Original Research

Perceptions of Motivational Climate, Goal Orientations, and Lightto Vigorous-intensity Physical Activity Engagement of a Sample of Finnish Grade 5 to 9 Students

ARTO GRÅSTÉN^{†1} and ANTHONTY WATT^{‡2}

¹University of Jyvaskyla, Finland; ²Victoria University, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

[†]Denotes graduate author, [‡]Denotes professional author

ABSTRACT

International Journal of Exercise Science 9(3): 291-305, 2016. The aim of this study was the examination of relationships between children's perceptions of motivational climate, goal orientation, and their engagement in light- to vigorous-intensity physical activity. The sample comprised 585 school children at age of 11 to 16-year-old from three small cities located in Northeast-Finland. The cross-sectional data was collected using online questionnaires in April 2014. The findings indicated that the higher task-involving motivational climate in physical education the children reported, the higher total light- and moderate-intensity levels they accumulated. Task-involving climate also indicated higher task orientation and ego-involving climate higher ego orientation. Additionally, the more children accumulated light-intensity physical activity, the more they engaged in moderate and vigorous physical activity. No indirect paths were observed from task- and ego-involving climate to light- and moderate- or vigorousintensity activity via task or ego orientation. The current low level of time spent undertaking physical activity in all categories should be considered as a matter of common concern, particularly amongst the most inactive students. Limitations in school curriculum scheduling options restrict the opportunity for substantially increasing the number of timetabled physical education classes. Therefore, developing content and pedagogical practice in physical education represents a viable to increase children's total physical activity. Schools need to place a higher priority on encouraging children and adolescents to participate in daily physical activity and to provide guidance to identify engaging activities, particularly of moderate or vigorous-intensity. For example, class teachers and physical educators could encourage their students to be physically active in terms of transportation to school and by participating in out-of-school sport and recreational leisure activities as options to increase total physical activity.

KEY WORDS: Achievement goal theory, motivation, intensity, physical activity, physical education

INTRODUCTION

Engaging in physical activity is beneficial to general health for individuals at all ages,

but it is particularly important to the physical development and well-being of children and young people (70). Schools can provide an important venue for

children and youth to address international physical activity guidelines (70), as these institutions are capable of promoting knowledge, skills, recess activities, bodily and social awareness, personal interaction linked to team effort, and health education additional at minimal cost to the community (20, 38, 42). These types of objectives are challenging to achieve in the school environment if children are not motivated to participate actively in their physical education classes (45).

Student motivation within physical education is a complex and dynamic process which means that it is reasonable to take into consideration more than one point of view to examine the process of motivation (50). Physical education teachers can knowingly influence students' physical activity through the management of the motivational climate in physical education feedback, reinforcement, classes via modelling, and organizing of physical engagement conditions activity (69). Motivation within the physical education context has been shown to transfer to motivation to participate in recreational physical activity (28). Previously, several achievement goal models of motivation that consider self-reported physical activity have been proposed (e.g. 7, 37, 50, 64, 67). However, none of the studies investigated the relationships of motivational climate, goal orientations, and intensity levels of physical activity. In addition, only limited research has been carried out in order to examine determinants of light-intensity physical activities (61). The present study endeavors to supplement previous findings by examining the links between Finnish children's school-aged perceptions of motivational climate, goal orientations, and their engagement in light- to vigorousintensity physical activity.

The Achievement Goal Theory (AGT) provides a suitable model from which to consider the role of motivation in physical education and activity (44). Previously, the AGT has been considered in the applied contexts of education (63) and physical education (25, 26, 46, 56). A major premise of the theory is that there are two elements for defining competence and success in activity, specifically task (learning) and ego (performance) orientation (43, 44). Taskorientation represents perceptions of ability which are self-referenced, for instance, learning new skills. The emphasis of activity is in understanding the current tasks and personal improvement, thus, contributing to increased motivation (15, 44). This denotes that an individual has embraced their own development as condition for competence and success (3). Task goal orientations also play an important role by influencing the children's motivated behavior, cognitions or beliefs by controlling situational motivation toward activities in educational settings (44, 50). In ego-orientation describes contrast, experiences of subjective success when children have a better performance than others and the central goal of participation in an activity is to display normative competence (44, 50, 55). An important of the theory assumption is that achievement goals are orthogonal. This means that a child can be high in one orientation and low in another, or high or low in both when participating in achievement-related activities such as physical education (50). However, to optimize motivation support as а characteristic in facilitating physical activity

engagement, task orientation should be promoted, regardless of whether the child has high or low ego orientation (19, 50). Gender contrasts in relation AGT typically reveal that girls tend to score higher on task orientation, whereas boys score higher than girls on ego orientation (2, 31, 71). Previous consistently shown research has the positive relationship between task orientation and physical activity behavior (21, 48, 60, 69). However, the role of goal orientation has yet to be empirically tested to clarify the determinants of light-intensity physical activity levels.

