THE MODERATING INFLUENCE OF SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS ON MOTIVATION AND COLLEGIATE ATHLETE COMPENSATION PERCEPTIONS: A SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

Motivation is a key foundation to the actions and behaviors that an athlete partakes in within their sport. This drive and direction of motivation can be influenced by a multitude of elements that an athlete faces in their daily lives. The athlete's motivation lies upon a spectrum between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, depending upon the motivators driving them. A set of these motivators determined by the Self-Determination Theory of motivation include the satisfaction of one's basic psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness. However, research lacks in examining the satisfaction and lack of the basic psychological needs of athletes from differing socioeconomic classes. Also, with the newly introduced policies and legislation surrounding NIL, there is a need for research on how student-athletes' perceptions of it may differ due to various factors such as SES. Therefore the study had two purposes, the first being to analyze the moderating influence that an athlete's socioeconomic status may have on the relationship between the satisfaction/frustration of that athlete's basic psychological needs and the type of motivation that athlete has to continue play in his/her sport. The second was to analyze the impact of SES on participants perceptions of NIL. The results of this study found that both autonomy and relatedness predicted motivation within collegiate student-athletes to participate in their sport. The researcher collected data from 83 collegiate student-athletes with the Division I, II, and III levels of collegiate athletics. Measures used to collect data within the study included the Basic Psychological Needs Satisfaction Scall (BNSSS), Sport Motivation Scale (SMS-28), MacArthur Scale of Subjective Social Status - Adult Version, and the Perceptions of Name, Image, and

Likeness Questionnaire (PNILQ). Results from this study found that participants' basic psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness predicted their motivation to participate in their sport. While this study did reflect current research, the results should be viewed cautiously due to a lack of participants identifying as low-SES. From a practical perspective, these findings may aid student-athletes, coaches, and clinicians in their approach to training and interventions for collegiate student-athletes.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND GENERAL INFORMATION

Motivation

Motivation is the force that drives people to initiate and sustain their effort toward their goals (Liu, Xiang, McBride, Su, & Juzaily, 2015). It is instrumentally critical to sport participation in athletes because it is a pivotal element in determining the actions and efforts that they take within their sport (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vink & Raudsepp, 2018; Rintaugu, Kamande, Litaba, Toriola, & Amusa, 2014). Sport practitioners have found motivation to be one of the most difficult and misconstrued concepts to define within psychology (Williams & Krane, 2015). This is a result of many biological and environmental determinants that influence motivation for each athlete. Motivation is defined as "a combination of an individual's desire to take action, also known as their drive, and the direction in which these said actions are aimed" (Sage, 1977; cited in Weinberg & Gould, 2007, p. 52). Researchers believe motivation can partly be determined by the variation of an athlete's behavioral patterns as well as the quantity and quality of their motivation (Duda, 2001; 2005). Athletes who are highly motivated and who possess a high quantity and quality of motivation tend to give their best effort, possess competence in their abilities, accept challenging opportunities, and perform to their highest ability (Williams & Krane, 2015). Thus, motivation within athletes is susceptible to change for various reasons.

Motivation can be impacted by several internal and external factors that an athlete may experience. This relationship between the athlete and these factors is of vital

importance for the well-being of athletes because of the impact that it may have on the athlete's motivation, which in turn influences an athlete's ability to achieve the desired level of performance for their sport (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Research suggests athletes receive more satisfaction and joy from their sport participation when it is perceived as intrinsic, or for the enjoyment of participation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). However, separable rewards such as athletic scholarships and professional sports careers have the potential to hinder this intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1971). While these derivatives of motivation have been analyzed through many theories, multiple researchers and sport practitioners have utilized self-determination theory to access the motivation of athletes.

Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) bases its origins of the seminal work of Edward Deci and Richard Ryan (Vansteenkiste, Niemiec, & Soenens, 2010). It is a macro theory of human motivation that differentiates between different types of motivation depending on the motives, goals, and actions that influence the motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). SDT further categorizes these different reasons for an athlete's actions on a continuum of behavioral regulations with some having elements of both intrinsic or extrinsic motivation (Amorose, Anderson-Butcher, Newman, Fraina, & Iachini, 2016; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsic actions are considered those in which an athlete engages in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction derived from the activity itself. Extrinsically motivated athletes engage in an activity to attain some separable outcome such as for a medal, fame, or financial reward. The extent to which extrinsic motivation is self-determined allows this motivation to be explained along a continuum (Taylor, 2015;

Vansteenkiste, Niemiec, & Soenens, 2010). This continuum places these motivations from the most extrinsic (external regulation) to the most intrinsic (intrinsic regulation). While SDT does separate motivation into intrinsic or extrinsic behavioral regulations, it also further distinguishes the levels of each type of motivation through the regulations of amotivation, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, integrated regulation, and intrinsic regulation. These regulations are then placed into either an autonomous, controlled, or impersonal orientation.

SDT also describes and explains an athlete's psychological well-being through their psychological needs as well as the type of motivation the athlete has within a motivation continuum. (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Two sub theories of SDT, basic psychological needs theory (BPNT) and cognitive evaluation theory (CET), are commonly utilized to access athletes' motivation (Standage & Ryan, 2020). While research has used BPNT and CET to access motivation in athletes, there still remains an unfortunate dearth of studies examining CET and relatedness and the relationship between these two regarding motivation.

Basic Psychological Needs Theory

Basic psychological needs theory is a sub theory of SDT that has been consistently utilized to access motivation in athletes. This theory establishes the existence of three basic psychological needs (competence, relatedness, and autonomy) and the satisfaction/frustration of these needs to be vital to the thriving of athletes within and outside of their sport. The first of these needs, competence, is defined as the ability to perform activities in which athletes engage effectively and to achieve desired outcomes.

This involves how confident the athlete is to effectively obtain his/her goal (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Relatedness, the second psychological need, indicates the degree to which a person feels connected or involved with others and experiences a sense of belongingness to a particular social community. This need has been shown to predict evidence of self-determination and intrinsic motivation for both sport participation and exercise behavior (Stults-Kolehmainen, Gilson, & Abolt, 2013). The final need, autonomy, refers to "the extent to which people regard themselves as the initiator of their behavior and as being volitional for the initiation of the behavior" (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Individuals that possess autonomy experience responsibility of their choices and behavior, which is perceived as deriving from their values and interests (Vansteenkiste, Niemiec, & Soenens, 2010). These three psychological needs are believed to mediate the influence of social factors on the athlete's level of motivation (Belando Pedreño et al.,2015). Satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs is a necessity for the satisfactory health and psychological well-being of athletes (Ryan & Deci, 2000). However, when these basic psychological needs are not met athletes may suffer from symptoms of psychopathology as well as difficulties in adjusting to their environment. Satisfaction or lack of these psychological needs can predict what level of motivation within cognitive evaluation theory one has for a certain action.

Cognitive Evaluation Theory

Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) is a sub-theory of SDT that focuses on determinants of motivation that either facilitate or debilitate intrinsic motivation (Williams et al., 2009). The theory posits that intrinsic motivation is a natural occurring

phenomenon that can evolve via play, curious exploration, spontaneous interest in novelty, and other activities that promote growth and learning (Frederick & Ryan, 1995; Ryan & Deci, 2016). CET rests on the following four basic tenets: 1) intrinsically motivated actions are inherently autonomous by nature, 2) that intrinsic motivation is also sustained by feelings of competence and the excitement of challenge, but only in the presence of autonomy, 3) the motivational influence of inputs such as rewards, praise, and criticism, will depend on the inputs' psychological meaning to the agent, and 4) the nature of informational, controlling, and amotivational inputs is relevant to the agent's intrapsychic events as well as their interpersonal events (Frederick & Ryan, 1995).

Much of this research using CET focuses on negative influence that external inputs have on intrinsic motivation. For example, Orlick and Mosher found in their classic 1978 study that extrinsic rewards influence intrinsic motivation regarding motor skills. Similar studies within a sport context have also found that external rewards reduce intrinsic motivation, lead to an external locus of causality, stifle play and sport behavior, and disrupt learning in an intrinsically motivated fashion (Halliwell, 1979; Thomas & Tennent, 1978; Watson, 1984). Research has also examined the influence of athlete scholarships on collegiate athletes' intrinsic motivation as well. Ryan (1977) found that scholarship athletes reported finding significantly less enjoyment in their sport participation as well as more extrinsic motivators for their participation than non-scholarship athletes (Ryan, 1977). Wagner and colleagues expanded upon this research in their 1989 study and found that scholarship athletes were more likely to possess a work-orientation towards their sport participation than their non-scholarship counterparts

(Wagner et al., 1989). While there is much research that assess the impact of satisfaction/frustration of basic psychological needs on motivation, the same cannot be said for the relationship between socioeconomic status and motivation.

Socioeconomic Status

Socioeconomic status (SES) is defined as a measure of one's combined economic and social status (Baker, 2014, p. 2210). SES can be measured through nonconventional factors, such as an individual's material possessions (Leung & Xu, 2013) or through more conventional measures of one's SES include the individual's education, income, and occupation (González, Swanson, Lynch, & Williams, 2016). Education level is determined by an individual's highest level of formal education completed. Researchers have found that education appears to be a better index of psychosocial resources such as the ability to manage social systems, effectively regulate health behaviors, accrue social support, and develop a sense of personal control or agency (Cundiff, Uchino, Smith, & Birmingham, 2015; Matthews et al., 1989; Ross & Wu, 1995; Winkelby et al., 1992). The second factor, income, is considered a more direct index of material resources (Cundiff, Uchino, Smith, & Birmingham, 2015). While income does have a relationship with education, it is only moderate due to instances of financially successful individuals with no post-secondary education (American Psychological Association, Task Force on Socioeconomic Status, 2007). For example, an athlete that skips college to compete in the professional level of their sport weakens the strength of this correlation. The third conventional method of measuring SES is occupation. This factor is a measure of one's position in the socioeconomic hierarchy and is more closely connected with working

conditions than other socioeconomic indicators (Wang, Shen, Sotero, Li, & Hou, 2018). These measures of SES are fundamental determinants of functioning across the human life span, including development, well-being, and physical and mental health as well (American Psychological Association, Task Force on Socioeconomic Status, 2007).

