with positive affect, while adolescent dancers perceptions of a caring and task-
536 involving climate were related to increases in positive affect (Stark & Newton, 2014).
537 Additionally, when adolescent gymnasts perceived an ego-involving climate a negative
538 association with positive affect was found (Kipp & Weiss, 2015). A mixed climate, where an
539 ego-involving climate is most prominent with less emphasis on a caring and task-involving
540 climate, was also examined with adolescent athletes and found to be detrimental to athletes'
541 positive affect (Stark & Newton, 2014).

542 While coach created climates can influence athletes' affect, so can peer climates. A peer
543 created task-involving climate perceived by university intramural sport participants significantly
544 predicted positive affect, while an ego-involving climate significantly predicted negative affect

545 (Webb & Forrester, 2016). Therefore, the peer created climate may also have an impact on
546 athletes' well-being. Motivational climate (caring, task, ego) has been associated with athletes'
547 positive affect, but is also related to athletes subjective vitality.

548 In line with past research, our results indicated that a caring and task-involving climate
549 was associated with increased subjective vitality. Reinboth and Duda (2006) found that when
550 university athletes were surveyed, their perceptions of a task-involving climate were associated
551 with increases in subjective vitality. Additional research with university students also found a
552 positive relationship between a task-involving climate and subjective vitality (Reinboth & Duda,
553 2016). Even in adolescent soccer players, a task-involving climate was positively related to
554 subjective vitality (Adie, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2012). While direct relationships between climate
555 and subjective vitality have been examined, other research with adolescent soccer players found
556 that perceptions of a high task-involving climate predicted athletes' psychological needs which
557 predicted increased intrinsic motivation and more subjective vitality (Alvarez, Balaguer, Castillo,
558 & Duda, 2012). Our present study along with past research has shown how a caring and task-
559 involving climate is beneficial for athletes through a positive association to their subjective
560 vitality which may also be important for athletes' well-being.

561 These findings on positive and negative affect and subjective vitality are in line with
562 AGPT (Nicholls, 1989). When a task-involving climate focuses on mistakes as part of learning
563 athletes may be more determined, because they are encouraged to view a mistake as something
564 they can learn from to improve, not a cause for experiencing shame (Fontana, Fry, & Cramer,
565 2017). When athletes focus on giving high effort they may also feel more determined because
566 they know that they can control their effort and that it is valued. Athletes also viewing their own
567 personal improvement as important in this climate can help them feel proud and inspired through

568 working to be better than they were before, without a requirement to outperform others.

569 Additional aspects of a caring climate (Newton et al., 2007), feeling safe and supported, can add
570 to the positive affect athletes have through feeling interested and excited because they know they
571 have the support of their team behind them.

572 **Limitations**

573 While the results of this study contribute to research on burnout in sport, limitations of
574 the study should be noted. First, athletes only responded to the questionnaire at one point in time.
575 Having multiple time points would allow researchers to examine whether climate predicts
576 burnout, positive and negative affect, and well-being across time. Another limitation was the
577 small sample size; having more athletes would allow for more rigorous analyses and examination
578 of differences across gender and team and individual sport. While this was a limitation, accessing
579 Division I athletes can be extremely difficult due to their time commitments to sport and
580 academics. Also, 34 coaches were contacted, but only four agreed to have their team participate.
581 It is difficult to know why many coaches did not respond, coaches may have felt that their
582 athletes did not perceive a good environment on their team. It is also possible that coaches
583 hesitated to allow their athletes to participate because their teams were in season and both
584 coaches and athletes were very busy. Coaches also may have been less willing to have their
585 athletes participate if their jobs were in jeopardy and felt that the results would not reflect well
586 on their coaching, although they would be the only ones to see their athletes' individual results. It
587 is possible too that coaches did not know the researchers and may not have trusted them to ather
588 such sensitive data related to their program. Interestingly, the coaches who did participate knew
589 the researchers and were eager to receive the summary report of the results related to their teams.
590 In addition to sample size there were a small number of individual sport athletes (>15%). Having

591 more individual athletes with a bigger sample size would allow for considering potential
592 differences between team and individual sports. Lastly, recent research has begun to examine
593 how peers play a role in creating team climate. By examining both peer and coach created
594 climate, it would be possible to obtain a more complete understanding of the specific aspects of
595 the climate that influence athlete burnout, positive and negative affect, and well-being.

596 **Future Directions**

597 Future research should address these limitation issues through having multiple data points
598 throughout the season to consider how athletes' perceptions of team climate can predict burnout
599 and well-being. Additionally, using qualitative research to better understand athletes' thoughts
600 and feelings about sport would be helpful to understand what aspects specifically influence the
601 different burnout subscales. While theoretically certain aspects make sense, it would be
602 beneficial for athletes and coaches to share their specific views about how the team climate
603 contributes to burnout and well-being. Future research also needs to address the differences in
604 measuring well-being and how to create a more well-accepted measure to use across studies. The
605 current measure used for psychological well-being looked at global aspects of well-being and not
606 aspects related to athletes' sport experience. The global nature of the MHC-SF may have
607 contributed to psychological well-being not being a significant contributor to Model 2. Lastly,
608 combining theoretical perspectives like self-determination theory (SDT) and achievement goal
609 perspective theory (AGPT) would be helpful in understanding how athletes' perceptions of the
610 climate and basic needs satisfaction can work together to help athletes have lower levels of
611 burnout and increased well-being. Research has focused on SDT and found that increased
612 competence predicted decreases in emotional/physical exhaustion and reduced sense of
613 accomplishment (Isoard-Gauthier et al., 2013). Combining both theoretical perspectives would

614 provide one route to examine all influences together for a more complete view of burnout and
615 well-being in sport.

616 **Conclusion**

617 In summary, Division I athletes have tremendous pressure put on them to win and have a
618 high level of commitment to their sport. The importance of climate has been identified in sport
619 psychology literature, but the current study adds to that research by showing a relationship
620 between motivational climate (caring, task, ego) and Division I athletes' levels of burnout,
621 positive affect, and well-being. Knust & Fisher (2015) noted that coaches at the collegiate level
622 are creating caring climates and see them as beneficial. Continued research will be important for
623 helping college athletes maximize their sport experience and health outcomes.