In addition to the goal orientations, another essential element of the AGT is described as motivational climate (3). Ames proposed that two types of motivational climates exist, task-involving climate and ego-involving climate (4). Task-involving motivational climate is representative of conditions that support effort and cooperation; emphasize learning and task orientation; and promote student reflection based on self-referenced criteria (3, 4). Ego-involving motivational climate denotes circumstances that stimulate normative comparisons and competition (4, 17). Previous studies have consistently shown that perceptions of taskinvolving climate in physical education positively influence students' experiences of task orientation (21, 26, 35, 69), and that an ego-involving climate stimulates ego orientation and social comparison (18, 26, 35, 47). Gender contrasts in perceived motivational climate have also been identified with boys scoring higher than girls in ego-involving climate (53) and girls scoring higher than boys in perceptions of task-involving climate (34).

Several AGT based investigations identified that teachers who create а (task) motivational climate that nurtures a selfreferenced definition of success are likely to positively influence students' task orientation (16, 32, 40, 68), physical activity in physical education (9), leisure time physical activity (65), and total moderate to vigorous physical activity (26). In contrast, students' perceptions of an ego-involving climate in physical education negatively related to the same set of physical activity outcomes (57). For instance, ego-involving climate was related to higher ego orientation in Greek secondary (16) and English elementary school children (66). The positive facilitation of motivation within physical education is expected to occur when task orientation is emphasized either through enhancing socialization experiences or through structuring the motivational climate so that it promotes task-involvement (3, 50). Despite the identified link between the motivational climate and participation in physical education, it is still unclear if school-aged children's lightto vigorous-intensity physical activity levels within physical with education connected are their perceptions of motivational climate via goal orientations.

The aim of the study was to examine the model including perceptions of motivational climate, goal orientations, and light- to vigorous-intensity physical activity levels. The central assumption of the current theoretical model was that physical education motivational climate would have been linked to physical activity intensity levels through goal orientations. First, the model including motivational factor climate, goal orientation, and light- to

vigorous-intensity activity was tested, under the assumption that task-involving motivational climate was positively related to task orientation (21, 26, 35, 69) and light to vigorous physical activity level (21, 48, 60, 69). In contrast, ego-involving climate was expected to be linked positively to ego orientation and negatively to light to vigorous physical activity levels (18, 26, 35, 47). The indirect effects of motivational climate on light- to vigorous physical activity levels via goal orientations were also examined. Finally, gender, grade, and school were added into the model as covariates, since age- and gender-related differences have previously been found in motivational climate (34, 53), goal orientation (2, 31, 71) and physical activity (24, 71).

METHODS

Participants

The sample comprised 585 school children (293 girls, 292 boys) at age of 11 to 16-yearold (M = 13.27, SD = 1.53) from three small cities located in Northeast-Finland. All Grade 5 to 9 students were invited to participate through a direct contact with school principals. Eleven percent of all school-aged children in the region participated in the study. The human participants' approval statement was obtained from the ethics committee of the local university. Permission to conduct the study was also obtained from all children and their parents by a written request. Students' participated as volunteers, and received no direct benefit from their involvement in the project.

Protocol

The cross-sectional data was collected using online questionnaires in April 2014. Children completed the questionnaires and provided background information details (i.e., gender, grade, school) under the supervision of the teachers during 45minute classes in the schools' computer labs. The participants were advised to seek assistance if they had concerns regarding the instructions or the clarity of a particular item. The children were asked to answer honestly and were assured that their responses were confidential. Children were aware their involvement was voluntary and could cease their participation at any time. To improve the reliability of the present self-reported physical activity scores, the maximum levels for light, moderate, and vigorous activity were estimated using an accelerometer data (1) as a comparative data base on the cut-off points presented by Freedson, Pober, and Janz (23). The accelerometer-determined data was collected across three phases from the smaller sample (n = 76) among the same children as in the present study. Participants had the procedures explained to them verbally, including a brief overview of possible physical discomfort that could be caused from wearing an accelerometer. They were asked to wear accelerometers for waking hours across a seven-day period. The devices were collected by the teachers and the data was processed by the researchers.

Perceptions of motivational climate in physical education were measured using the Motivation Climate in Physical Education Scale (54), which consists of four subscales representing task-, ego-involving, autonomy and social relatedness climates. For the purpose of the current study only

the taskand ego-involving climate dimensions were used. The commencing stem for all items in the measure was "In my physical education class..." The taskinvolving climate dimension consisted of five items (e.g. "It is important for students to try their best in physical education classes"), and the ego-involving climate dimension included four items (e.g. "It is important for students to succeed better than others in physical education classes"). Responses were recorded on a five-point Likert-scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Previous research demonstrated that confirmatory factor analysis supported the construct validity (TLI = 0.96, CFI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.059) and internal consistency (composite reliability ≥ 0.86) of the scale for Finnish secondary school students was acceptable (24).

Goal orientations were analyzed using the children's version of the Perception of Ouestionnaire Success (51). The questionnaire used in the current study had the individual item stem of "I feel most successful in PE classes, when..." The scale consists of twelve items, six measuring task orientation (e.g. "I feel most successful in physical education classes, when I really improve") and six assessing ego orientation (e.g. "I feel most successful in physical education classes, when I do better than others"). Items were rated on a five-point Likert-scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Mean scores were calculated and used as goal orientation values for both subscales. Gråstén (24) presented the results of a confirmatory factor analysis that supported the construct validity (TLI = 0.94, CFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.073, and internal consistency results that endorsed the composite reliability (r = \geq 0.93) of the scale for Finnish secondary school students.