SES is a human factor that can function as a major determinant of an individual's motivation to engage in a behavior. Research has found that the lower individuals are in the social hierarchy, the less likely it is that their fundamental human needs for autonomy and to be integrated into society will be met (Marmot, 2006). This relationship can be seen throughout the low SES community and may lead to more extrinsic motivation within low SES athletes to play their sport, such as lower SES athletes viewing sport as a vehicle to create class mobility (Messner, 1992; Messner & Dworkin, 1999). For those athletes participating in collegiate athletics, the progression of their intrinsic motivation to the sport to become more extrinsic could be due to the influence of a multitude of factors, such as name, image, and likeness (NIL).

Name, Image, and Likeness

NIL refers to collegiate student athletes' ability to receive compensation off their name, image, and likeness. Current state legislature such as the California Fair Pay to Play Act of 2019 have prevented colleges/universities from prohibiting student-athletes from receiving compensation for the use of their name, image, and likeness. (Fair Pay to Play, 2019). The interim policy that the National Collegiate Athletics Association provides guidelines regarding NIL such as 1) "Individuals can engage in NIL activities that are consistent with the law of the state where the school is located. Colleges and

universities may be a resource for state law questions, 2) college athletes who attend a school in a state without an NIL law can engage in this type of activity without violating NCAA rules related to name, image and likeness, 3) Individuals can use a professional services provider for NIL activities, and 4) Student-athletes should report NIL activities consistent with state law or school and conference requirements to their school" (NCAA, 2021). With the implementation of this policy, collegiate student athletes can use their NIL as profit, which could have multiple effects on motivation.

Integration of Motivation, SES, and NIL

One factor that could lead to more extrinsic motivation from these low SES athletes is the ability to feel pride and avoid guilt. These athletes may receive a sense of pride from their teachers and others for participating in their respective sport and may not wish to give that up (Amorose et al., 2016; Shakib, Veliz, Dunbar, & Sabo, 2011). This idea is considered extrinsic in nature and as a controlling orientation for their motivation. A second factor that may lead to more extrinsic motivation for low SES athletes is the obtainment of higher social status. Studies examining male athletes revealed that high school boys from lower SES backgrounds were also more likely than males from higher SES backgrounds to choose athletics as the most important source of social status (Shakib, Veliz, Dunbar, & Sabo, 2011). Low SES athletes may view their sport to obtain social status, admiration, and congratulations from their peers, all of which are considered extrinsic motivators. The final reason that low SES athletes may view athletics through an extrinsic lens is to create financial and social mobility. For example, Messner (1992) found that young male athletes from lower-class backgrounds were likely

to view sport as essential for social mobility since other options of supporting their families were limited compared to their higher-class counterparts. Low SES athletes are exposed to many professional athletes that have used sport as a vehicle to a better life and may, in turn, extrinsically view their sport to provide for themselves and their families. With these financial, familial, environmental, and societal pressures NIL may be viewed more favorably by low SES collegiate athletes as a means to obtain financial and social currency.

In summary, motivation appears to be an important facet regarding an athlete's actions and efforts to engage in a behavior and can be affected by both internal and external factors such as an individual's SES. Much of this research in this field is race based and focuses on the athletic motivation of African American athletes (Dworkin & Messner, 1999; Harris, 1994; Hartmann, 2000; Hoberman, 1997; Sailes, 1996). As a result, research lacks in examining the satisfaction and lack of the basic psychological needs of athletes from differing socioeconomic classes. Also, with the newly introduced policies and legislation surrounding NIL, there is a need for research on how student-athletes' perceptions of it may differ due to various factors such as SES. These relationships between SES, basic psychological needs, and level of motivation and SES and NIL perceptions can be of great benefit to all that have influence in an athlete's life. Through this study, practitioners, teachers, coaches, and all supporters of athletes may work together to aid athletes to foster and sustain the intrinsic motivation that they have for their sport, which in turn will lead to increased enjoyment, well-being, and performance by the athletes.

Purpose

Therefore, the current study contained two purposes, the first being to analyze the moderating influence that an athlete's socioeconomic status may have on the relationship between the satisfaction/frustration of that athlete's basic psychological needs and the type of motivation that athlete has to continue play in his/her sport. The researcher hypothesized that the relationship between the student athletes' basic psychological needs and their level of motivation to play their respective sport would be significantly moderated by their socioeconomic status. Specifically, when SES is considered high, the researcher expected the relationship between autonomy, relatedness, and competence and intrinsic motivation would be strengthened (positively correlated) while extrinsic motivation would be weakened (negatively correlated). However, when SES is considered low, the researcher expected the relationship between autonomy, relatedness, and competence and intrinsic motivation would be weakened while extrinsic motivation would be strengthened. The researcher did not expect to see any significant moderation between autonomy, relatedness, or competence and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation when SES is considered middle.

The second purpose of this study was to analyze the impact of SES on participants perceptions of NIL. The researcher hypothesized that there would be a main effect between the participants' SES and their perceptions of NIL. Specifically, low-SES participants would possess significantly more positive perceptions of NIL than middle and high-SES participants.

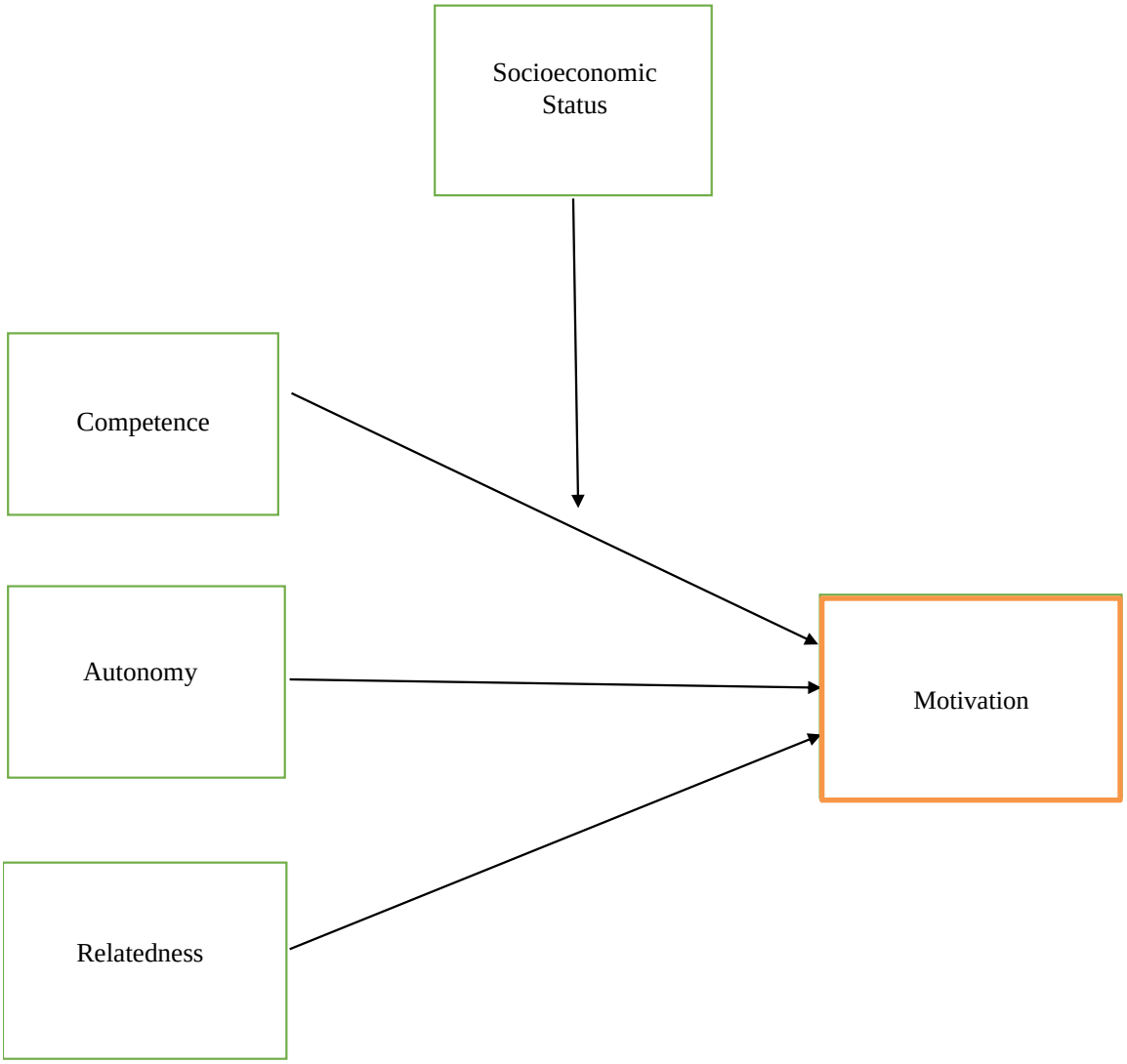


Figure 1.1. Basic psychological needs and motivation. This figure illustrates the hypothesized moderating influence that socioeconomic status will have on basic psychological needs and motivation.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Motivation is the force that drives people to initiate and sustain their effort toward their goals (Liu, Xiang, McBride, Su, & Juzaily, 2015). It is instrumentally critical to sport participation in athletes because it is a pivotal element in determining the actions and efforts that they take within their sport (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vink & Raudsepp, 2018; Rintaugu, Kamande, Litaba, Toriola, & Amusa, 2014). It can be impacted by several internal and external factors that an athlete may experience. The aim of this review of literature is to establish two links. First, it aims to link the SES of athletes with the relationship between the satisfaction/frustration of athletes' basic psychological needs and the type of motivation that athletes have for participation in their respective sports. This review also aims to link athletes' socioeconomic status and their perceptions on NIL. These relationships are of vital importance for the well-being of athletes because of the impact that it may have on the athletes' motivation, which in turn influences athletes' ability to achieve the desired level of performance for their sport (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Research shows that athletes who possess intrinsic motivation for their sport experience more satisfaction and joy from their sport participation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). However, separable rewards such as athletic scholarships and professional sports careers have the potential to hinder this intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1971), especially for lower SES athletes who view sport as a vehicle to create class mobility (Messner, 1992; Messner & Dworkin, 1999). Based on previous research findings, the review will discuss a future direction for research to further examine the associations between these components.