624

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761 Table 1 Descriptive Statistics and Pearson Correlations

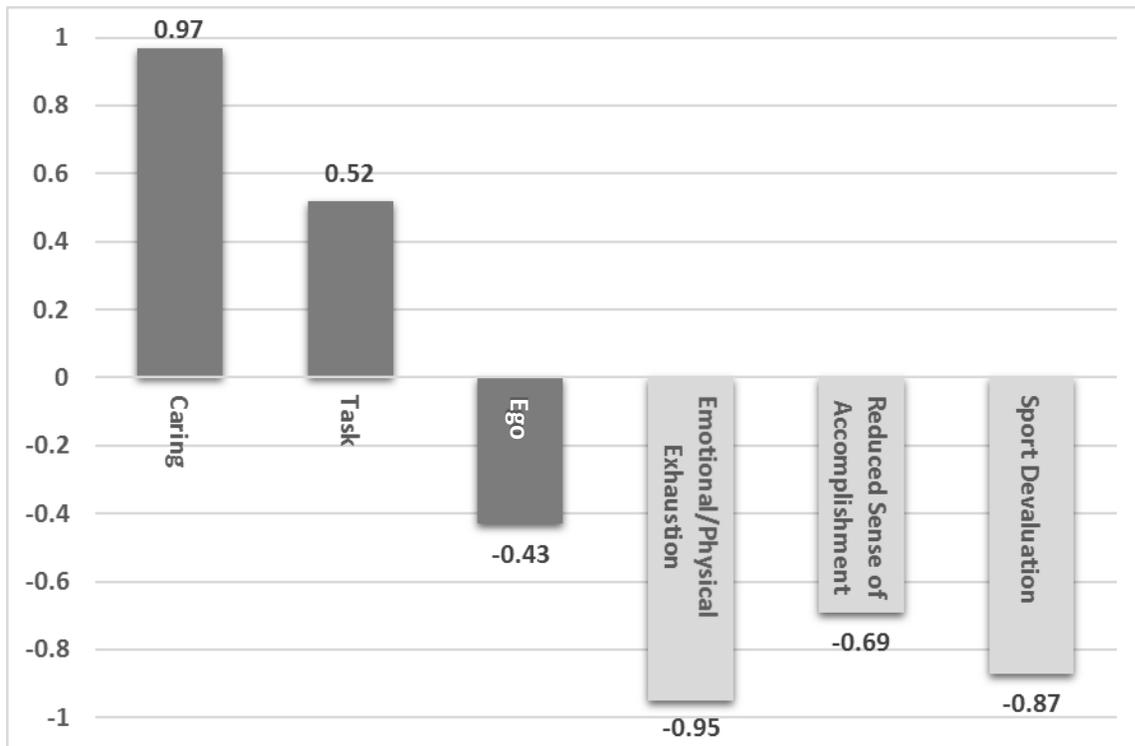
	Min.	Max.	\bar{x}	<i>SD</i>	α	1	2	3
1. Caring Climate	1.15	5.00	3.85	0.75	0.95	-		
2. Task Climate	2.11	4.89	3.85	0.55	0.76	.64**	-	
3. Ego Climate	2.17	4.83	3.54	0.62	0.83	-.26**	-.19	-
4. Total Burnout	1.13	4.87	2.42	0.81	0.92	-.61**	-.35**	.28**
5. Emotional/Physical Exhaustion	1.00	5.00	2.85	1.12	0.92	-.57**	-.23*	.25*
6. Reduced Sense of Accomplishment	1.00	5.00	2.33	0.78	0.78	-.44**	-.29**	.18
7. Devaluation of Sport	1.00	5.00	2.07	0.93	0.88	-.54**	-.39**	.29**
8. Total Well-being	2.57	6.00	4.74	0.70	0.89	.32**	.25*	-.01
9. Emotional Well-Being	2.33	6.00	4.75	0.73	0.68	.27**	.22*	-.10
10. Social Well-Being	2.40	6.00	4.49	0.85	0.75	.39**	.29**	-.03
11. Psychological Well-Being	2.17	6.00	4.94	0.8	0.86	.17	.16	.06
12. Positive Affect	1.40	5.00	4.05	0.68	0.92	.44**	.49**	-.09
13. Negative Affect	1.10	4.60	2.19	0.68	0.85	-.10	.07	-.08
14. Subjective Vitality	1.83	7.00	4.71	1.22	0.91	.38**	.24*	-.06
15. Coach Care	1.00	5.00	3.94	0.71	0.82	.64**	.37**	-.37**
16. Team Care	2.20	5.00	4.41	0.63	0.85	.17	.12	.05

762 **p* < .05 ***p* < .01

763 Note. Athletes responded to all scales on a 1-5 scale except all well-being scales (total, emotional, social,
 764 and psychological) which were responded to on a 1-6 scale and subjective vitality which was responded
 765 to on a 1-7 scale.

766 Model 1: Canonical Correlation Result of Climate to Burnout

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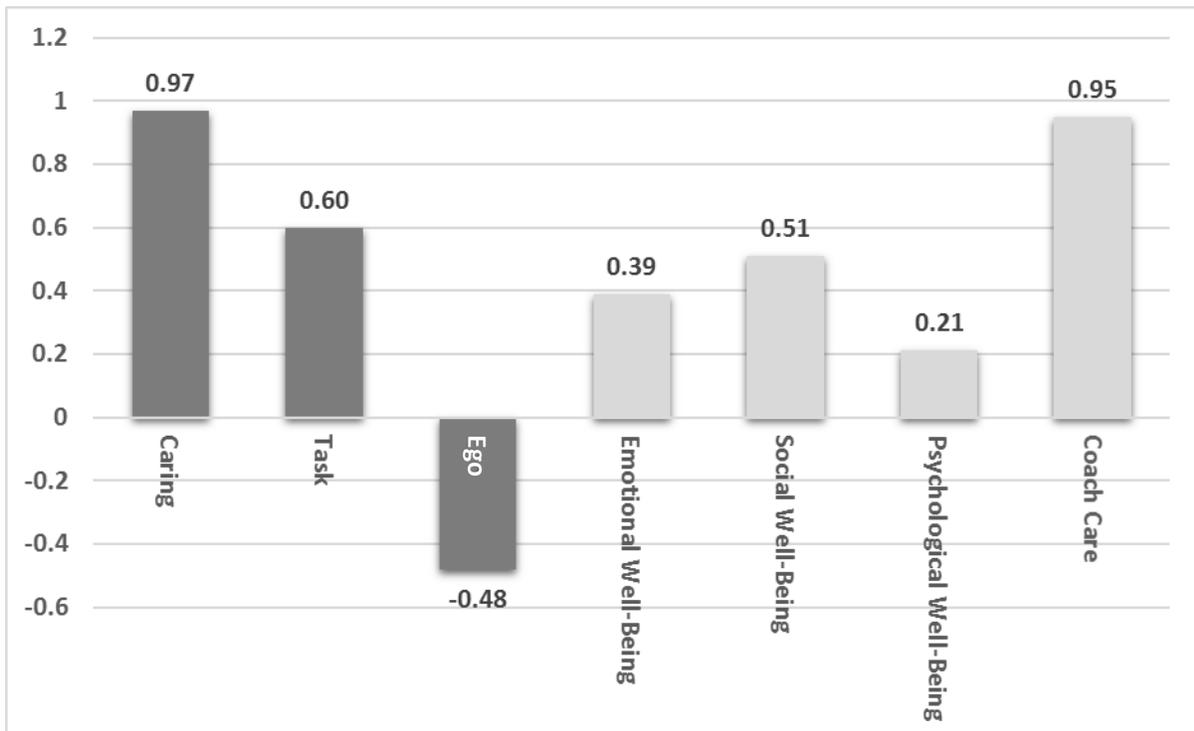