Lightvigorous-intensity physical to activity levels were determined using the International Physical Activity Questionnaire Short Form (IPAQ-SF; 14). This version records the activity of four intensity levels: 1) vigorous physical activity (VPA) such as high-intensity running, aerobics, or cross-country skiing, 2) moderate physical activity (MPA) such as jogging or cycling, 3) light physical activities (LPA) such as walking, and 4) sedentary behavior or sitting. For the purpose of the current study, sedentary behavior was excluded, since the study was targeted to investigate the determinants of activity levels. The scale consisted of the last seven-day recalls for light, moderate, vigorous activity (days/ week and minutes e.g. "On how many days per week did you engage in light/ moderate/ vigorous physical activities such as walking for at least 10 minutes at a time?" and "How many minutes per day did you engage in activities?"). physical particular The number of days was multiplied by the minutes, and the outcomes were used as participants' LPA, MPA, and VPA scores. Rangul and group (49) reported that for a sample of 71 Norwegian students with a mean age of 14.9 years, the IPAQ-SF had a moderate correlation between maximum volume of oxygen (VO_{2max)} and physical activity in three levels (r = 0.32). The IPAQ instruments have acceptable measurement properties, at least as good as other established self-reports (14).

Statistical Analysis

First, normal distribution, outliers, and missing values of the data were examined.

No modifications due to normality were required. Some outliers were identified (LPA 31, MPA 61, VPA 35) based on the Mahalanobis distance test (p < 0.001) of standardized values (± 3.00) (58). The accelerometer-determined reference data indicated that the outliers mainly occurred because some children strongly overestimated their daily minutes of MVPA (over 1800 minutes per week). Therefore, the outliers were removed. The final data included 2.3% of missing values. Little's MCAR -test (χ^2 = 204.833, df = 184, p = 0.140) indicated that the missing values were not systematic. Hence, the missing values were assumed to be missing completely at random (MCAR) (36). Second, correlations, Cronbach alphas, means, and standard deviations for study variables were determined.

Finally, associations between motivational climate, goal orientations, LPA, MPA, and VPA were tested using the path model. The Chi-square test (χ 2) was used as a test of the model's overall goodness-of-fit to the data. To determine the appropriateness of the model the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) were also examined (5). A value less than 0.10 for SRMR are generally considered favorable (8, 33), and a value of 0.08 or less for the RMSEA indicate a reasonable error of approximate fit (12). The CFI and TLI indices range from 0 to greater than 1. Fit indices greater than 0.95 are indicative for an excellent and values of 0.90 or greater for an acceptable model fit (12). In order to test the differences between girls and boys, age-, and school-related differences, gender, grade, and school were added into the model as covariates. The proportion of variance predicted by motivational climate, goal orientations for physical activity levels were investigated using squared multiple correlations (R²). Figure 1 presents the theorized model of task-, ego-involving motivational climate, task orientation, ego orientation, LPA, MPA, and VPA. The missing value analysis was performed using SPSS Version 22.0 (30) and all subsequent analyses including multiple imputation using Mplus Version 7.11 (41).

RESULTS

Correlation coefficients, means, and standard errors, composite reliability, and intraclass correlation coefficients of the study variables were determined (Table 1). Descriptive statistics highlighted that the strongest correlations existed between children's task-involving perceived motivational climate and task orientation, and between ego-involving-climate and ego Overall, strongest orientation. the association between variables was found between MPA and VPA (see also Figure 1). All observed variables were assumed to be valid and reliable, since both composite reliability scores and intraclass correlations were relatively high. The mean scores participants indicated that reported motivational climate in physical education to be more task-involving than egoinvolving, and task orientation higher than ego orientation. Children accumulated an average of 18 minutes of VPA, 20 minutes of MPA, and 37 minutes of LPA on the daily basis (Table 2).

MOTIVATION AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY LEVELS

			-	-				
	Task- involving climate	Ego- involving climate	Task orientation	Ego orientation	LPA	MPA	VPA	α
Task-involving climate	-	-0.17**	0.50***	-0.01	0.09	0.15*	0.05	0.79
Ego-involving climate Task orientation Ego orientation	0.16**	-	0.10	0.47***	-0.03	0.04	0.05	0.80
	0.58***	0.18**	-	0.23***	0.14*	0.10	0.01	0.81
	0.30***	0.57***	0.55***	-	-0.04	0.01	0.06	0.91
LPA	0.18**	0.04	0.11	0.09	-	0.51***	0.37***	
MPA	0.19**	0.01	0.20**	0.05	0.44***	-	0.65***	
VPA	0.06	-0.03	0.05	0.02	0.49***	0.70***	-	
α	0.87	0.79	0.90	0.91				

Table 1. Correlations and Cronbach alphas of the study variables for girls (n = 293) and boys (n = 292).