This review of literature will begin by discussing the background, theoretical framework, assessments, and correlations for the over encompassing phenomenon of motivation. Next, the review will focus on SDT, one of the many theories used to assess motivation. Although this theory is composed of six sub theories, the focus of this piece will target the sub theories of Basic Psychological Needs and CET because of the overabundance of research that has used them to assess motivation in sport. However, the review will make a brief notion towards the remaining sub theories in order to provide a holistic view of Self-Determination Theory. Afterwards, a thorough analysis of the definition, factors, and measures of socioeconomic status as well as a comparison of the challenges faced by high and low SES individuals will be provided. An overview of NIL as well as its impact on NCAA athletics will be provided as well. An integration of Basic Psychological Needs Theory, CET, SES, and NIL will follow this analysis. Finally, an assessment of the gaps in literature, as well as a conclusion of this review of literature will commence.

Motivation

Sport practitioners have found motivation to be one of the most difficult and misconstrued concepts to define within psychology. This is due to the many biological and environmental determinants that influence motivation for each athlete. Motivation is defined as "a combination of an individual's desire to take action, also known as their drive, and the direction in which these said actions are aimed" (Sage, 1977; cited in Weinberg and Gould, 2007, p. 52). Researchers believe motivation can partly be determined by the variation of an athlete's behavioral patterns (Duda, 2001, 2005).

Athletes who are highly motivated tend to give their best effort, possess competence in their abilities, accept challenging opportunities and perform to their highest ability. However, those athletes who have low motivation tend to seek out easy tasks, give minimal effort in practice, lack competence in their abilities, and performance, and rarely perform to their fullest ability (Duda, 2001, 2005).

An athlete's motivation can also be determined by the quantity and quality of their motivation (Duda, 2001, 2005). Quantity refers to how engaged an athlete is in their sport and how well said athlete is performing. Quality, on the other hand, is described as the sustainability and health of the athlete's engagement in their sport. This aspect relies on many factors such as the athlete's accomplishments, enjoyment, and physical and psychological benefits that are received from the sport. Athletes that possess high quality and quantity of motivation are more likely to think of their sport in a highly motivated manner.

Motivation is also transferrable along similar behaviors (Goetz, Hall, Frenzel, & Pekrun, 2006; Marsh & Yeung, 1998). This means that the motivation that athletes have for certain aspects of their sport are transferrable to similar aspects of that sport. For example, if an athlete has high motivation for the competitive and physical aspects of strength training, then that athlete would possibly have that same level of motivation for another aspect of his/her sport that mimics these qualities, such as practice (King-Chung Chan & Hagger, 2012). While these derivatives of motivation have been analyzed through many theories, multiple researchers and sport practitioners have utilized Self-Determination Theory to access the motivation of athletes.

Self-Determination Theory

SDT bases its origins of the seminal work of Edward Deci and Richard Ryan (Vansteenkiste, Niemiec, & Soenens, 2010). It is a macro theory of human motivation that differentiates between different types of motivation depending on the motives, goals, and actions that influence the motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985a). SDT further categorizes these different reasons for an athlete's actions as either intrinsic or extrinsic (Ryan & Deci, 2000b; Amorose, Anderson-Butcher, Newman, Fraina, & Iachini, 2016). Intrinsic actions are considered those in which an athlete engages in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction derived from the activity itself. For example, if an athlete attends and participates in practice because he/she loves their sport, then that athlete is expressing intrinsic motivation. Extrinsically motivated athletes engage in an activity to attain some separable outcome such as for a medal, fame, or financial reward. SDT also describes and explains an athlete's psychological needs, the motivation continuum to distinguish external and internal regulation of behavior, and the attainment of psychological well-being of an athlete through six sub- theories. These include causality orientation theory, organismic integration theory, goal contents theory, relationships motivation theory, basic psychological needs theory (BPNT), and CET (Ryan & Deci, 2002). The latter two theories will be used to access athletes' motivation due to the vast amount of research that has used BPNT to access motivation in athletes (Taylor, 2015) and the provided opportunity provided to explore the relationship between relatedness and CET due to the dearth of studies that have studied this connection (Dyrlund & Wininger, 2006).

Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT)

Basic psychological needs theory is a sub theory of SDT that has been consistently utilized to access motivation in athletes. This theory establishes the existence of three basic psychological needs (competence, relatedness, and autonomy) and the satisfaction/frustration of these needs to be vital to the thriving of athletes within and outside of their sport. These psychological needs are believed to mediate the influence of social factors on the athlete's level of motivation (Belando Pedreño et al.,2015). Satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs believed to operate as a necessary factor that contributes to health and psychological well-being of athletes (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In contrast, when these basic psychological needs are not met, or frustrated, maladjustment and even psychopathology can occur. The first of these psychological needs is competence, which is considered essential to human nature (White, 1959).

Competence is defined as the ability to perform activities in which athletes engage effectively and to achieve desired outcomes. This involves how confident the athlete is to effectively obtain his/her goal (Deci & Ryan, 1985a). There are many benefits to having high levels of competence. For example, Sheldon, Ryan, and Reis, (1996) found that individuals that are high in trait competence and trait autonomy tended to have more better days, on average, than participants low in these traits. High perceived competence within athletes also increases expectations for success, intrinsic motivation, persistence to face and overcome adversity, exerted efforts, such as engagement, effort to master skills, persistence in the face of difficulty, and choice of challenging tasks (Roberts, Treasure, & Conroy, 2007)

Relatedness indicates the degree to which a person feels connected or involved with others and experiences a sense of belongingness to a particular social community. This need is of importance because it satisfies the human need for belonging to a group (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; McAdams, 1989). Psychologists have divided relatedness into the two conceptualizations of either acceptance from or intimacy with others, such as an athlete's peers and teammates (Ryan, 1991). Both acceptance and intimacy were found to be satisfactory predictors of intrinsic motivation while relatedness, as a whole, has been shown to predict indices of self-determination and intrinsic motivation for both sport participation and exercise behavior (Stults-Kolehmainen, Gilson, & Abolt, 2013). While relatedness examines the relationships and intimacy an athlete may possess with others within their sport, the final basic psychological need, autonomy, assess the amount of control that athletes perceive that they have.

Autonomy refers to "the extent to which people regard themselves as the initiator of their behavior and as being volitional for the initiation of the behavior" (Ryan & Deci, 2002). With autonomy, an individual experiences responsibility of his/her choices and behavior, which is perceived as deriving from the individual's values and interests (Vansteenkiste, Niemiec, & Soenens, 2010). For instance, athletes that have some choice over what they would like to work on in practice are believed to have high autonomy. This, in turn, will increase an athlete's intrinsic motivation for their sport. Research has found that autonomy plays a key factor in an individual's motivation to complete tasks. Liu and colleagues (2015) conducted a study that assessed the physical activity levels of at-risk youth. Youth that are considered at-risk are typically ethnic minorities that are

from low socioeconomic backgrounds (Jae Young, 2015). Within this study, researchers found that a lack in autonomy in daily activities of the children was a key factor in their declining intrinsic motivation levels throughout the study. This information may be helpful for coaches of youth athletes to allow them to have some responsibility over the day-to-day operations of practice and game planning. For this information to be helpful, researchers have formulated measures to reliably and validly assess the satisfaction of these psychological needs.

Researchers have used a bevy of scales and measures to access BPNT, but the majority have settled on the Basic Psychological Needs Scale (BPNS) as the best measure (Chen et al.,2014). BPNS was originally developed by Deci and Ryan (2000). This scale consists of three subscales: need for autonomy (consisting of seven items), need for competence (consisting of six items), and need for relatedness (consisting of eight items) (Sari, 2015). Responses to the items range from 1 (not true at all) to 5 (completely true) with higher scores equating to the psychological needs being met. The scale has been revised to address the psychological needs of individuals within their work, relationship, and physical activity domains as well. The BPNS showed satisfactory internal consistency and reliability with a Cronbach-Alpha internal consistency coefficient of .76 for the whole scale, .61 for the competency subscale, and .73 for the autonomy and relatedness need subscales (Demirtaş, Yıldız, & Baytemir, 2017). Satisfaction/Frustration of these psychological needs can influence the facilitation or debilitation of intrinsic motivation.

Researcher have also assessed the basic psychological needs of the athletes with the Basic Needs Satisfaction in Sport Scale (BNSSS) The BNSSS contains 20 items with three subscales; autonomy (ten items), competence (five items) and relatedness (five items). The scale uses a seven-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from 1 ("not true at all") to 7 ("very true"). For example, participants will be asked to answer how much they relate to a statement such as "In my sport, I have a say in how things are done". The BNSSS shows evidence of reliability, with alpha coefficient showing good reliability levels for autonomy ($\alpha = 0.83$), competence ($\alpha = 0.87$), and relatedness ($\alpha = 0.80$) (Ng, Lonsdale, & Hodge, 2011).

Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET)

Similar to BPNT, cognitive evaluation theory (CET) has also been used to assess the impact of factors on athlete motivation. The sub-theory, created by Deci and then refined by Deci and Ryan, posits that intrinsic motivation is a natural occurring phenomenon that can evolve via play, curious exploration, spontaneous interest in novelty, and other activities that promote growth and learning (Frederick & Ryan, 1995; Ryan & Deci, 2016). CET exhibits keen focus on determinants of motivation that either facilitate or debilitate intrinsic motivation (Ryan et al., 2009). CET provides a theoretical account of how differing external and internal factors such as competition, surveillance, punishment, feedback, rewards, ego-involvement, and choice enhance or diminish an individual's intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

The sub-theory of CET rests on four basic tenets, the first being that intrinsically motivated actions are inherently autonomous by nature (Frederick & Ryan, 1995). This

tenet accounts for a person's locus of causality regarding their motivation. Any environmental factors that aid in a person possessing a perceived external locus of causality will tend to undermine intrinsic motivation. Conversely, factors that facilitate a perceived internal locus of causality will enhance intrinsic motivation.