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770 Model 2: Canonical Correlation Result of Climate to Well-Being and Coach Care

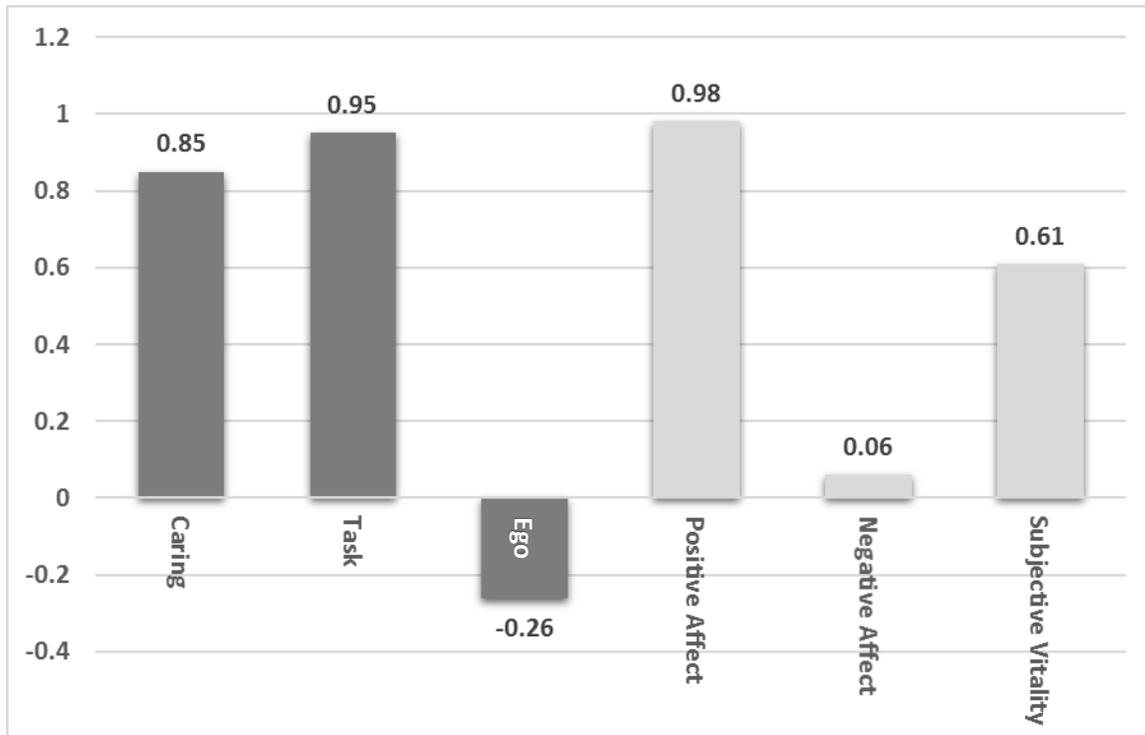
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773 Model 3: Canonical Correlation Result of Climate to Positive Affect, Negative Affect, and
774 Subjective Vitality

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APPROVAL OF PROTOCOL

March 7, 2017

Hannah Vanorsby
 hgvanorsby@ku.edu

Dear Hannah Vanorsby:

On 3/7/2017, the IRB reviewed the following submission:

Type of Review:	Initial Study
Title of Study:	The Relationship Between Perceived Motivational Climate, Burnout, and Well-Being in Collegiate Athletes
Investigator:	Hannah Vanorsby
IRB ID:	STUDY00140599
Funding:	None
Grant ID:	None
Documents Reviewed:	• Information Statement for Athletes, • Initial Submission Form, • Protocol , • Survey

The IRB approved the study on 3/7/2017.

1. Notify HSCL about any new investigators not named in original application. Note that new investigators must take the online tutorial at https://rgs.drupal.ku.edu/human_subjects_compliance_training.
2. Any injury to a subject because of the research procedure must be reported immediately.
3. When signed consent documents are required, the primary investigator must retain the signed consent documents for at least three years past completion of the research activity.

Continuing review is not required for this project, however you are required to report any significant changes to the protocol prior to altering the project.

Please note university data security and handling requirements for your project:
<https://documents.ku.edu/policies/IT/DataClassificationandHandlingProceduresGuide.htm>

You must use the final, watermarked version of the consent form, available under the "Documents" tab in eCompliance.

Sincerely,

Stephanie Dyson Elms, MPA
 IRB Administrator, KU Lawrence Campus

812 Extended Literature Review

813 Athletes choose to discontinue sport for a number of reasons; however, one of the most
814 damaging is burnout. Burnout is characterized by feelings of exhaustion, both physical and
815 mental, reduced accomplishment, and valuing one's sport less (Raedeke, 1997). When athletes
816 feel that they are physically/mentally exhausted, achieving less than they should, and are less
817 passionate about their sport they may be experiencing burnout. Burnout is different from
818 dropout, because of the combination of these aspects. While athletes may dropout after
819 experiencing burnout for an extended period; many athletes who are suffering from burnout are
820 still involved in their sport, but no longer enjoy sport. Burnout has been found to be associated
821 with negative affect, lack of social support, reduced athlete well-being, and loss of motivation
822 (Cresswell, 2009; Cresswell & Eklund, 2013; DeFreese & Smith, 2013; DeFreese & Smith,
823 2014; Gould, Tuffey, Udry, & Loehr, 1996; Lemyre, Hall, & Roberts, 2008; Holmberg &
824 Sheridan, 2013; Isoard-Gautheur, Guillet-Descas, & Duda, 2013). Burnout in collegiate athletes
825 also increases significantly with time (Lai & Wiggins, 2003). Since burnout can have such a
826 damaging effect on athletes, including their well-being, it is important to examine ways to
827 decrease the likelihood that athletes will experience burnout. To better understand the
828 phenomenon of burnout several models have been studied.