Note 1. Correlations and Cronbach alphas for girls are presented above the diagonal and for boys below the diagonal. Note 2. *** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05.

Gender	Grade	Ν	Task-	Ego-	Task	Ego	LPA	MPA	VPA
			involving	involving	orientation	orientation			
			climate	climate					
Girls	5	59	4.33	2.38	4.04	2.95	281.24	168.27	154.48
			(0.63)	(0.85)	(0.69)	(1.01)	(235.87)	(134.74)	(136.09)
	6	58	4.24	2.52	3.88	2.99	285.77	146.25	133.80
			(0.71)	(0.77)	(0.73)	(0.86)	(227.61)	(121.52)	(115.38)
	7	64	4.21	2.90	3.99	3.11	276.67	138.52	124.75
			(0.64)	(0.99)	(0.71)	(0.99)	(261.71)	(118.08)	(117.41)
	8	50	4.31	2.64	3.94	2.68	268.83	122.93	142.70
			(0.60)	(0.90)	(0.75)	(0.86)	(226.28)	(102.04)	(115.81)
	9	62	4.17	2.82	4.02	3.05	229.70	135.62	128.41
			(0.63)	(0.84)	(0.59)	(1.01)	(201.08)	(112.32)	(106.75)
Boys	5	70	4.49	2.86	4.12	3.28	261.88	151.40	122.14
			(0.61)	(1.11)	(0.89)	(1.17)	(276.15)	(138.51)	(127.85)
	6	57	4.22	2.70	3.98	3.41	307.19	139.04	125.09
			(0.74)	(0.88)	(0.87)	(0.85)	(280.85)	(142.76)	(121.86)
	7	62	4.00	2.98	3.92	3.39	161.32	113.12	90.04
			(0.91)	(0.85)	(0.88)	(0.88)	(197.76)	(108.45)	(92.11)
	8	52	4.15	3.04	3.85	3.33	255.48	178.74	142.00
			(0.80)	(0.86)	(0.91)	(0.86)	(185.52)	(136.63)	(120.24)
	9	51	4.10	3.27	3.74	3.34	285.02	136.55	129.46
			(0.88)	(0.81)	(0.96)	(1.01)	(281.28)	(140.49)	(107.17)

Table 2. Means and standard deviations (in parentheses) of the study variables.

International Journal of Exercise Science



Figure 1. The theorized model of motivational climate, goal orientations, and physical activity levels. Variables: y1 = It is important for students to try their best during physical education classes, y2 = The most important is that we progress every year in our own skills, <math>y3 = Learning new skills makes me want to learn more, y4 = It is important for students to show that they are better in physical education than others, y5 = During physical education classes students compare their performance mainly to that of others, y6 = It is important for students to try improve their own skills, y7 = It is important to keep trying even though you make mistakes, y8 = It is important for students to succeed better than others, and y9 = During physical education classes students compete with each other in their performance

The factor model was implemented in order to analyze the associations of task and egoinvolving motivational climate; task and ego orientations; and light- to vigorousintensity physical activity (see Figure 1). The theorized model revealed an acceptable overall fit for the data (χ^2 (82) = 171.295, p < 0.001, CFI = 0.96, TLI = 0.93 RMSEA = 0.043, 90% CI [0.03, 0.05], SRMR = 0.030). However, the model was modified based on the modification indices. The residuals of the items y1 and y2 in addition to y7 and v9 were allowed to correlate. The modified model (Figure 2) revealed an excellent model fit (χ^2 (80) = 113.160, p < 0.01, CFI = 0.99, TLI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.027, 90% CI [0.01, 0.04], SRMR = 0.026). Statistically significant values for the Chi Square -test are typical in case of large sample sizes (12).



Figure 2. The standardized estimates for the model including task- and ego-involving climate, task and ego orientation, and light- to vigorous-intensity physical activity levels. All paths are significant at p < 0.05 level, standard errors in parentheses. For the sake of clarity, the covariate effects of gender, grade, and school are not shown.

The standardized results showed that taskinvolving climate in physical education related to task orientation, ego orientation, LPA, and MPA. Ego-involving motivational climate showed significant paths to ego orientation and task orientation. In addition, task orientation and ego orientation showed to have a significant association. Similarly, light-intensity level of physical activity related to moderateand vigorous-intensity, and moderateintensity to vigorous activity. No statistically significant indirect paths were observed from task- and ego-involving climate to LPA, MPA, or VPA via task or ego orientation. Statistically significant covariance effects of gender were found in ego-involving climate (p < 0.001) and ego orientation (p < 0.05) with boys scoring higher than girls. The effect of grade were observed in terms of task-involving climate (p < 0.01) ego-involving climate (p < 0.001), and ego orientation (p < 0.01). Elementary school children scored higher in task-

involving climate and lower in egoinvolving climate and ego orientation than secondary school students. School had an effect on perceived task-involving climate (p < 0.01). No other covariance effects were found. The model also demonstrated effect sizes that ranged from strong to weak, explaining 42% and 40% of the variance of task and ego orientation, and 2% to 5% of the variance of physical activity levels. Overall, the findings indicated that the higher the children scored for taskinvolving motivational climate in physical education, the higher total LPA and MPA levels they reported accumulating. High scores for task-involving climate were also indicative of higher task orientation, whereas higher ego-involving climate was higher with ego orientation. linked Additionally, the children more accumulated physical light-intensity reported activity, more thev the participating in MPA and VPA.