CET also takes into account the basic psychological need of competence with its second tenet. This tenet of CET proposes that intrinsic motivation is also sustained by feelings of competence and the excitement of challenge. With this tenet, Frederick and Ryan proposed that feedback that enhances one's efficacy will likely increase intrinsic motivation while feedback that diminishes efficacy will decrease it (Frederick & Ryan, 1995). The researchers also found that challenges that are perceived to be too easy or difficult will fail to incite any increases in intrinsic motivation. While this tenet states that intrinsic motivation is sustained by competence, CET specifies that competence will not sustain any intrinsic motivation in the absence of autonomy (Ryan et al., 2009). Therefore, both autonomy and competence are needed to enhance intrinsic motivation.

The third tenet of CET assesses the perception of inputs by the agent. This tenet proposes that the motivational influence of inputs such as rewards, praise, and criticism, will depend on the inputs' psychological meaning to the agent (Frederick & Ryan, 1995). Within this tenet, three types of social inputs are specified in informational events (inputs that are perceived as non-controlling and provide efficacy-relevant information), controlling events (inputs that introduce represent pressure to think, feel, or behave, in specific fashions), and amotivating (inputs that convey helplessness and incompetence (Deci & Ryan, 1980; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Frederick and Ryan. 1995). Inputs that are

perceived as informational by an agent will increase intrinsic motivation while those that are perceived as controlling or amotivating will decrease intrinsic motivation.

The final tenet of CET assesses the influence of one's own ego-involvement on their intrinsic motivation. This tenet states that the nature of informational, controlling, and amotivational inputs is relevant to the agent's intrapsychic events as well as their interpersonal events (Frederick & Ryan, 1995). Further, those who possess an ego-involvement of having to prove worth and efficacy as a way to preserve self-esteem exhibit a controlling input which, in turn, leads to decreased intrinsic motivation. While CET was first focused on general motivation, it has been found to be a reliable theory to explain and assess motivation in sport.

There has been a plethora of research on CET within the realm of sport that assess the influence of inputs that could frustrate intrinsic motivation such as rewards, competitive outcome, negative feedback , and athletic scholarships (Standage & Ryan, 2020). Much of this research has given validity to the fundamental proposition of CET and SDT that extrinsic inputs have a negative influence on intrinsic motivation. For example, Orlick and Mosher found in their classic 1978 study how extrinsic rewards influence intrinsic motivation regarding motor skills Orlick & Mosher, 1978). In this study, researchers found that children who received an award spent significantly less time on the stabilometer task pre and post-test while those who did not receive an award spent significantly more time on the task. Similar studies within a sport context have also found that external rewards reduce intrinsic motivation, lead to an external locus of causality, stifle play and sport behavior, and disrupt learning in an intrinsically motivated fashion

(Halliwell, 1979; Thomas & Tennent, 1978; Watson, 1984). Research has also examined the influence of athlete scholarships on collegiate athletes' intrinsic motivation as well. Ryan (1977) found that scholarship athletes reported finding significantly less enjoyment in their sport participation as well as more extrinsic motivators for their participation than non-scholarship athletes (Ryan, 1977). Wagner and colleagues expanded upon this research in their 1989 study and found that scholarship athletes were more likely to possess a work-orientation towards their sport participation than their non-scholarship counterparts(Wagner et al., 1989). These studies add to the premises of CET that external rewards aid in creating an external locus of causality and diminish intrinsic motivation.

There have been numerous scales created to measure intrinsic and extrinsic motivation within a sport context. One of the most well-known is the Sport Motivation Scale-28. The Sport Motivation Scale (SMS-28; Pelletier et al., 1995) is a 28-item questionnaire that measures intrinsic and extrinsic motivation using three primary scales of intrinsic (12 items), extrinsic (12 items) and amotivation (four items). The also includes six subscales to measure the various regulations of intrinsic (to know, to accomplish, and to experience stimulation) and extrinsic (identified, introjected, and external regulation) motivation. The scale uses a seven-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from 1 ("does not correspond at all") to 7 ("corresponds exactly"). Each item on the questionnaire is a response to the question "Why do you practice your sport?" Responses include statements that participants will acknowledge to what extent it corresponds with them such as "For the pleasure I feel in living exciting experiences. The

SMS-28 has shown good internal consistency with scores between .74 and .80 (Szemes et al., 2017)

Socioeconomic Status (SES)

Socioeconomic status (SES) is defined as a measure of one's combined economic and social status (Baker, 2014, p. 2210). SES can be measured through nonconventional factors, such as an individual's material possessions, which are advantageous in being flexible in what items are included and for reflecting people's daily consumption patterns (Leung & Xu, 2013). However, these measures face comparability issues across different cultures and time periods. More conventional measures of one's SES include the individual's education, income, and occupation (González, Swanson, Lynch, & Williams, 2016).

Education level is determined by an individual's highest level of formal education completed. Researchers have found that education appears to be a better index of psychosocial resources such as the ability to manage social systems, effectively regulate health behaviors, accrue social support, and develop a sense of personal control or agency (Cundiff, Uchino, Smith, & Birmingham, 2015; Matthews et al., 1989; Ross & Wu, 1995; Winkelby et al., 1992). SES of students and their families has been found to be a pivotal factor of the educational outcomes of students (Frempong & Willms, 2002; Ma & Klinger, 2000; Willms, 1999). In the Canadian Youth in Transition Survey (YITS), researchers found that only 31% of youth in the bottom 25% of the income distribution attend some form of post-secondary schooling compared to 50.2% in the top 25, and 43.4% in the middle 50% (Frenette, 2007). Students from higher average SES schools

were also found to be 1.38 times more likely to access postsecondary education than students from lower average SES schools (Frempong, Ma, & Mensah, 2012). These studies exemplify the significant difference in educational opportunity for people of differing SES status.

The second factor, income, is considered a more direct index of material resources (Cundiff, Uchino, Smith, & Birmingham, 2015). Income is a more stable aspect of economic status for any given year that strongly predicts mental health, behavior, and cognitive development in children (Duncan et al. 1994; McLeod & Shanahan 1993; Takeuchi et al. 1991). While income does have a relationship with education, it is only moderate due to instances of financially successful individuals with no post-secondary education (American Psychological Association, Task Force on Socioeconomic Status, 2007). For example, an athlete that skips college to compete in the professional level of their sport weakens the strength of this correlation. The income of an athlete may have influence on the affordability of additional training in their sport. Athletes from lower income families are often forced to limit expenditures for food, medical care, and other necessities in order to pay rent (Anderson et al., 2003). This can lead to less funds that are allocated towards lessons and practice for their sport.

The third conventional method of measuring SES is occupation. This factor is a measure of one's position in the socioeconomic hierarchy and is more closely connected with working conditions than other socioeconomic indicators (Wang, Shen, Sotero, Li, & Hou, 2018). These socioeconomic factors, along with one's social class, are considered the conventional standard method for measuring SES comparing it amongst a variety of

societies (González, Swanson, Lynch, & Williams, 2016; Leung & Xu, 2013). For example, Akben-Selcuk (2017) found that measuring SES in youth populations is best done through accessing parental occupation, highest level of completed education and family wealth. One's occupation has also been found to have significant influence on his mental and physical health. Research has found that workers that undertake more hazardous job opportunities, such as car mechanics and construction workers, are more likely to develop chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and also tend to fall lower in the socioeconomic hierarchy than those who undertake less hazardous work (Fujishiro, Xu, & Gong, 2010; Hnizdo, Sullivan, Bang, & Wagner, 2002). This may be due, in part, to the lower income and education levels that these workers possess in comparison to their less hazardous job obtaining counterparts (Fujishiro, Xu, & Gong, 2010). This phenomenon serves as an example of how the conventional measures of SES correlate with one another. These measures of SES are fundamental determinants of functioning across the human life span, including development, well-being, and physical and mental health as well (American Psychological Association, Task Force on Socioeconomic Status, 2007).

There are many disparities in quality of life between high and low socioeconomic status communities. The American Psychological Association Task Force on Socioeconomic Status (2007) found large disparities in three key domains of human life within these communities, with the first of which being health. The association between SES and physical and mental health has been found to be monotonic, as every step down the social hierarchy corresponds to poorer health (González, Swanson, Lynch, &

Williams, 2016). Much research has been conducted on the comparison between the health of high and low SES individuals. Di Domenico and Fournier (2014) found that higher levels of SES, along with higher levels of household income and lower regional levels of income inequality were indicators of higher levels of need fulfillment. This, in turn, predicted lower levels of health complaints from these individuals (González et al., 2016). High SES individuals also tend to possess higher levels of physical activity than their lower SES counterparts. Drenowatz and colleagues (2010) conducted a study using pedometers to compare daily physical activity levels among 271 children from high and low SES backgrounds over the span of one week. Within this study, researchers found that low SES children had significantly lower levels of physical activity with an average of 10,5000 steps/day than their high SES counterparts with an average of 12,000 steps/day. This may be due to the many barriers that low SES individuals report that they must overcome to engage in physical activity such health conditions, neighborhood safety, and knowledge of physical activity guidelines knowledge (Gray, Murphy, Gallagher, & Simpson, 2016), as well as lack of convenient locations in which to be active, such as gymnasia and parks (Shen, Mccaughtry, & Martin, 2007).

