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A sport psychological manual for coaches of high school soccer players

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A Sport Psychological Manual for Coaches of High School Soccer Players

A Project Report

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department of Human Performance

San Jose State University

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

by

Lisa Best

August 1998

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ABSTRACT

A SPORT PSYCHOLOGICAL MANUAL FOR COACHES OF HIGH SCHOOL SOCCER PLAYERS

By Lisa Best

A sport psychology manual was created for new soccer coaches. The intent of the manual was to provide a resource for coaches of high school soccer. The manual had a special emphasis on coaching females, yet could be used by coaches of all sports, both genders. The manual contains five topics: Coaching females, goal setting and motivation, competition anxiety and coping techniques, problematic athletes, and communication and team cohesion. Five high school soccer coaches, five college soccer coaches, and two sport psychologists evaluated the manual. The results were supportive and the evaluators believed that there is a definite need for a sport psychological manual for all levels of coaches, not just at the high school level.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will discuss the history of soccer, women's soccer, the statement of the project, importance of the project, delimitations, and limitations of the manual.

Soccer, in the beginning

Soccer originally was played only by men. Soccer has roots in such diverse countries as Greece and Ireland (Vannier & Poindexter, 1968). The ancient Greek sport, called Harpastum, was played with a crudely shaped ball which the participants knocked with their hands or feet (Vannier & Poindexter). The word Harpastum was derived from the word Harpaston, which meant to hurl forward (Waters, 1950). The Romans began to play Harpastum as a means for training their warriors and preparing them for battle, and the game was extremely violent (Waters). Harpastum later became known as Feetballe (Vannier & Poindexter). Playing fields were not as restrictive as they are today, which meant that some goals could be at the ends of a town, or miles apart (Mandell, 1984; Vannier & Poindexter, 1968). There were cries of outrage against the sport, due to the destructive nature to humans and property, yet the game survived the times (Vannier & Poindexter). When the Romans invaded England, they took the game with them and this may explain the origin of the game in England (Waters). This game that eventually became soccer, was looked down upon by the upper class as degrading and only for the lower class commoners (Mandell, 1984; Vannier & Poindexter, 1968). This form of soccer was called mob football, and there was no limit to the number of players on a side or where the boundaries were (Waters). These games lasted up to several days (Waters).

Shrove Tuesday, or the Tuesday before Lent, became a great day in England for football as it was the last day of frivolity before the seriousness of Lent. This day led to vast crowds showing up to spectate, and masses playing a very violent game. There were no rules, so many participants were injured and sometimes killed. This event, combined with the fact that soldiers were now playing soccer more than the favorite sport archery, led to the English rulers outlawing the game in 1300 (Waters, 1950). All rulers of England from the early 1300s until the early 1800s believed that football was played too violently and that the towns suffered too much damage to allow the events to continue (Waters). Eventually, after the Puritan epoch, and the revival of athletics, the rules and field regulations for soccer football were made more universal by the English upper class, and soccer became a respectable game. Soccer was then introduced into the private schools and adult sport clubs of England (Mandell, 1984; Vannier & Poindexter, 1968). Although soccer was played in America in the early Colonial times, it did not gain popularity until after World War I (Vannier & Poindexter).

History of women's soccer

Women's soccer does not have a very extensive past. Some forms of women's soccer (football) were played as early as the sixteenth century in England (Henshaw, 1979). In the late eighteenth century, there was a locally famous soccer game played annually between married and non-married women in Scotland. It was rare to see women participating in soccer during those times, and it was not until the late 1800s that women's soccer became known in England and Scotland (Henshaw, 1979). In 1890, Preston, England was the center of women's soccer. Although the teams were mostly known for

their charity and volunteer work, they did tour the United States in 1892 (Henshaw, 1979). The main reason for the rejection of women's soccer within the male dominated world was the fact that the Football Association of London (F.A.) would not make up special rules for women. The game of soccer, according to men, would be too demanding for women. The governing body would not condone the acceptance of women's soccer into the F.A. due to their anticipation of injuries, and so the women were forced to make up their own associations and clubs (Henshaw). This lack of acceptance was felt all over Europe, not just in England. Since women's soccer in Germany was also rejected by the German football association (Deutscher Fussball-Bund), the women were forced to create their own association. Under this association, the first unofficial European Women's Football Championship was held in West Berlin (Henshaw). The participants were the best players chosen from Austria, England, West Germany, and the Netherlands. In the final, England defeated West Germany, 4-0 (Henshaw). Throughout the years following 1892, women's soccer was played but not recognized by any major football organizations. Most women's teams and clubs of that time were either sponsored by businesses or industry (Henshaw).