DISCUSSION

The aim of the study was to examine the links between children's perceptions of motivational climate, goal orientations, and light- to vigorous-intensity physical activity levels. Firstly, the results indicated that task-involving motivational climate positively related to LPA, and MPA. This particular finding was expected, because previous AGT based studies reported that task-involving motivational climate encouraged students to be more physically active in physical education classes (9), leisure time (65), and both contexts (26). In addition, this finding supported the notion that motivation in physical education transferred to participation in leisure time physical activity (Hagger, 2014). Taskinvolving climate, however, was not directly related to VPA. It may be that children and youth accumulate most of their physical activity out-of-school, because they spend only a limited number of their waking hours at the school (27). For instance, the present participants engaged in 18 minutes of VPA, 20 minutes of MPA, and 37 of LPA minutes per day. Similarly, Tammelin and colleagues (59) reported that Finnish elementary school children participated in only 22 minutes, and secondary school students 25 minutes, of VPA on the daily basis. Currently, Finnish comprehensive schools have 90 minutes of physical education per week including active and non-active periods (42). Thus, school physical education classes are more likely to provide light- and moderateintensity physical activities, because vigorous activity is mainly accumulated during leisure time. The direct association between task-involving climate and VPA could have materialized, if physical activity had been measured using segmented study design. For example, the adoption of the procedures of Brooke and colleagues (11) could be useful, as they reported the physical activity levels for weekdays and weekends using the segments of beforeschool, physical education classes, recess, and after-school activities. Nevertheless, the strong relationship between VPA and MPA, and the moderate relationship of VPA and LPA in the current data implied that the more children accumulate light and moderate activity, the more they engage in vigorous-intensity activities. From this perspective, physical education teachers could have a substantive impact on children's total physical activity levels through the regulation of motivational climate in physical education classes (69).

The current findings highlighted that both task-involving climate and ego-involving climate related to task orientation and ego orientation. This was expected, since previous studies have consistently shown that task-involving climate in physical education positively influences students' perceptions of task orientation (6, 21, 26, 35, 69), and in turn, an ego-involving climate promotes ego orientation (18, 26, 35, 47). For example, students in the experimental group reported higher levels of task orientation and lower levels of worry after the seven-month intervention implemented for secondary school-aged students in Greece (6). Students were permitted to complete activities at their own level (i.e. shooting in basketball from different distances), to choose their teammates and opportunities were generated for students to manage an activity, and commended for exerting effort and engaging in both the class and out-of-school physical activities. In addition, the formation of small teams during the classes was encouraged in order to promote students' social interaction, and students were encouraged to evaluate self-referenced themselves based on Teachers used students' selfcriteria. evaluations for grading. Students were also able to direct the tempo of learning based on their abilities and interests, that is, opportunities were provided for the students to determine when commence the next drill. Similarly, in the intervention of Digelidis et al (16) involving the promotion task-involving climate of а within secondary school's physical education classes, students in the experimental group had higher task orientation, lower ego orientation and more positive attitudes toward exercise than the control students.

No indirect paths were observed from taskand ego-involving climate to LPA, MPA, or VPA via task or ego orientation. This was not assumed, because both task-involving motivational climate (9, 26, 65) and task orientation (21, 48, 60, 69) have been revealed to be positively linked with physical activity behavior. It must be recognized that school physical education classes are not limited to training physical because involvement in many skills. physical activities generates knowledge and insight centered on concepts such as rules, fair play, respect, tactics, bodily and social awareness, and personal interaction linked to team effort (20). This means that either high task and low ego orientation or high ego and low task orientation may lead to positive engagement in physical education (50), although the participation does not appear as physical activity. Additionally, it may be that present categorizations of physical activity did not produce such indirect paths. Perhaps, the theorized model should be extended by adding contextual physical activity into the model following the procedures of Vallerand and Lalande (62), since the current physical activity scores represented total activity.

The findings revealed also that boys scored higher than girls in ego-involving climate. Gender differences in motivational climate have previously been found with boys scoring higher than girls in ego-involving climate (53). Additionally, school had an effect on children's task-involving climate and the grade effects were detected in taskinvolving climate and ego-involving climate, with elementary school children ranking task-involving climate higher and ego-involving climate lower than secondary

school students. In Finland, all schools follow a national core curriculum (42) that frames the objectives and core contents of physical education. Individual education are responsible for practical settings teaching arrangements, the effectiveness and quality of its education, are free to determine how to group pupils (39), and typically have single gender groups in physical education classes. Based on this, it is clear that not all children and youth perceive the motivational climate in physical education in the same way. In general, the participants reported the motivational climate in physical education to be more task-involving than egoinvolving. This was not surprising, since task-involving teaching methods have been considered through the Finnish physical education curriculum and teacher training for at least 20 years (42).