829 **Burnout in Sport**

830 Several different perspectives including Smith's cognitive-affective stress model (1986),
831 Coakley's unidimensional identity development and external control model (1992), and
832 Raedeke's motivational model (1997) have been employed to examine burnout. Smith views
833 burnout as a response to extreme stress through psychological, emotional, and, sometimes,
834 physical withdrawal from sport or a specific sport activity (1986). The cognitive-affective stress

835 model uses the outcomes, rewards minus costs, in a sporting context to measure how satisfying a
836 sport experience is for an individual. Rewards in the sport context include skill improvement,
837 increased fitness, feelings of mastery, and recognition. Costs in sport may be fear of failure,
838 competitive pressures, not liking a coach, conflicts with teammates, and excessive time/energy
839 demands. If the costs outweigh the rewards an athlete experiences excessive stress and the
840 activity becomes less enjoyable. According to Smith, when athletes experience burnout they
841 have feelings of low energy/chronic fatigue; increased illness; feelings of depression,
842 helplessness, and anger; and negative attitudes toward sport and life. Athletes experiencing
843 burnout may also feel that everything is too much and resent anyone who adds to their demands.

844 Another burnout model that developed later was Coakley's unidimensional identity
845 development and external control model (1992). Coakley argues that burnout is rooted in the
846 social organization of sport, as well as, issues with identity and control. In this model athletes'
847 identities are confined to their sport due to overinvolvement in sport from a young age where
848 they do not control their involvement. When athletes are young and begin participating in sport it
849 is often because their parents sign them up for a specific sport. These athletes may not get to
850 choose which sport they play. Through interviews with athletes Coakley found that by only
851 being involved in a single sport from a young age athletes develop strong sport athletic identity
852 and have trouble viewing themselves outside of their sport experiences. This causes an increase
853 in the importance of sport and increases the threat failure can have on the athlete. When
854 improvement in skill was accompanied by increased expectations, athletes felt they would never
855 be good enough. Coakley argues that a change has to be made to the sport organization, social
856 relations in sport, and available life experiences. The final emphasis of this model is that stress is
857 a symptom, rather than the cause, of burnout.

858 One of the most recent models of burnout is Raedeke's motivational model of entrapment
859 (1997). This model includes three components of burnout: emotional and physical exhaustion,
860 reduced sense of accomplishment, and devaluation of sport. Emotional and physical exhaustion
861 includes the physiological and psychological demands athletes have when training and
862 competing. Reduced sense of accomplishment includes how athletes feel about their sport
863 abilities and achievements. Devaluation of sport involves what is important to athletes and
864 develops through negative attitudes toward sport along with the athletes' involvement in sport.
865 With devaluation, athletes may quit caring about their sport and how they perform. In this view,
866 burnout is defined in relation to athletes' performance in sport. By using this perspective,
867 withdrawal from sport through burnout can be differentiated from dropout for other reasons (e.g.
868 participating in track and field instead of basketball because of different interests, not negative
869 attitudes toward basketball). This allows for a more holistic view of burnout compared to
870 Smith's cognitive-affective stress model and Coakley's unidimensional identity development and
871 external control model. Although athletes do experience stress, not all athletes experience
872 burnout; therefore, there has to be more to burnout than stress. While athletes may feel a lack of
873 control and develop a unidimensional identity, this contributes to burnout only if athletes
874 question the value of sport or feel they are trapped. Raedeke's theory incorporates Smith's model
875 through the concept that athletes who feel entrapped in their sport will burn out because the costs
876 outweigh the rewards.

877 A commitment perspective was examined by Raedeke (1997) to show that athletes with
878 higher enjoyment, benefits, perceived control, and personal investments, as well as, lower costs,
879 social constraints, and attractiveness to other alternatives would be less likely to experience
880 burnout. With this theory, four profiles of burnout emerged including enthusiastic, obligated,

881 malcontented, and indifferent athletes. Enthusiastic athletes view their sport favorably, are
882 committed, and enjoy participating in their sport; these athletes have the lowest burnout scores.
883 Athletes who are enthusiastic about their sport are more likely to view their sport favorably and
884 enjoy their sport making them less likely to burnout. The obligated athletes have low perceived
885 control, high social constraints, but were not high or low in attraction to sport. They also had
886 high identities associated with their sport and moderately high investments. With low perceived
887 control, high social constraints, and strong sport identities these athletes could be developing
888 burnout. The malcontented athletes have high social constraints, low perceived control, and view
889 sport participation more negatively compared to other profiles. With these negative feelings
890 toward sport and low control these athletes have the highest burnout scores and are most likely to
891 be suffering from burnout. The indifferent athletes had low to average scores on all commitment
892 determinants. This profile shows athletes that are not attracted to sport, but also are not entrapped
893 by it. By examining Raedeke's model and profiles a combined viewpoint of social constraints
894 and commitment can be examined.

895 **Burnout and Motivation**

896 Past research has employed self-determination theory (SDT) as a framework to examine
897 burnout in sport. Research using this perspective found burnout to be negatively associated with
898 intrinsic motivation and positively associated with amotivation (Cresswell & Eklund, 2013;
899 Holmberg & Sheridan, 2013). Further research showed that external regulation was strongly
900 related to devaluation (Holmberg & Sheridan, 2013), whereas amotivation was strongly related
901 to all dimensions of burnout, but had the strongest relationship to devaluation. While research
902 with self-determination theory has shown that motivation and burnout are related, research has

903 begun to shift to examining burnout with an Achievement Goal Perspective Theory (AGPT)
904 framework.

905 **Achievement Goal Perspective Theory**

906 According to Achievement Goal Perspective Theory (AGPT), individuals are goal-
907 directed organisms that are intentional and rational (Roberts, 2012). These achievement goals
908 guide how a person acts through behavior and decision making; however, these achievement
909 goals differ for individuals. AGPT identifies three aspects that influence how individuals are
910 motivated: cognitive development, goals orientations, and motivational climate (Nicholls J. G.,
911 1989).