These disparities between high and low SES individuals are also viewed through a mental health perspective as well. Messner (1992) found that because there is more at stake for low-SES athletes, they typically experience greater levels of stress compared to athletes from upper-class backgrounds that have more options. This can be attributed to the dearth of resources that are readily accessible for low SES individuals. Research has shown that differences in SES background to be correlated with variations in

phonological awareness, literacy development, reading, and verbal problem solving (Inglebretet al., 2017). These challenges in mental health can also be attributed to the disparity in education between high and low SES individuals.

Education is the second domain in which significant differences are found within high and low SES individuals. Those from higher education and SES backgrounds tend to have more abundant and fruitful opportunities throughout. Ross and Wu (1995) found higher levels of education are associated with better economic outcomes, more social and psychological resources, and fewer health risk behaviors. Research has also found youth are susceptible to these disparities in education as well. For example, children from low (SES) families and minority groups were found to be highly vulnerable to the risk factors of at-risk youth (Liu, Xiang, McBride, Su, & Juzaily, 2015). These children may face academic, social, and behavioral challenges on a frequent basis. In turn, they may feel more alienated from school and peers and face higher possibilities of experiencing failure at school than higher SES children (Close & Solberg, 2008). These disparities, along with other factors of SES, lead to further differences in the human welfare of low and high SES individuals.

Disparities in the welfare of human beings of differing SES is quite present within the literature. Research has found that higher SES occupations provide more challenge and more opportunities for control over working conditions and use of a person's skills and abilities while lower SES jobs are generally more physically hazardous, provide less autonomy, more often involve shift work, and can be routine and monotonous (American Psychological Association, Task Force on Socioeconomic Status, 2007). Research has

also shown that challenges within health and education domains of SES may lead to challenges in the welfare of individuals as well. For example, Jivraj and Nazroo (2014) found that having a disability or low household wealth or being diagnosed with a chronic condition is strongly correlated with poorer life satisfaction and quality of life, all of which are effects of being in a low SES environment. Finally, research has examined the effects of high SES and high wealth on human welfare. Research has found that higher SES can directly or indirectly impact human welfare in a positive manner, while lower SES and financial wealth is related to a declining quality of life over time (Jivraj & Nazroo, 2014; Webb, Blane, McMunn, & Netuveli, 2011).

Researchers have also used subjective measurements to assess SES. The MacArthur Scale of Subjective Social Status - Adult Version (Adler et al., 2000) consists of one item, an image of a 10-rung ladder. Participants read the following prompt: "Think of this ladder as representing where people stand in the United States. At the top of the ladder are the people who are the best off – those who have the most money, the most education, and the most respected jobs. At the bottom are the people who are the worst off – those who have the least money, least education, the least respected jobs, or no job. The higher up you are on this ladder, the closer you are to the people at the very top; the lower you are, the closer you are to the people at the very bottom". Participants are then asked to identify the rung where they think they stand at this time in their life relative to other people in the United States. The scale has been found to demonstrate acceptable 6-month test-retest reliability within a sample 0f 191 continental U.S. participants (Spearman's rank order correlation = .62, $p<.01$; Operario et al., 2004). Researchers have

used this scale with a multitude of populations such as Indigenous-Americans, Chinese-Americans, African-Americans, Mexican-American, Asian-American, Latinx-American, European-American, and Pacific Islander adults from low SES environments (Bullock & Limbert, 2003; Franzini & Fernandez-Esquer, 2006; Ostrove, et al., 2000). While the scale is often used to assess subjective SES within the US, the scale has also been used to assess SES of participants within their community and work as well.

Name, Image, and Likeness (NIL)

Student-athlete compensation has been a significant topic of discussion since the inception of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) in 1905 (Brooks & Davies, 2007) . The primary argument for those against student-athlete compensation typically used the Collegiate Model of Athletics as their basis. This model posits that collegiate athletes are required to participate as non-paid amateurs and that their compensation for their participation where the mental, physical, and social benefits that they receive from their sport participation (Southall & Staurowsky, 2013). However, the multimillion-dollar enterprise that college athletics has become has led many to question the unfair disbursement of revenue to collegiate athletes (Aiello, 2016). For example, during the 2018–2019 fiscal year, the football programs at University of Texas and the University of Alabama generated approximately $223.9 million and $164.1 million in revenue respectfully (Berkowitz, 2021). Along with other highly profitable programs such as these, the NCAA itself brought in $1.1 billion in the 2020–2021 fiscal year (NCAA, 2021). These inequalities in revenue sharing over the last few years have led to much debate, legislation, and policy change which, in turn, created a new landscape of

collegiate athletics in which student athletes are able to profit from their name, image and likeness.

There are various cases, policies, and legislation that led to the NCAA's change in policy regarding NIL and player compensation over the past few years, the first being the O'Bannon v NCAA and Electronic Arts (EA) case that was first proposed in 2008. In this case former collegiate basketball player, Edward O'Bannon, and a group of current and former FBS football and Division 1 men's basketball players who participated in their sport between 1956 and the time of the hearing filed an antitrust lawsuit against the NCAA in an attempt to challenge the associations rules regarding compensation for football and men's basketball players. The plaintiffs alleged that the NCAA's rules against athlete's abilities to profit off their name, image, and likeness via live game telecasts, rebroadcasts, archival game footage, and video games created an unreasonable restraint (*O'Bannon v NCAA, 2015*). The ruling of the court agreed with the plaintiffs and found that the NCAAs rules did produce significant anticompetitive effects in the college and group licensing markets (*O'Bannon v NCAA, 2015*). While the NCAA's amateurism rules did not significantly change due to this case, it did provide the foundation for future state legislature.

Work towards NIL and player compensation began to increase after California Senate Bill No. 206, the Fair Pay to Play Act was signed into law by Gov. Gavin Newsome in late 2019 (Fair Pay to Play Act, 2019). The bill prevents post-secondary institutions in the state of California from creating rules that would prohibit student athletes from compensation through the use of their name, image, and likeness. While the original bill

was set to go into effect on January 1st, 2023, it was moved to September 1, 2021. Soon after the Fair to Play Act was signed other states followed suit. With this change in numerous state legislatures and no federal legislation to back it, the NCAA enacted an interim policy that went into effect on July 1, 2021 (Hosick, 2021). This policy provided the following guidelines regarding NIL:

- "Individuals can engage in NIL activities that are consistent with the law of the state where the school is located. Colleges and universities may be a resource for state law questions.
- College athletes who attend a school in a state without an NIL law can engage in this type of activity without violating NCAA rules related to name, image, and likeness.
- Individuals can use a professional services provider for NIL activities.
- Student-athletes should report NIL activities consistent with state law or school and conference requirements to their school" (Hosick, 2021).

With this current policy, collegiate athletes within the NCAA's Division I, II, and III levels of participation are able to receive compensation by utilizing their name, image, and likeness.

Integration of Basic Psychological Needs, Causality Orientations Theory, SES, and NIL

SES is a human factor that can function as a major determinant of an individual's motivation to engage in a behavior. Research has found that the lower individuals are in the social hierarchy, the less likely it is that their fundamental human needs for autonomy

and to be integrated into society (relatedness) will be met (Marmot, 2006). This relationship can be seen throughout the low SES community and may lead to more extrinsic motivation within low SES athletes to play their sport. This effect can be fostered by people outside of the athlete's immediate home. Research has shown that African American student athletes, in general, are usually viewed as more athletic and in lower SES class than their white counterparts by teachers and coaches (Harris, 1994). Researchers expressed that this belief held by these professionals is the reason why they believe they are doing a service to black student athletes to push them towards athletic careers (Harris, 1994). This in turn could cause the athletes intrinsic motivation to the sport to become more extrinsic due to a multitude of factors. One factor that could lead to more extrinsic motivation from these low SES athletes is the ability to feel pride and avoid guilt. These athletes may receive a sense of pride from their teachers and others for participating in their respective sport and may not wish to give that up (Amorose et al., 2016; Shakib, Veliz, Dunbar, & Sabo, 2011). Athletes may also feel if they do not participate in their sport then they will feel guilty for letting down their support system. Both ideals are considered extrinsic in nature and are considered controlling orientations for their motivation. A second factor that may lead to more extrinsic motivation for low SES athletes is the obtainment of higher social status. Sport sociologists have theorized that individuals from low-income and poor backgrounds overemphasize the importance of sport for enhancing social status at the expense of more realistic options (Shakib, Veliz, Dunbar, & Sabo, 2011). Studies looking at males revealed males from lower SES backgrounds were also more likely than males from higher SES backgrounds to choose

athletics as the most important source of social status (Shakib, Veliz, Dunbar, & Sabo, 2011). Low SES athletes may view their sport as a way to obtain social status, admiration, and congratulations from their peers, all of which are considered extrinsic motivators. The final reason that low SES athletes may view athletics through an extrinsic lens is to create financial and social mobility. For example, in his research with African American athletes, Messner (1992) found young male athletes from lower-class backgrounds were likely to view sport as essential for social mobility since other options of supporting their families were limited compared to their higher-class counterparts. Low SES athletes are exposed to many professional athletes that have used sports as a vehicle to a better life and may, in turn, extrinsically view their sport as a way to provide for themselves and their families. With these financial, familial, environmental, and societal pressures NIL may be viewed more favorably by low SES collegiate athletes as a means to obtain financial and social currency.

Gaps in Literature

Throughout this review of literature, a multitude of gaps within the literature were found. For example, while BPNT and CET has been used in a variety of studies to assess intrinsic and extrinsic motivation within sport, there is a dearth of literature regarding the combination of the basic psychological need of relatedness and its role within the tenets of CET within the sport and general psychology realms. This provides for a great opportunity to employ this theory in future research. Secondly, although there is a plethora on athletes' socialization in sport due to parental SES (Rintaugu. 2003; Rintaugu, Kamande, Litaba, Toriola, & Amusa, 2014), there is a dearth in research that

explains the motivational orientation that an athlete may undertake regarding their SES. Research in this aspect of SES is important for not only athletes, but for coaches, college/university, administration, faculty, family members, and supporters of the athletes alike to create a proactive environment for athletes of various SES backgrounds to intrinsically enjoy their participation within their sport. Thirdly, much research lacks in examining the satisfaction/frustration of the basic psychological needs of athletes from differing socioeconomic classes. Much of this research is race based and focuses on the athletic motivation of African American athletes (Dworkin & Messner, 1999; Harris, 1994; Hartmann, 2000; Hoberman, 1997; Sailes, 1996). While this take on motivation is important, it fails to create a holistic view of the athlete's interaction with his/her environment, which serves as a major determinant of the motivation that the athlete has for his/her sport. Finally, with the new introduction of compensating collegiate athletes via NIL, there is a dearth of research regarding the impacts that this policy has had on collegiate athletes. Also, while there have been novel attempts at creating scales to assess collegiate athletes' perceptions of NIL (Grambeau, 2020; Gupton, 2022) research has found no standardized measure for assessing these perceptions. By focusing more research in this area, practitioners can create programs and interventions to address the needs of these various athletes.