Finally, significant gender and grade effects were found in ego orientation with boys scoring higher than girls, and Grade 7 to 9 students scoring higher than Grade 5 to 6 children. Previously, girls have been found to score higher on task orientation, whereas boys scored higher than girls on ego orientation (2, 31, 71). In addition, Simmons and Blyth (52) argued that socio-cultural changes often associated with the transition from elementary to secondary school can be detrimental due to an increased emphasis competition, comparison, social on performance goal orientation and selfassessment of ability within the secondary setting. Perhaps, secondary school students' ego orientation increased after transitions to another school and transforms in their and environmental networks. social Wallhead and Ntoumanis (66) proposed that physical education curriculum should facilitate positive perceptions of the motivational climate, therefore, promoting task orientation within physical education at the secondary school level.

The key strength of the study was that the theoretical framework has previously been widely used in context of education (63) and physical education (25, 26, 46, 56). In general, the usefulness of self-report measures may be limited because certain health and well-being behaviors such as physical activity are difficult to recollect and perceived as sensitive by respondents, leading to reluctance to respond honestly (10). In the current study, upper and lower scores for the self-reported physical activity determined levels were using accelerometer-determined scores as а comparative data. The results provided important insights into the school-aged students' physical activity, especially LPA participation, since only a limited number of studies have been carried out in order to examine determinants of light-intensity physical activities (61). The limitations are mainly related to the study design and cultural issues. First, the present study was a cross-sectional and correlational and, therefore, the associations identified should not be interpreted as cause-effect relationships (29). Second, the study took place in Finland. The possibility for a cultural differentiation, especially in the presence of separated ego and task goal orientations has been proposed previously (13). Therefore, additional studies should undertaken regarding be the generalizability of measures assessing goal orientation and perceptions of motivational climate in other countries (22). Future would benefit research also from investigations the incorporate the use of a

control group design and objective physical activity measures.

The outcomes of this study support the notion that the higher the level of taskinvolving motivational climate in physical education perceived by the children, the higher the levels of total LPA and MPA in which they reported undertaking. Further, the more children accumulated light- to moderate-intensity physical activity, the participated more thev in VPA, respectively. The current low minutes of LPA, MPA and VPA should be considered as a matter of common concern, especially among the most inactive students. It is clear that the amount of time allocated to school based physical education programs cannot increased. Therefore, be markedly developing curriculum content and reconsidering the pedagogy of delivery may serve as possible strategies to implement in physical education as strategy to enhance children's LPA, MPA, and further VPA and total physical activity. Schools need to place a higher priority on encouraging children and young people to engage in daily physical activity and to provide guidance that make it easy to find activities, especially vigorous-intensity activities. For instance, class teachers and physical educators could encourage their students to physically active in terms of be transportation to school and out-of-school activities by suggesting physically active options to increase total physical activity.

REFERENCES

1. Actigraph. Actilife 6 user's manual. Pensacola: Actigraph Software Department. Retrieved December 18th, 2014, from http://www.actigraph.com. 2. Anderson D, Dixon A. Winning isn't everything. Goal orientation and gender differences in university leisure-skill classes. Rec Sports J 33(1): 54-64, 2009.

3. Ames C. Achievement goal, motivational climate, and motivational processes. In G. Roberts (Ed.) Motivation in Sport and Exercise (pp. 161-176). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 1992.

4. Ames C, Archer J. Achievement goals in the classroom: Students' learning strategies and motivation processes. J Educ Psychol 80(3): 260-267, 1998.

5. Arbuckle J. Amos 18.0 User's Guide. Chicago, IL: Amos Development Corporation 1995-2009, 2007.

6. Barkoukis V, Tsorbatzoudis H, Grouios G. Manipulation of motivational climate in physical education: Effects of a 7-month intervention. Eur Phys Educ Rev 14(3): 376-387, 2008.

7. Biddle S, Wang C, Kavussanu M, Spray C. Correlates of achievement goal orientations in physical activity: A systematic review of research. Eur J Sport Sci 3(5): 1-20, 2003.

8. Bollen K, Long J. Testing structural equation models. Newbury Park, CA: Sage, 1993.

9. Bowler M. The influence of the TARGET motivational climate structures on pupil physical activity levels during year 9 athletics classes. British Educational Research Association Annual Conference, Manchester, 2-5 September 2009.

10. Brener N, Billy J, Grady W. Assessment of factors affecting the validity of self-reported health-risk behavior among adolescents: Evidence from the scientific literature. J Adolesc Health 33(6): 436-457, 2003.

11. Brooke H, Atkin A, Corder K, Ekelund U, van Sluijs E. Changes in time-segment specific physical activity between ages 10 and 14 years: A longitudinal observational study. J Sci Med Sport (in press), 2014.

12. Browne M, Cudeck R. Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K. Bollen & J. Long (Ed.) Testing structural equation models (pp. 136-162).

International Journal of Exercise Science

MOTIVATION AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY LEVELS

Newbury Park, CA: Sage, 1993.

13. Cervelló E, Santos-Rosa F. Motivation in sport: An achievement goal perspective in young Spanish recreational athletes. Percept Mot Skills 92(2): 527-534, 2001.