912 **Cognitive Development**

913 Research in AGPT began with children and found that there are two different conceptions
914 of ability (Nicholls J. G., 1978). Children with an undifferentiated conception were not able to
915 differentiate luck, task difficulty, or effort from ability. As children age they became more aware
916 of the differences between effort, luck, task difficulty, and ability. Once children reached age 12
917 they began to have a differentiated conception where they differentiate all of these aspects. Once
918 children are capable of differentiating luck, task difficulty, effort, and ability children begin to
919 develop goal orientations, because they can now understand that ability is a capacity that is
920 maximized by effort.

921 **Goal Orientations**

922 Goal orientations reflect how individuals view achievement situations. If individuals
923 define success through improving their skill they are considered task-oriented (Nicholls J. G.,
924 1984). These individuals feel more competent the more that they learn. The difficulty of a task
925 and the person's ability are self-referenced, because they are determined by how a person has

926 performed in the past. If individuals feel that a task is difficult, but are successful in completing
927 the task then they will feel that they have high ability. The more effort the individual must
928 expend to successfully complete a task the more competent the individual will feel. On the other
929 hand, an individual high in ego-orientation defines success through outperforming others or
930 performing the same task using less effort. Learning a skill is not enough for individuals high in
931 ego orientation to feel competent, they must also be able to perform better than others. These
932 individuals view mastering a task as a means to an end, not an end itself. Individuals may be high
933 in ego orientation and high in task-orientation; therefore, they may be motivated by doing better
934 than others, but also through learning a new task. Nicholls argues that when individuals are both
935 high in task and ego orientation that their ego orientation is not detrimental, because they have
936 high task orientation. Someone could also be high in task orientation, but low in ego orientation.
937 These individuals view success through skill improvement based on their past performance and
938 not on how they do compared to others. Individuals may also be low in task and low in ego
939 orientation. This can be an issue because these athletes are not motivated by mastering a task or
940 outperforming others and may suffer from a lack of motivation. Lastly, individuals may be low
941 in task orientation and high in ego orientation. These individuals are motivated by outperforming
942 others and must do better than those around them to feel competent.

943 There is limited research on how goal orientations affect athlete burnout. Lemyre and
944 colleagues (2008) assessed the relationship between athletes' goal orientations, among other
945 variables, and signs of burnout at the end of the season. They found that elite athletes' goal
946 orientations may affect other social cognitive variables and are important in understanding
947 burnout. Two of the burnout variables, emotional exhaustion and reduced accomplishment, were
948 negatively associated with task orientation while sport devaluation was positively associated

949 with ego orientation. Therefore, an athlete who is low in task orientation may score higher on
950 emotional exhaustion and reduced accomplishment than those high in task orientation. Those
951 athletes who are higher in ego orientation may be more likely to experience feelings of
952 devaluation of sport and possibly more burnout. Future research is warranted to better understand
953 the relationship between individuals goal orientations and their level of burnout. While goal
954 orientations seem to be related to the amount of burnout an athlete experiences these goal
955 orientations may be influenced by other aspects of sport. Research has found that individuals'
956 goal orientation is not permanent and being in a particular climate across a season can influence
957 athletes' goal orientation (Roberts, 2012).

958 **Perceived Motivational Climate**

959 In addition to goal orientation Nicholls also describes two different motivational climates
960 that individuals can perceive in achievement settings such as sport. Like goal orientation,
961 individuals may perceive a more mastery/task-involving climate or performance/ego-involving
962 climate (Seifriz, 1992). In a task-involving climate, the emphasis is on personal improvement,
963 best effort, and the process of performing rather than the performance outcome itself. An
964 emphasis is placed on the effort individuals put into their sport specific tasks, not how well they
965 perform. A task-involving climate has been linked to more enjoyment and greater intrinsic
966 motivation (Seifriz, 1992). Athletes also view using more effort as likely to help them be
967 successful when in a mastery climate. Seifriz and colleagues also found that players who
968 perceived a task-involving climate were more task oriented (1992). On the other hand, a
969 performance/ego-involving climate creates an atmosphere where there is tremendous rivalry
970 among athletes, certain athletes are the "stars", and there are punishments for making mistakes.
971 In ego-involving climates, high ability is perceived to lead to achievement. In this climate, some

972 athletes may not give as much effort or may even give up. Athletes have reported higher levels of
973 anxiety when on teams that have a performance climate because of the emphasis on outcome,
974 punishments for mistakes, and little reinforcement. Athletes' exposure to these distinct
975 motivational climates may shape their goal perspectives and occurrence of burnout (Nicholls,
976 1989).

977 Researchers examined the contributions of motivational climate and won-loss percentage
978 to athletes' views of the coach and sport experience found that when a mastery climate was
979 perceived, athletes liked playing for their coach, felt their coach was more knowledgeable about
980 the sport, viewed their coach as being a good teacher, and were more likely to want to play for
981 their coach the next year. In contrast, perceiving an ego-involving climate was negatively related
982 to the athletes' views of their coach (Cumming, Smoll, Smith, & Grossbard, 2007). In the task-
983 involving climate athletes enjoyed playing on their team more and felt their parents liked their
984 coach more. When coaches elicit a positive task-involving climate that emphasizes personal
985 development and effort, athletes have more positive views of their coaches. With this evidence, it
986 is interesting that coaches still viewed their won-loss record as being important. If athletes view
987 the task-involving climate as more favorable and have a better view of their coach through this
988 climate there must be other social expectations that make coaches foster ego-involving climates.

989 Research has also found a relationship between athletes' perceptions of the climate to
990 their level of perceived burnout. In a study examining adolescent basketball and volleyball
991 players, a task-involving motivational climate was negatively associated with all three burnout
992 dimensions (physical/emotional exhaustions, reduced sense of accomplishment, and sport
993 devaluation) while an ego-involving climate was positively related to all three burnout
994 dimensions (Vitali, Bortoli, Bertinato, Robazza, & Schena, 2015). Therefore, a task-involving

995 climate may play a protective role in decreasing burnout while an ego-involving climate may
996 lead to athlete burnout. Athletes who have reported higher sport devaluation and reduced
997 accomplishment have perceived their coach-created climate to be more ego-involving while
998 burnout characteristics have been negatively associated with task-involving climates (Isoard-
999 Gauthier, Guillet-Descas, & Duda, 2013). Athletes who perceive an ego-involving climate are at
1000 a higher risk of experiencing burnout systems than those in a task-involving climate. Lemyre,
1001 Hall, & Roberts (2008) research on elite athletes found physical/emotional exhaustion and
1002 reduced accomplishment to be negatively linked to a task-involving climate while sport
1003 devaluation was positively associated with an ego-involving climate. Experiencing symptoms of
1004 burnout may be increased with elite athletes feeling that they are in an environment where
1005 success is seen through the demonstration of ability.