Literature Summary

Motivation is the key force that determines an athlete's actions and efforts to engage in a behavior. According to Deci and Ryan's Self-determination theory, this motivation can either be intrinsic, for the pure joy and sake of engaging in the behavior,

or extrinsic, for some separable outcome. SDT also states that this motivation can rely on an individual's ability to satisfy three psychological needs in autonomy, competence, and relatedness, and through the causality orientation of the behavior whether it is autonomous, controlling, or impersonal in nature. Motivation has also been found to be affected by other external factors such as an individual's SES, which is conventionally measures through the individual's education level, income, and occupation. Disparities in SES may lead to a plethora of health, educational, and human welfare problems for those on the low end of the SES continuum. To combat this, athletes from low SES backgrounds may extrinsically view their sport as a vehicle to change their financial and social class as well as a way to gain pride from their community. All of which may lead to a decrease in the intrinsic motivation that the athlete may have for their sport.

This review of literature leads into the purpose for this study because it establishes a clear connection between the satisfaction/frustration of an athlete's basic psychological needs and their level of motivation to participate in their sport. It also shows the potential effects that SES may have on an athlete's motivation as well as their perceptions of receiving income for their name, image, and likeness. Through this study, practitioners, teachers, coaches, and all supporters of athletes may work together to aid athletes to foster and sustain the intrinsic motivation that they have for their sport, which in turn will lead to increased enjoyment, well-being, and performance by the athletes.

CHAPTER THREE

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Participants

Participants for this study included 83 collegiate student-athletes across the United States, which satisfied the estimated sample size of 77 for a medium effect size (ES = .15) and power quotient of .8 calculated by G Power. All participants were student-athletes at either a Division I, Division II, or Division III college/university/ were academically eligible, and acknowledged that they received informed consent before their participation within the study.

Participants were asked to disclose their current classification in school, age, transfer status, race, ethnicity, sex, and sport that they participate in. Regarding current classification participants were composed of 52 Freshman (62.65%), 11 Sophomores (13.25%), nine Juniors (10.84%), six Seniors (7.23%), and five graduate students (6.02%). The age of participants ranged from 18-24 with 40 participants being 18 (48.19%), followed by 14 participants being 20 (16.87%), 13 being 19 (15.66%), seven being 21 (8.43%), five being 22 (6.02%), three being 23 (3.61%), and one being 24 (1.20%). Regarding transfer status 66 participants (79.52%) had not transferred to a new school while 17 participants (20.48%) had transferred to another school at least once. Regarding race the majority of participants identified as White with 56 (67.47%) followed by Black with 13 (15.66%), Latino/a/e with six (7.23%), Multi-racial with four (4.82%), Asian or Pacific Islander with three (3.61%), and Other with one (1.20%). Zero participants identified as Indigenous American or Alaskan. Regarding ethnicity the

majority of participants denied any Hispanic heritage with 71 (85.54%) while 12 participants (14.46%) endorsed being of Hispanic heritage. Regarding sex the majority of participants identified as male with 45 (54.22%) while 38 participants identified as female (45.78%) with zero participants identifying as Other.

Participants within this study were active participants in a multitude of university-sponsored sports with the majority participating in football with 27 (32.53%) followed by golf with nine (10.84%), soccer and swim & dive with eight (9.64%), baseball and tennis with six (7.23%), beach volleyball and track/cross country with five (6.02%), softball with four (4.82%), basketball and participants who identified their college/university instead of their sport with 2 (2.41%), and one participant (1.20%) who identified as a multi-sport student-athlete (see Table 1.1).

Procedures

The study was reviewed and approved for human subjects by the researcher's Institution Review Board. Once the study was approved, the researcher reached out to various athletic directors, coaches, and other athletic staff within his network within NCAA Division I, II, and III colleges/universities via email to ask for permission to have athletes at the college/university to take the survey. The email included a link and QR code to a secure Survey Monkey platform that the athletic staff distributed to their athletes. The survey began with an informed consent statement in which participants indicated their consent to participate by checking the "I agree" button (this is the only required response needed in order to submit the survey). After providing consent,

Table 1

Sex, Race, and Sport

Demographic	n	%
Sex		
Male	45	54.22
Female	38	45.78
Race		
White	56	67.47
Black	13	15.66
Latino/a/e	6	7.23
Multi-racial	4	4.82
Asian or Pacific Islander	3	3.61
Other	1	1.20
Indigenous American or Alaskan	0	0
Sport		
Football	27	32.53
Golf	9	10.84
Soccer	8	9.64
Swim & Dive	8	9.64
Baseball	6	7.23
Tennis	6	7.23

Table 1 Continued

Beach Volleyball	5	6.02
Track/Cross Country	5	6.02
Softball	4	4.82
Basketball	2	2.41
University Attended	2	2.41
Multi-Sport	1	1.20

participants were asked to respond to the questionnaires described below. Participation throughout the study was voluntary and anonymous.

Instrumentation

The participants first filled out a demographic form as a part of the survey (Appendix A). The demographic form asked for demographic information such as their current age, sex, race, and ethnicity. The demographic form also inquired about the participants academic eligibility, current classification in school, transfer status, and participating sport. The information from this demographic form was used as descriptive data for this study.

Basic Psychological Needs

The Basic Needs Satisfaction in Sport Scale (BNSSS; Ng, Lonsdale, & Hodge, 2011) was used to assess the basic psychological needs of the student-athletes regarding their sport (Appendix B). This scale has been appropriately used before with adult athletes in US and France (Gillet & Rosnet, 2008). The BNSSS contains 20 items with

three subscales: autonomy (ten items), competence (5 items) and relatedness (five items). The scale uses a seven-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from 1 ("not true at all") to 7 ("very true"). For example, participants were asked to answer how much they relate to a statement such as "In my sport, I have a say in how things are done". The BNSSS shows evidence of reliability, with alpha coefficient showing good reliability levels for autonomy ($\alpha = 0.83$), competence ($\alpha = 0.87$), and relatedness ($\alpha = 0.80$) (Ng, Lonsdale, & Hodge, 2011).

Motivation

The Sport Motivation Scale (SMS-28; Pelletier et al., 1995) was used to assess the level of motivation that the student-athletes have to participate in sport (Appendix C). This scale has been appropriately used with US adult athletes (Vora & Naik, 2016) and collegiate student athletes as well (Turkmen, 2013). The SMS-28 is a 28-item questionnaire that measures intrinsic and extrinsic motivation using three primary scales of intrinsic (12 items), extrinsic (12 items) and amotivation (four items). The scale uses a seven point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from 1 ("does not correspond at all") to 7 ("corresponds exactly"). Each item on the questionnaire is a response to the question "Why do you practice your sport?" Responses include statements that participants acknowledged to what extent it corresponds with them such as "For the pleasure I feel in living exciting experiences". For the purpose of this study, participants were only given the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation scales, totaling 24-items. The SMS-28 has shown good internal consistency with scores between .74 and .80 (Szemes et al., 2017)

Socioeconomic Status

The MacArthur Scale of Subjective Social Status - Adult Version (Adler et al., 2000) was used to categorize the participants of this study by SES (Appendix D). Researchers have used this scale with a multitude of populations such as Indigenous-Americans, Chinese-Americans, African-Americans, Mexican-American, Asian-American, Latinx-American, European-American, and Pacific Islander adults from low SES environments (Bullock & Limbert, 2003; Franzini & Fernandez-Esquer, 2006; Ostrove, et al., 2000). The scale consisted of one item, an image of a 10-rung ladder. Participants read the following prompt: "Think of this ladder as representing where people stand in the United States. At the top of the ladder are the people who are the best off – those who have the most money, the most education, and the most respected jobs. At the bottom are the people who are the worst off – those who have the least money, least education, the least respected jobs, or no job. The higher up you are on this ladder, the closer you are to the people at the very top; the lower you are, the closer you are to the people at the very bottom". Participants were then asked to identify the rung where they thought they stood at that time in their life relative to other people in the United States. While there are no standardized cutoffs for categorizing participants by perceived SES, the researcher attempted to follow the methods of Chen and colleagues by dividing responses into three groups: low SES (rungs 1–3), middle SES (rungs 4–7) and high SES (rungs 8–10) (Chen et al., 2012). The scale has been found to demonstrate acceptable 6-month test-retest reliability within a sample 0f 191 continental U.S. participants (Spearman's rank order correlation = .62, $p<.01$; Operario et al., 2004)

Name, Image, and Likeness (NIL)

The Perceptions of Name, Image, and Likeness Questionnaire (PNILQ) was used to assess participants perceptions of NIL within collegiate athletics (Appendix E). The questionnaire, created by the researcher, was adapted from a subsection of the NIL survey used by Kelsey Grambeau in her master's thesis for the University of North Carolina, Chapel-Hill (Grambeau, 2020). The PNILQ is an eight-item questionnaire that measures positive and negative perceptions of NIL. The scale uses a seven-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree"). Each item on the questionnaire begins with a stem "I believe . . ." and ends with statements that participants will acknowledge to what extent it corresponds with them such as "Student athletes should be able to sign autographs for compensation".