14. Craig C, Marshall A, Sjostrom M, Bauman A, Booth M, Ainsworth B. et al. International Physical Activity Questionnaire: 12-country reliability and validity. Med Sci Sports Exerc 35(8): 1381-1395, 2003.

15. Deci E, Ryan R. The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. Psychol Inquiry 11(4): 227-268, 2000.

16. Digelidis N, Papaioannou A, Laparidis K, Christodoulidis T. A one-year intervention in 7th grade physical education classes aiming to change motivational climate and attitudes toward exercise. Psychol Sport Exerc 4(3): 195-210, 2003.

17. Duda J. Maximizing motivation in sport and physical education among children and adolescents: The case for greater task involvement. Quest 48(3), 290-302, 1996.

18. Duda J, Balaguer I. Coach-created motivational climate. In S. Jowett & D. Lavallee (Ed.) Social psychology in sport (pp. 117-130). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 2007.

19. Duda J, Ntoumanis N. Correlates of achievement goal orientations in physical education. Int J Educ Res 39(4): 415-436, 2003.

20. European Commission. Physical education and sport at school in Europe Eurydice report. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, 2013.

21. Ferrer-Caja E, Weiss M. Predictors of intrinsic motivation among adolescent students in physical education. Res Q Exerc Sport 71(3), 267-279, 2000.

22. Flores J, Salguero A, Márquez S. Goal orientations and perceptions of the motivational climate in physical education classes among Colombian students. Teach Educ 24(6): 1441-1449, 2008.

23. Freedson P, Pober D, Janz K. Calibration of

accelerometer output for children. Med Sci Sports Exerc 37(11): 523-530, 2005.

24. Gråstén A. Students' physical activity, physical education enjoyment, and motivational determinants through a three-year school-initiated program. Doctoral thesis, University of Jyväskylä, 2014.

25. Gråstén A, Jaakkola T, Liukkonen J, Watt A, Yli-Piipari S. Prediction of enjoyment in school physical education. J Sports Sci Med 11(2): 260-269, 2012.

26. Gråstén A, Yli-Piipari S, Watt A, Jaakkola T, Liukkonen J. Effectiveness of school-initiated physical activity program on secondary school students' physical activity participation. J Sch Health 85(2): 125-134, 2015.

27. Gråstén A. Children's segment specific moderate to vigorous physical activity through a schoolinitiated physical activity program. Balt J Health Phys Act 7(2): 19-32, 2015.

28. Hagger M. An integrated multi-theory model to explain the processes of motivational transfer across contexts. Doctoral thesis, University of Jyväskylä, 2014.

29. Hagger M, Chatzisarantis N. Assumptions in research in sport and exercise psychology. Psychol Sport Exerc 10(5): 511-519, 2009.

30. IBM Corporation. Statistics for Windows Version 21.0. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp, 2012.

31. Jaakkola T. Changes in students' exercise motivation, goal orientation, and perceived competence as a result of modifications in school physical education teaching practices. Doctoral thesis, LIKES-Research Center for Sport and Health Sciences 131, 2002.

32. Jaakkola T, Liukkonen J. Changes in students' self-determined motivation and goal orientation as a result of motivational climate intervention within high school physical education classes. Int J Sport Exerc Psychol 4(3): 302-324, 2006.

33. Kline RB. Principles and practice of structural equation modeling (2nd ed.). New York: Guilford Press, 2005.

International Journal of Exercise Science

34. Kokkonen J. Changes in students' perceptions of task-involving motivational climate, teacher's leadership style, and helping behaviour as a result of modifications in school physical education teaching practices. Doctoral thesis, LIKES-Research Center for Sport and Health Sciences 138, 2003.

35. Kokkonen J, Kokkonen M, Liukkonen J, Watt A. An examination of goal orientation, sense of coherence, and motivational climate as predictors of perceived physical competence. Scand Sport Stud For 1: 133-152, 2010.

36. Little R, Rubin D. Statistical analysis with missing data. New York: Wiley, 2002.

37. Lochbaum M, Bixby W, Wang C. Achievement goal profiles for self-report physical activity participation: Differences in personality. J Sport Behav 30: 471-490, 2007.

38. McKenzie T. The preparation of physical educators: A public health perspective. Quest 59(4): 345-357, 2007.

39. Ministry of Education and Culture. Finnish education in a nutshell – Education in Finland. Espoo: Kopijyvä, 2012.

40. Morgan K, Carpenter P. Effects of manipulating the motivational climate in physical education classes. Eur Phys Educ Rev 8(3): 207-229, 2002.

41. Muthén L, Muthén B. Mplus user's guide sixth edition. Los Angeles, CA: Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2013.

42. National Board of Education. National core curriculum for basic education 2004. Vammala: Vammalan Kirjapaino Oy, 2004.

43. Nicholls J. Achievement motivation: Conceptions of ability, subjective experience, task choice, and performance. Psychol Rev 91(3): 328-346, 1984.

44. Nicholls J. The competitive ethos and democratic education. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1989.