1006 While research has examined the effects of the coach-created climate on perceived
1007 burnout, recent research has looked at how peer motivational climate can affect burnout (Smith,
1008 Gustafsson, & Hassmen, 2010). Examining high school athletes in Sweden and the climate peers
1009 can create found that peer climate may be more important in individual sports than in team
1010 sports, where athletes may interact and coach one another more. Specifically, intra-team conflict,
1011 negative comments, laughter, and criticism when a mistake is made, was positively linked to
1012 burnout in individual sports, but not team sports. In this view, athletes competing in an individual
1013 sport may need more support from their teammates and less criticism than those competing in
1014 team sports. With this research, attention to how peers can affect athlete burnout is also
1015 important.

1016

1017

1018 Caring Climate

1019 Research in caring began with Nodding (1992) when she characterized caring as a way of
1020 life where one attends to others' needs through listening, sympathizing, and accepting. Through
1021 caring one should focus on meeting the needs of others and foster their progress rather than
1022 focusing on one's own needs. Research began expanding in this area through work in developing
1023 a warm, stable, supportive classroom climate (Battistich, Solomon, Watson, & Schaps, 1997).
1024 Training was provided for the staff to nurture ethical and social development of children through
1025 norms and values that revolved around respect, caring, and honoring the interests of students.
1026 Children in these caring classroom environments enjoyed school, specific classes, and helping
1027 others learn.

1028 In the sport context, a caring climate has been defined by Newton, Fry, Watson, Gano-
1029 Overway, Kim, Magyar, and Guivernaur as an environment where individuals feel safe,
1030 supported, valued, and respected (2007). Athletes who perceive a caring climate have reported
1031 greater sport enjoyment, commitment, and having positive attitudes/caring behaviors towards
1032 other athletes and coaches (Fry & Gano-Overway, 2010). Creating an environment where
1033 athletes feel invited, supported, and respected fosters a sense of belongingness for athletes.
1034 Athletes who see coaches engaging in caring behaviors are more likely to also engage in these
1035 behaviors with their teammates and coaches. Further, a caring climate has been linked to sport
1036 commitment through coaches wanting to help athletes, being kind, and athletes accepting and
1037 respecting each other. When all of these aspects are included athletes want to remain involved in
1038 their sport. Through creating a caring climate for athletes, coaches can encourage sport
1039 involvement and decrease the number of athletes who drop out of sport.

1040 Even at a high performance level coaches can create a caring climate. Knust and Fisher
1041 (2015) interviewed NCAA female head coaches to determine how they created a caring climate
1042 for their athletes. The coaches considered their team a family where they feel responsible for the
1043 development of their athletes from recruitment through the time they were on their team and
1044 beyond. Coaches emphasized caring for their athletes as individuals outside of sport and not
1045 simply as athletes. In order to care for their athletes as people these coaches listened to their
1046 athletes, created open communication, worked to resolve conflict, and put themselves in their
1047 athlete's shoes to understand their point of view. While coaches cared for their athletes they did
1048 have high standards for their athletes. Although coaches referred to their caring practices with
1049 athletes most, they also treated their assistant coaches with care through recognizing their efforts
1050 and preparing them for their future careers. Some coaches mentioned the obstacles of the need to
1051 create revenue with the amount of care their athletes got from the institution, but this did not
1052 change the care they gave their athletes.

1053 Fisher, Bejar, Larsen, Fynes, and Gearity (2017) have examined how male and female
1054 NCAA coaches care for their athletes. These coaches also viewed caring for their athletes
1055 through developing them as individuals and helping athletes be successful while also building
1056 relationships that last. To develop athletes as individuals, coaches viewed facilitating their
1057 growth in academics, athletics, socially, and emotionally as important. Coaches also found it
1058 important to learn about the athletes lives outside of sport, including their families. Another
1059 aspect that was important to creating the caring climate was to respond to athletes needs and
1060 know their athletes well enough to see when they were needing help and support. When athletes
1061 felt the coaches were responsive they were confident that they could develop in their sport, as
1062 well as, outside their sport. These coaches found that individualizing care was of utmost

1063 importance so that athletes truly felt cared for and valued. The coaches had to know the athletes
1064 well enough to realize how they liked to be coached and what kind of feedback was most helpful
1065 to their players. Lastly, communication with the athletes was also important. Coaches used texts,
1066 phone calls, and weekly meetings to promote good communication. These conversations did not
1067 even need to be planned, but simply talking with their athletes allowed them to create a sense of
1068 belonging. While these coaches did their best to create caring climates for their collegiate
1069 athletes they struggled to balance the amount of care with the need to win. Often times their
1070 values of what it meant to be successful did not match up with the administration's expectations;
1071 therefore, making them worry about job security. This can create tension in areas where they are
1072 expected to win; however, if creating a caring climate can reduce athlete burnout then athletes
1073 can give higher effort and perform better.

1074 **Social Support**

1075 The support athletes receive from their team, coach, and parents is important to their
1076 overall well-being, as well as, burnout. Athletes who perceive ample social support report fewer
1077 characteristics of burnout (Cresswell, 2009). Specifically, emotional and physical exhaustion was
1078 significantly negatively associated with social support; furthermore, negative social interactions
1079 were significantly positively associated with emotional/physical exhaustion (DeFreese & Smith,
1080 2014). Having positive social support may help athletes cope with injury, loss, and changes in
1081 sport when negative social interactions are reduced. These positive interactions can be promoted
1082 through the climate coaches establish on their team. Coaches should also provide strategies
1083 athletes can use to reduce the negative social interactions they may have and how they can cope
1084 with these situations when they do occur.