Data Analysis

To analyze the data recorded from the survey, the researcher attempted to use a moderation analysis to analyze if socioeconomic status significantly moderated the relationship between an athletes' basic psychological needs and their level of motivation to participate in their respective sport. The independent variables of the regressions include the basic psychological needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness), socioeconomic status, and the interaction between the basic psychological needs and socioeconomic status. The researcher planned to use the PROCESS Macro for SPSS, developed by Andrew F. Hayes, to create the interaction term and run the moderation analysis. The dependent variable of the regression is level of motivation the participants

have for their sport (intrinsic or extrinsic). If the interaction is significant ($p \leq .05$) then moderation is supported.

Before conducting the moderating analysis, several assumptions needed to be satisfied. These assumptions include the following:

1. The dependent variable is continuous. This assumption was satisfied with the identified dependent variable of motivation being continuous.
2. The independent variable is continuous. This assumption was satisfied with the identified independent variable of basic psychological needs being continuous at all three levels of competence, autonomy, and relatedness.
3. The moderating variable is at least dichotomous. This assumption was satisfied pre-data collection with SES split into three categorical levels of low, middle, and high.
4. There must be independence of observations. This assumption was satisfied by using the Durbin-Watson test for each level of the independent variable in competence ($d = 2.05$), autonomy ($d = 2.01$), and relatedness ($d = 1.81$).
5. Independent variables are linearly related to the dependent variable. A scatter plot of basic psychological needs against motivation was plotted. Visual inspection of these plots indicated that the assumption of linearity was met.
6. An absence of multicollinearity is needed for this analysis. This assumption was met as evidenced by no tolerance values less than .603.
7. An absence of unusual points (outliers, leverage points, and influential cases) is desired for this analysis. The assumption for outliers was met with no

studentized deleted residuals were more than three standard deviations from the mean (Cohen et al., 2003). The assumption of influential cases was met with no Cook's distance values above one (Cook & Weisberg, 1982). The assumption of leverage points was not met with one case. This was determined by identifying a threshold of .17 with the formula "2p/n (for large sample sizes) where p = number of parameters plus the intercept, and n = number of observations" (Cohen et al., 2003; Kutner et al., 2005). The researcher decided to continue with the analysis but note that this leverage point could influence the regression and moderation.

8. The assumption of homoscedasticity is needed for this assumption. This criteria was met by using the Breusch-Pagan test. Each level of the independent variable and the moderating variable had a significance greater than .05 with competence (p = .160), autonomy (p = .055), relatedness (p = .073). and SES (p = .065).
9. The assumption of normally distributed data is needed for this analysis. This assumption was met with studentized residuals being normally distributed, as assessed by Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (p = .071).

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was planned to be run to understand whether perceptions of NIL differed based on the SES of the participants. The independent variable of the regression was planned be the participants SES (low, medium, or high) while the dependent variable would be the participants perceptions of

NIL. Post hoc testing was planned to be used to uncover specific differences between SES levels if a main effect is found in the original ANOVA.

Before conducting the ANOVA, several assumptions needed to be satisfied. These assumptions include the following:

1. The dependent variable is continuous. This assumption was satisfied with the identified dependent variable of NIL Perceptions being continuous.
2. The independent variable is, at least, dichotomous. This assumption was satisfied pre-data collection with SES split into three categorical levels of low, middle, and high.
3. Independence of observations is needed for this analysis. This assumption was satisfied by having different participants within each level of SES.
4. There should be no significant outliers for this analysis. This assumption was not met due to one outlier in the data, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot for values greater than 1.5 box-lengths from the edge of the box.
5. The assumption of normality should be met for this analysis. This assumption was satisfied due to the robustness of ANOVAs and the Central Limit Theorem for larger sample sizes.
6. The assumption of homogeneity of variance should be met for this analysis. This assumption was planned to be run during the main one-way ANOVA via the Levene's test of equality of variances.

After testing the assumptions for a moderation analysis and ANOVA, the researcher found that these statistical tests could not be run due to the lack of participants

that identified as low-SES. The purposes of this study on the SES variable. While both high-SES and middle-SES had relatively acceptable numbers of participants for their conditions (28 participants (33.73%) and 54 participants (65.06%) respectively), only one participant (1.20%) identified as low-SES. Therefore, the original data analysis could not be conducted as planned. The researcher decided to continue with simple regression analyses to test if participants' scores for competence, autonomy, and relatedness predicted participants' motivation to play their sport. The researcher also decided to run analysis with SES as a continuous variable that's aligned with participants' individual answers to the MacArthur Scale and utilize a simple regression analysis to test if participants' SES predicted their perceptions of NIL.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Response Rates

The study was presented as a six-page survey via Survey Monkey (an online data collecting platform). The first page of the survey consisted of demographic questions. All 83 participants (100%) responded to all questions regarding classification in school, age, transfer status, race, ethnicity, and sex. 81 participants (97.59%) identified what sport they participate in while 2 participants (2.41%) identified the current college/university that they attend.

The second page of the survey consisted of the BNSSS with 81 participants (97.59%) responding to all questions on this measure. One participant (1.20%) failed to answer one question while another participant (1.20%) failed to answer two questions at random within this measure. The researcher decided to combat these missing data points by using the series mean for each item. Th researcher chose this option due to the missing data appearing to be at random and due to it being less than 5% of the total data for each participant.

The third page of the survey consisted of the SMS-28 with 82 participants (98.80%) responding to all questions on this measure. One participant (1.20%) failed to answer one question. Similar to the BNSSS, the researcher decided to combat this missing data point by using the series mean for each item. The researcher chose this option due to the missing data appearing to be at random and due to it being less than 5% of the total data for the participant.

The fourth and fifth pages of the survey consisted of the MacArthur Scale of Subjective Social Status - Adult Version and the PNILQ respectively with all 83 participants (100%) completing these measures in their entirety.

Basic Psychological Needs on Motivation

Simple regression analyses were used to test if participants' basic psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness predicted their motivation to participate in their sport. The results of the regression indicated that autonomy explained a significant amount of the variance in motivation (R^2 =.114, F(1, 81) =10.45, p = .002). Results also found that relatedness explained a significant amount of the variance in motivation (R^2 =.084, F(1, 81) =7.39, p = .008). However, competence did not explain a significant amount of the variance in participants motivation to participate in their sport.

SES on NIL Perceptions

A simple regression analyses was used to test if participants' SES predicted their perceptions of NIL. The results of the regression indicated that SES did not explain a significant amount of the variance in NIL perceptions.

Discussion

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this study is one of few that have attempted to assess collegiate student athletes' SES as a moderator on the relationship between their basic psychological needs and their motivation to participate in their respective sport. It is also to the best of the researcher's knowledge that this study is one of the few that have attempted to assess the relationship between collegiate student athletes' SES and their perceptions of NIL. It must also be stated that due to the lack of

participants that identified as low-SES, the results from this study should be viewed cautiously.

The findings from this study suggest that participants levels of autonomy did significantly predict their level of motivation to play their sport. This coincides with current research that notes that athletes that have some choice in their activity tend to also have significantly higher interest in their activity and intrinsic motivation (Gillet el al., 2012; Vansteenkiste, Niemiec, & Soenens, 2010). This can be viewed within stems of the BNSSS such as "In my sport, I get opportunities to make decisions". Findings from this study also suggest that participants levels of relatedness significantly predict their level of motivation to play their sport. These findings coincide with current research in that relatedness has been shown to predict indices of self-determination and intrinsic motivation for both sport participation and exercise behavior (Stults-Kolehmainen, Gilson, & Abolt, 2013). While autonomy and relatedness were found to be significant within this study, competence was not. This finding goes against current literature that posits that athlete's with high perceptions of confidence tend to also experience increased intrinsic motivation (Roberts, Treasure, & Conroy, 2007; Williams & Gill, 1995).

The findings from this study also posited that collegiate student athletes' SES did not predict their perceptions of NIL It is possible that numerous participants that identified as high-SES may not place much value within NIL due to common features of high-SES athletes such as enriched learning environments, access to resources, and engrained focus on long-term achievement (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Duncan et al., 1994;

Eccles and Wigfield, 2002). However, due to the lack of participants that identified as low-SES, this finding should be viewed cautiously.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Practical Implications

Collegiate student-athletes, coaches, sport clinicians and sport psychologists and counseling psychologists could benefit from taking the findings from this study into account in their practice. Collegiate student-athletes may use these findings to reshape their approach to their training. With both autonomy and relatedness being predictive of student-athletes motivation to play their sport, student-athletes may attempt to find training methods that they have control over and can engage in with teammates as well. This, in turn, could lead to student-athletes fostering an increased level of intrinsic motivation to compete in their sport.

The findings of this study could aid coaches in how they create their practice structure for their players. Coaches may take the notion of autonomy and relatedness strong predictors of intrinsic motivation and revise their practices to allow players to have more say so in the activities and training that they engage in. Also, coaches may implement more teambuilding focused training to strengthen the rapport amongst team members to lean more into relatedness. These changes could allow coaches to foster more intrinsic motivation within their players.

Sport clinicians and sport psychologists can benefit from the findings of this within their own work with collegiate student-athletes. Sport psychologists may find that tailoring their interventions to focus more on the autonomy and relatedness that student-athletes experience within their sport could foster more dialogue and a deeper therapeutic

relationship between the sport psychologist and the student-athlete. For example, an intervention centered around the student-athlete's sense of autonomy within their sport could open avenues to further discuss concerns that the student athlete may have in this area such as identifying what they have control over within their sport versus what they do not have control over within their sport. Also, interventions that are centered around the student-athlete's sense of relatedness could lead to further dialogue regarding connectedness to teammates, team culture, and player-coach interactions.