45. Ntoumanis N. A self-determination approach to the understanding of motivation in physical

education. Brit J Educ Psychol 71(2): 225-242, 2001.

46. Ntoumanis N. A prospective study of participation in optional school physical education using a self-determination theory framework. J Educ Psychol 97(3): 444-453, 2005.

47. Papaioannou A. Goal Perspectives, reasons for being disciplined, and self-reported discipline in physical education classes. J Teach Phys Educ 17(4): 421-441, 1998.

48. Papaioannou A, Bebetsos E, Theodorakis Y, Christodoulidis T, Kouli O. Causal relationships of sport and exercise involvement with goal orientations, perceived competence and intrinsic motivation in physical education: A longitudinal study. J Sports Sci 24(4): 367-382, 2006.

49. Rangul V, Holmen T, Kurtze N, Cuypers K, Midthjell K. Reliability and validity of two frequently used self-administered physical activity questionnaires in adolescents. BMC Med Res Methodol 8(47): 2008.

50. Roberts G. Understanding the dynamics of motivation in physical activity: The influence of achievement goals, personal agency beliefs, and the motivational climate. In G. Roberts (Ed.) Advances in motivation in sport and exercise. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 1-50, 2001.

51. Roberts G, Treasure D, Balagué G. Achievement goals in sport: The development and validation of the Perception of Success Questionnaire. J Sports Sci 16(4): 337-347, 1998.

52. Simmons R, Blyth D. Moving into adolescence: The impact of pubertal change and school context. Hawthorn, NY: Aldine de Gruyter, 1987.

53. Soini M. Motivaatioilmaston yhteys yhdeksäsluokkalaisten fyysiseen aktiivisuuteen ja viihtymiseen liikuntatunneilla [The relationship of motivational climate to physical activity intensity and enjoyment within ninth grade pupils in school physical education classes]. Doctoral thesis, University of Jyväskylä, 2006.

54. Soini M, Liukkonen J, Watt A, Yli-Piipari S, Jaakkola T. Factorial validity and internal consistency of the motivational climate in physical

International Journal of Exercise Science

education scale. J Sports Sci Med 13(1): 137-144, 2014.

55. Standage M, Duda J, Ntoumanis N. Predicting motivational regulations in physical education: The interplay between dispositional goal orientations, motivational climate and perceived competence. J Sports Sci 21(8): 631-647, 2003.

56. Standage M, Duda J, Ntoumanis N. A test of selfdetermination theory in school physical education. Brit J Educ Psychol 75(3): 411-433, 2005.

57. Stuntz C, Weiss M. Achievement goal orientations and motivational outcomes in youth sport: The role of social orientations. Psychol Sport Exerc 10(2): 255-262, 2008.

58. Tabachnick B, Fidell L. Using Multivariate Statistics. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 2007.

59. Tammelin T, Laine K, Turpeinen S. Physical activity of school-aged children. Research Reports on Sport and Health 272. Jyväskylä: LIKES, 2013.

60. Theodosiou A, Papaioaunou A. Motivational climate, achievement goals and metacognitive activity in physical education and exercise involvement in out-of-school settings. Psychol Sport Exerc 7(4): 361-379, 2006.

61. Tremblay M, Gray C, Akinroye K, Harrington D, Katzmarzyk P, Lambert E. et al. Physical activity of children: A global matrix of grades comparing 15 countries. J Phys Act Health 11(1): 113-125, 2014.

62. Vallerand R, Lalande D. The MPIC Model: The perspective of the hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, psychological inquiry. Int J Adv Psychol Theory 22(1), 45-51, 2007.

63. Vallerand R, Fortier M, Guay F. Selfdetermination and persistence in a real-life setting: toward a motivational model of high school dropout. J Pers Soc Psychol 72(5): 1161-1176, 1997.

64. Viira R, Raudsepp L. Achievement goal orientations, beliefs about sport success and sport emotions as related to moderate to vigorous physical activity of adolescents. Psychol Health 15: 625-633, 2000.

65. Wallhead T, Buckworth J. The role of physical education in the promotion of youth physical activity. Quest 56(3): 285-301, 2004.

66. Wallhead T, Ntoumanis N. Effects of a sport education intervention on students' motivational responses in physical education. J Teach Phys Educ 23(1): 4-18, 2004.

67. Wang C, Chatzisarantis N, Spray C, Biddle S. Achievement goal profiles in school physical education: Differences in self-determination sport ability beliefs, and physical activity. Br J Educ Psychol 72: 433-445, 2002.

68. Weigand D, Burton S. Manipulating achievement motivation in physical education by manipulating the motivational climate. Eur J Sport Sci 2(1): 1-14, 2002.

69. Weiss M. Motivating kids in physical activity. President's Council on Physical Fitness & Sports Research Digest 3(11): 1-8, 2000.

70. World Health Organization. Physical activity. Retrieved January 15th, 2014, from http://www.euro.who.int/en/healthtopics/disease-prevention/physicalactivity/physical-activity.

71. Yli-Piipari S. The development of students' physical education motivation and physical activity: A 3.5-year longitudinal study across Grades 6 to 9. Doctoral thesis, University of Jyväskylä, 2011