1085 While coaches giving athletes strategies to cope is important the way athletes perceive
1086 their support seems to be more important. When examining college athletes, the way athletes
1087 perceived their support was more important than what they received from teammates (DeFreese
1088 & Smith, 2013); therefore, while making support available for athletes is important it is more
1089 important that they are perceiving they have enough support. To ensure that athletes are
1090 receiving enough support coaches should encourage athletes to give verbal encouragement
1091 during practice and games. Through creating a caring climate coaches can promote
1092 encouragement on their teams to help boost athletes' perceived social support and decrease the
1093 burnout on their teams. It is important for coaches to provide support for their athletes. Coaches
1094 can also provide support through their listening skills (Raedeke, Lunney, & Venables, 2002). By
1095 listening to the athletes and trying to understand what they are going through coaches can
1096 improve their relationships with their athletes and provide social support. Coaches can also
1097 improve athletes' social support through encouraging the team to do activities outside of practice
1098 together. This can help increase team cohesion and social support.

1099 The relationship coaches have with their athletes through closeness and commitment
1100 have been negatively linked to the three dimensions of burnout (physical/emotional exhaustion,
1101 reduced sense of accomplishment, and devaluation of sport) (Isoard-Gutheaur, Trouilloud,
1102 Gustafsson, & Guillet-Descas, 2016). Athletes who report having a good relationship with their
1103 coach express higher personal accomplishment, more positive feelings toward their sport, and
1104 lower exhaustion. Athletes who have good relationships with their coach are more likely to give
1105 higher effort, because they value how their coach views them.

1106

1107

1108 Coaches Perceptions of Burnout

1109 Coaches play an important role in decreasing burnout, but their perceptions on burnout
1110 and how it affects their athletes is important as well. Swimming coaches have reported that the
1111 term burnout is used too loosely (Raedeke, Lunney, & Venables, 2002). These coaches viewed
1112 burnout as a long-lasting negative reaction that is associated with resentment and derived from
1113 frustration and dissatisfaction. To consider an athlete to be burning out they had to have been
1114 enthusiastically committed to their sport at one point. While some athlete's burnout end up
1115 dropping out of sport, others continue to play on their team, but only go through the motions and
1116 do not give much effort when practicing or playing. Coaches perceived several signs of burnout
1117 including withdrawal, reduced sense of accomplishment, physical/psychological exhaustion, and
1118 devaluation.

1119 When athletes withdrew from training and teammates they were displaying symptoms of
1120 burnout (Raedeke, Lunney, & Venables, 2002). When distancing themselves from training they
1121 may start to use excuses to get out of practice or reduce their training load. These athletes may
1122 also show up to practice late or leave early in increasing frequency, often leading to not showing
1123 up at all. While athletes may begin to remove themselves from training they also withdraw from
1124 interactions with teammates. They may begin to decrease the time they spend with teammates,
1125 even exhibiting aggressive behaviors toward teammates to isolate themselves from the rest of the
1126 team.

1127 Another symptom of burnout is reduced sense of accomplishment (Raedeke, Lunney, &
1128 Venables, 2002). Athletes may feel frustrated when they are not improving. When athletes have
1129 strong feelings of frustration and discouragement they may have a difficulty dealing with this
1130 change and feel they are going nowhere in their sport. A reduced sense of accomplishment can

1131 be a symptom of burnout when athletes have difficulty coping and set unrealistic expectations for
1132 themselves which adds to their frustration. Often, when athletes compare themselves to others
1133 they begin to feel frustrated with their accomplishments and feel that they are not good enough.
1134 These social comparisons can lead to unrealistic expectations, frustration or discouragement, and
1135 over time, burnout.

1136 Athletes who are experiencing burnout may also devalue their sport. Devaluation may
1137 occur when athletes stop caring about their sport; they may even develop hatred or resentment
1138 toward their sport (Raedeke, Lunney, & Venables, 2002). This can be seen when athletes no
1139 longer care about workouts or practices. Lastly, athletes who are physically/psychologically
1140 exhausted may also experience burnout. When athletes are over trained, they become physically
1141 exhausted; when they are physically exhausted, they have difficulty being mentally energized.
1142 Exhaustion can also occur through continued stress and unrealistic demands. Being both
1143 physically and mentally exhausted can cause an athlete to experience burnout.

1144 When athletes' lives become too much about sport they may begin to experience burnout
1145 (Raedeke, Lunney, & Venables, 2002). By continuing to be involved in sport the performance
1146 pressures continue to increase which causes athletes lives to be structured around achieving.
1147 Athletes may receive pressure from coaches, parents, and friends outside of their sport. Through
1148 creating a positive caring environment coaches can help athletes focus on improving their effort
1149 instead of focusing on their performance outcomes. This can help reduce the pressure athletes
1150 may feel through helping them focus on the means rather than the end. Coaches can also help
1151 parents reduce the pressure they put on athletes through describing the climate they want to
1152 provide for athletes on their team during a parent meeting. By describing the climate they want
1153 to have on their team they can encourage parents to help promote the climate at home. Through

1154 promoting a caring climate on the team and at home coaches can help reduce the pressure
1155 athletes are put under and decrease their likelihood of burning out.

1156 **Personality Impacts on Burnout**

1157 Some athletes may be more predisposed to burnout than others. Athletes positive affect
1158 (i.e., enthusiasm, alertness, etc.) and negative affect (i.e., anger, contempt, disgust, etc.) (Watson,
1159 Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) may impact their susceptibility to burnout. Trait negative affect
1160 significantly predicts global burnout and physical/emotional exhaustion among collegiate
1161 athletes (DeFreese & Smith, 2014). Promoting calmness in athletes and decreasing feelings of
1162 nervousness, disgust, and contempt can help athletes lower their risk for burnout. Through social
1163 support and team climate coaches can promote the use of coping strategies to improve arousal
1164 regulation and reduce anxiety. The climate coaches create can also impact their athletes positive
1165 affect (Seifriz, Duda, & Chi, 1992). Increasing positive affect can increase athletes' effort and
1166 enthusiasm toward their sport; therefore, making sport more enjoyable and decreasing the
1167 likelihood that athletes will experience burnout. While personality traits, such as positive and
1168 negative affect, may impact burnout, the environment the coach creates can help to buffer the
1169 harmful impact these dispositional traits may have.

1170 **Athlete Well-Being**

1171 Burnout can have a negative impact on athletes' well-being and life satisfaction. In
1172 collegiate athletes, burnout negatively contributes to athlete well-being (DeFreese & Smith,
1173 2014), and is also negatively associated with the athlete's life satisfaction during the athletic
1174 season. The impact burnout can have on athlete well-being is an important future direction for
1175 research (Holmberg & Sheridan, 2013). While athlete well-being and burnout are linked, it
1176 would be valuable to examine whether social support may moderate this relationship (DeFreese

1177 & Smith, 2013). If social support does moderate the impact burnout has on well-being, creating
1178 social support interventions for athletes through the coaching climate could help to reduce
1179 burnout and increase athlete well-being.