Counseling psychologists may also use these results within the realm of vocational psychology. Many clients may struggle to find motivation within their current career field due to a lack of autonomy in their day-to-day responsibilities or due to a lack of connectedness to their coworkers, supervisors, and company. Similar to sport clinicians and sport psychologists, counseling psychologists may implement interventions to aid clients identify autonomous actions that they can take within their career as well as interventions to help foster rapport within their company.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study, one being the challenges of conducting research and data collection within collegiate athletics. This limitation is multi-fold in nature with the first concern being the protection that many college athletic programs have of their student-athletes. Many administrators within these athletic programs may view research with their student-athletes as detrimental to their safety. There may be fear that a student-athlete's personal information will be shared without their consent, which could bring about various concerns for administrative staff. Future researchers could

make more of an emphasis to assure athletic departments that any data collected from their student-athletes will be highly protected and secured.

A second limitation that this study exposed was difficulties getting student-athletes to participate within the study in its totality. College student-athletes typically have strenuous schedules that occupy much of their time within school. This creates a greater difficulty in getting student-athletes to participate in a study that may take away from the various responsibilities that they have. Also, due to the various schedules that student athletes have, it is difficult to coordinate with coaches and other athletic staff who could be of assistance to distribute study materials due to the limited time that these individuals are allowed to be in contact with these student-athletes as well. To combat this, future researchers should provide better pitches to potential participants regarding how this research could benefit them. This, in turn, could lead to a student-athlete finding value in the study which may increase their chances of participating.

One of the most significant limitations regarding this current study is the changing landscape of NIL and other forms of payment for collegiate student-athletes. At the time of the researcher originally proposing this study in April 2023, NIL was fairly new with only two full years of existence within collegiate athletics. While colleges and universities were continuing to progress through the early concerns of NIL, there was an understanding that NIL was aimed for players to use their name, image, and likeness to produce revenue from third-party entities. However, on June 6, 2025 the House v. NCAA settlement provided numerous changes to this landscape such as roster limits for teams, backpay of funds up to $2.8 billion for student athletes between 2016-2025, and, possibly

most significant, allowing universities to share up to $20.5 million per year with their student athletes (Grenardo, 2025). This salary cap is expected to increase each year as well. Along with these changes at the collegiate level, currently 40 states allow some form of NIL and/or compensation at the high school level (Perloff, 2025). With these changes for both collegiate and high school athletics, there may also be shift the income that these athletes are able to procure at a younger age. This leads to the final limitation within this study which is how SES was analyzed within this study.

This study used the MacArthur Scale of Subjective Social Status – Adult Version to access for SES within the participants. The measure asks participants to "select the rung where you think you stand at this time in your life relative to other people in the United States". With that prompt many participants, who may also receive NIL and revenue-sharing funds from their college/university, may view themselves within the upper rungs of the ladder compared to how they may have viewed themselves before they began receiving NIL and revenue-sharing. The account for this, future researchers may decide to change the wording of the prompt to have participants think about where they would have placed themselves on the ladder before they began receiving payments for their athletic prowess.

Conclusions

Motivation is a key foundation to the actions and behaviors that an athlete partakes in within their sport. This drive and direction of motivation can be influenced by a multitude of elements that an athlete faces in their daily lives. The athlete's motivation lies upon a spectrum between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, depending upon the

motivators driving them. A set of these motivators include the satisfaction of one's basic psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness. However, research lacks in examining the satisfaction and lack of the basic psychological needs of athletes from differing socioeconomic classes. Also, with the newly introduced policies and legislation surrounding NIL, there is a need for research on how student-athletes' perceptions of it may differ due to various factors such as SES. The results of this study found that both autonomy and relatedness predicted motivation within collegiate student-athletes to participate in their sport. While this study did reflect current research, the results should be viewed cautiously due to a lack of participants identifying as low-SES. From a practical perspective, these findings may aid student-athletes, coaches, and clinicians in their approach to training and interventions for collegiate student-athletes.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

Student-Athlete Demographic Form

*All responses are voluntary

1. What is your current year in school?
    a. ___ Freshman
    b. ___ Sophomore
    c. ___ Junior
    d. ___ Senior
    e. ___ Graduate Student

2. What is your current age? _____

3. Are you a transfer student-athlete? (Yes/No)_____

4. What race do you most closely identify to? (check one)
    a. ___ White
    b. ___ Black
    c. ___ Latino/a/e
    d. ___ Asian or Pacific Islander
    e. ___ Indigenous American or Alaskan
    f. ___ Multi-racial
    g. ___ Other

5. Are you of Hispanic heritage? (Yes/No)

6. What sex do you most closely identify to? (Male/Female/Other)

7. What team sport are you a participant of at your college/university?

8. Are you academically eligible to play your sport? (Yes/No) _____

APPENDIX B

Basic Needs Satisfaction in Sport Scale (BNSSS)

Answer the following questions to the best of your ability. All of these questions are about playing your sport. Please indicate how often you have felt this way this season by circling a number from 1 to 7. 1 means "not true at all" and 7 means "very true." There are no right or wrong answers, so please answer each question as honestly as you can. Please make sure you answer all items. If you have any questions, feel free to ask.

	Not at all true						Very true
1. I can overcome challenges in my sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I am skilled at my sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I feel I am good at my sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I get opportunities to feel that I am good at my sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I have the ability to perform well in my sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. In my sport, I get opportunities to make choices.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. In my sport, I have a say in how things are done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. In my sport, I can take part in the decision-making process.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. In my sport, I get opportunities to make decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. In my sport, I feel I am pursuing goals that are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. In my sport, I really have a sense of wanting to be there.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. In my sport, I feel I am doing what I want to be doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I feel I participate in my sport willingly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. In my sport, I feel that I am being forced to do things that I don't want to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I choose to participate in my sport according to my own free will.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. In my sport, I feel close to other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I show concern for others in my sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. There are people in my sport who care about me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. In my sport, there are people who I can trust.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I have close relationships with people in my sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX C

The Sport Motivation Scale (SMS-28)

Using the scale below, please indicate to what extent each of the following items corresponds to one of the reasons for which you are presently practicing your sport.

Why do you practice your sport?	Does not correspond at all						Corresponds exactly
1. For the pleasure I feel in living exciting experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. For the pleasure it gives me to know more about the sport that I practice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. For the pleasure of discovering new training techniques.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Because it allows me to be well regarded by people that I know.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Because, in my opinion, it is one of the best ways to meet people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Because I feel a lot of personal satisfaction while mastering certain difficult training techniques.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Because it is absolutely necessary to do sports if one wants to be in shape.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. For the prestige of being an athlete.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Because it is one of the best ways I have chosen to develop other aspects of myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. For the pleasure I feel while improving some of my weak points.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. For the excitement I feel when I am really involved in the activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Because I must do sports to feel good myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. For the satisfaction I experience while I am perfecting my abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Because people around me think it is important to be in shape.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Because it is a good way to learn lots of things which could be useful to me in other areas of my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. For the intense emotions I feel doing a sport that I like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. For the pleasure that I feel while executing certain difficult movements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Because I would feel bad if I was not taking time to do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

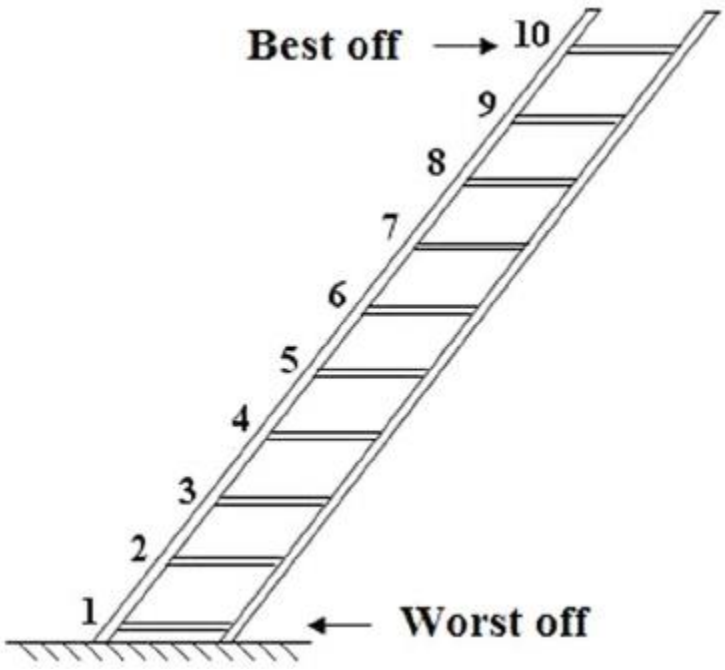
19. To show others how good I am good at my sport.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. For the pleasure that I feel while learning training techniques that I have never tried before.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21. Because it is one of the best ways to maintain good relationships with my friends.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22. Because I like the feeling of being totally immersed in the activity.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
23. Because I must do sports regularly.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
24. For the pleasure of discovering new performance strategies.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX D

MacArthur Scale of Subjective Social Status – Adult Version

Think of this ladder as representing where people stand in the United States. At the top of the ladder are the people who are the best off – those who have the most money, the most education, and the most respected jobs. At the bottom are the people who are the worst off – those who have the least money, least education, the least respected jobs, or no job. The higher up you are on this ladder, the closer you are to the people at the very top; the lower you are, the closer you are to the people at the very bottom.

Where would you place yourself on this ladder? Please select the rung where you think you stand at this time in your life relative to other people in the United States.



APPENDIX E

The Perceptions of Name, Image, and Likeness Questionnaire (PNILQ)

Answer the following questions to the best of your ability. All of these questions are about your thoughts about name, image, and likeness (NIL). Please indicate how often you have felt this way this season by circling a number from 1 to 7. 1 means "strongly disagree" and 7 means "strongly agree." There are no right or wrong answers, so please answer each question as honestly as you can.

I believe…	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. Student-athletes should be compensated for their play.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Student-athletes should be compensated for the commercial use of their name, image, and likeness.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. NIL will create a divide amongst teammates of the same team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The option of endorsement/sponsorships will impact student-athletes' decisions on where to attend school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. NIL will positively influence student-athletes' motivation to participate in their sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. NIL will negatively affect team culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. NIL will not create more pressure for student athletes to perform well in their sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. NIL will create a divide amongst different teams at a school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

VITA

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