1180 **Summary**

1181 When athletes feel entrapped in their sport and have decreased motivation they are more
1182 likely to experience burnout. With the negative affects burnout can have on athletes through their
1183 well-being it is important to examine how the climate can affect burnout. When athletes are in a
1184 caring and task-involving climate they enjoy sport more and are more likely to return the next
1185 season (Fry & Gano-Overway, 2010). Enjoying sport has also been linked to decreased burnout
1186 scores (Raedeke, 1997); therefore, by creating a task or caring climate coaches may be able to
1187 decrease their athletes' likelihood of experiencing burnout and increase their retention of hard-
1188 working players.

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Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire

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(PMCSQ-1: Seifriz, et al., 1992)

Directions: Read each statement and think about how much you believe that statement describes your team. Then choose the answer that shows how much you agree or disagree with the statement.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>On my team...</i>					
1. athletes feel good when they do better than others.	1	2	3	4	5
2. trying hard is rewarded.	1	2	3	4	5
3. athletes are punished when they make mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
4. coaches focus on skill improvement.	1	2	3	4	5
5. athletes are taken out of games for mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
6. each player's improvement is important	1	2	3	4	5
7. playing better than teammates is important.	1	2	3	4	5
8. athletes try to learn new skills.	1	2	3	4	5
9. the coaches pay the most attention to the "stars".	1	2	3	4	5
10. athletes are encouraged to work on weaknesses.	1	2	3	4	5
11. doing better than others is important.	1	2	3	4	5
12. the coaches want us to try new skills.	1	2	3	4	5
13. the coaches favor some athletes.	1	2	3	4	5
14. athletes like playing good teams.	1	2	3	4	5
15. athletes are encouraged to outplay their teammates.	1	2	3	4	5
16. everyone wanted to be the best player/MVP.	1	2	3	4	5
17. each player feels like they have an important role.	1	2	3	4	5
18. only the best athletes get noticed.	1	2	3	4	5
19. most athletes get to play in the games.	1	2	3	4	5
20. athletes are afraid to make mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
21. only a few athletes can be the "stars."	1	2	3	4	5

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Caring Climate Scale

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(Newton, Fry, et al, 2007)

Directions: Read each statement and think about how much you believe that statement describes your team. Then choose the answer that shows how much you agree or disagree with the statement.		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>On my team...</i>						
1.	the athletes are treated with respect.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	the coaches respect the athletes.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	the coaches are kind to the athletes.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	the coaches care about the athletes.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	the athletes feel that they are treated fairly.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	the coaches try to help the athletes.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	the coaches want to get to know all of the athletes.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	the coaches listen to team members.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	athletes like one another for who they are.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	the coaches accept athletes for who they are.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	athletes feel comfortable.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	athletes feel safe.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	athletes feel welcome every day.	1	2	3	4	5

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Positive Affect, Negative Affect Scale

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(PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988)

Directions: This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then choose the answer using the following scale that best describes your personal experience during this season.	Very Slightly or Not at All	A Little	Moderately	Quite a Bit	Very Much So or Extremely
<i>During this season, I was...</i>					
1. Interested	1	2	3	4	5
2. Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
3. Excited	1	2	3	4	5
4. Upset	1	2	3	4	5
5. Strong	1	2	3	4	5
6. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5
7. Scared	1	2	3	4	5
8. Hostile	1	2	3	4	5
9. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
10. Proud	1	2	3	4	5
11. Irritable	1	2	3	4	5
12. Alert	1	2	3	4	5
13. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
14. Inspired	1	2	3	4	5
15. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
16. Determined	1	2	3	4	5
17. Attentive	1	2	3	4	5
18. Jittery	1	2	3	4	5
19. Active	1	2	3	4	5
20. Afraid	1	2	3	4	5

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Athlete Burnout Questionnaire

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(ABQ: Raedeke & Smith, 2001)

Directions: As you read the following statements, indicate how each of the following statements corresponds to your feelings during this season.		Never	Once or twice	About once a week	Almost every day	Every day
<i>In my sport, I am...</i>						
1.	accomplishing many worthwhile things	1	2	3	4	5
2.	so tired from my training that I have trouble finding energy to do other things	1	2	3	4	5
3.	feeling that the effort I spend would be better spent doing other things	1	2	3	4	5
4.	overly tired from my participation	1	2	3	4	5
5.	not achieving much	1	2	3	4	5
6.	feeling I don't care as much about my performance as I used to	1	2	3	4	5
7.	not performing up to my ability	1	2	3	4	5
8.	"wiped out" from baseball	1	2	3	4	5
9.	not into baseball like I used to be	1	2	3	4	5
10.	physically worn out from	1	2	3	4	5
11.	less concerned about being successful than I used to be	1	2	3	4	5
12.	exhausted by the mental and physical demands	1	2	3	4	5
13.	feeling that no matter what I do, I don't perform as well as I should	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Successful	1	2	3	4	5
15.	having negative feelings toward baseball	1	2	3	4	5

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Adult Mental Health Continuum – Short Form

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(MHC-SF: Keyes, 2009)

Directions: The following questions are about how you have been feeling during this season. Circle the number that best represents how often you have experienced or felt the following.		Never	Once or twice	About once a week	About 2 or 3 times a week	Almost every day	Every day
<i>So far this season, how often did you feel...</i>							
1.	Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	interested in life	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	that you had something important to contribute to society	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	that you belonged to a community (like a social group, or your neighborhood)	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	that our society is becoming a better place for people like you	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	that people are basically good	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	that the way our society works makes sense to you	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	that you liked most parts of your personality	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	good at managing the responsibilities of your daily life	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	that you had warm and trusting relationships with others	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	that you had experiences that challenged you to grow and become a better person	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	confident to think or express your own ideas and opinions	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	that your life has a sense of direction or meaning to it	1	2	3	4	5	6

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Subjective Vitality Scale

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(Ryan & Frederick, 1997)

Directions: Please indicate how true you feel the following statements are about you.	Not at all			Somewhat true			Very True
1. I feel alive and full of vitality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Sometimes I am so alive I just want to burst.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I have energy and spirit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I look forward to each new day.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I nearly always feel awake and alert.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I feel energized.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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