Although many clubs and teams were in existence during the early to mid 1900s in Europe, the United States and Canada were decades behind (Henshaw). The highest level for women at that time involved some club teams that were associated with the semi-professional men's teams in larger metropolitan areas (Henshaw). The American Ladies' Soccer Organization was founded in 1974 in Los Angeles. At that time, the scope of this organization was mostly weekend teams, confined to Los Angeles. Although many other

organizations attempted to become more of a dominant force in the advancement of women's soccer, none at that time was recognized by FIFA (Federation Internationale de Football Association) (Henshaw, 1979). FIFA was, and is, the governing body on rules and laws of the game, worldwide. In the early 1980s, FIFA decided that the growth of women's soccer was to be recognized. At that time, FIFA did recognize special rules for women's soccer: "...the Laws may be modified in their application for matches for players of under 16 years of age, for women's football and for veterans' football (over 35 years)" (FIFA, 1995) (p. 3). With the recognition came more opportunities for women to compete internationally. In 1991 China hosted the first ever World Cup competition for women. The United States' women won. It is very apparent that in the years to come, men's and women's soccer will still be unequal in terms of prestige and opportunities. This trend is ever more visible due to the U.S. women winning the first ever Olympic gold medal in soccer in Atlanta in 1996. Not only was this the first U.S. gold medal in soccer, but it was also the first time that women's soccer was recognized as an Olympic sport. The gold medal game was attended by more spectators than had ever witnessed a single match for women's soccer to date, worldwide (DeFranz, 1997). Unfortunately, the gold medal game was only televised for a short amount of time.

Title IX. In 1972, Congress passed Title IX of the Education Amendments Act (Grossman & Grossman, 1994). This act was designed to change the biased treatment of males and females in institutions receiving financial assistance from the federal government. It is important to note, that although the Title IX act was mainly for educational purposes, it did have a clause in it for athletics. This clause states: "Standards

for student participation in physical education activities and ability groupings within these activities must be objective and applied equally to all students regardless of gender” (p. 16). Unfortunately, before this law, many talented girls and women lost the opportunity to participate (Mechikoff, 1987). Separate athletic teams may be provided for males and females for contact sports or for other sports when the separation is justified by differences in skills. However, if a school has a contact sport for males only, a non-contact alternative team sport for females must be provided (Grossman & Grossman, 1994). The original intent of this act would be equal numbers of female and male athletes in the schools. The present intent of the law suggests that the total number of female students in attendance at the school should be taken into consideration. The female population of the school in terms of percentage of the total population is used to determine the amount of opportunity for women’s participation in sport. Since boys’ soccer was already intact in most schools, girls’ soccer was now being implemented. Women’s competitive athletics received a boost in the mid 1970s with the beginning of the Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) (Mechikoff, 1987). By 1976, college athletics were to treat male and female athletes equally, and with that came the emergence of the female collegiate soccer player (Schrof, 1995). Since 1982, and the take over of women’s college sports by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), the number of collegiate soccer programs for women has increased rapidly, going from 80 to 446 in 1995 (Schrof).

Due to the rapid growth of girls’ soccer and the fact the United States is decades behind the world in coaching advancement for soccer coaches, most girls’ soccer teams

are coached by people who have been coaches in the past but have not necessarily coached soccer. Typically, these coaches are men who have never coached girls or women before and may assume that coaching all athletes is equal. It is important for these coaches to realize that coaching soccer is a unique experience and to coach high school age athletes can be very challenging. Many issues that should be addressed when coaching some girls are very different from those of coaching some boys. Anson Dorrance, the University of North Carolina women's coach, has been the most successful coach in women's soccer in the United States by winning the NCAA national championship 10 times. He was the head coach of the women's national team when they won the first ever women's World Cup in China in 1991. Rosin (1994) reports Dorrance stating, "Women should be coached different than men...Men respond to power and presence. You have to raise your voice and act irritated. But with women, you have to ask them what they thought, reconstruct their performance and give them advice. Women don't speak English, they speak hidden agendas. Half time is like group therapy" (p. 15). There are many men who coach women who agree with Dorrance. It is for this reason that there needs to be a resource for new coaches, coaching female athletes.

Statement of Project

The purpose of this project was, therefore, to develop a coaching manual for new high school soccer coaches. This manual addressed some common concerns and problems that many new soccer coaches face. The manual also had a special emphasis on the female athlete. A manual of this nature may also be used for similar team sports, but soccer is one of the fastest growing team sport in the United States. This manual can therefore be

used by new coaches who lack the background in dealing with young athletes, especially girls. The topics in the manual included: coaching females, goal setting and motivation, competition anxiety and coping strategies, problematic athletes, and communication and team cohesion. The manual, So, you are the new soccer coach: A psychological approach to coaching, was sent to five high school soccer coaches, five university coaches, and four sport psychologists. Of the evaluators chosen, eight were women and seven were men. A questionnaire accompanied the manual, so that the selected coaches and sport psychologists were able to answer questions on a Likert scale, and then give comments.

Importance of the Project

It seems that with budget cuts and athletic programs often being the first affected, many teachers and part time coaches are being asked to coach soccer teams at the high school level. Athletes of high school age are not only going through some major physical changes, they are being faced with choices for the future (Mechikoff, 1987). A coach who is asked to coach this group must be equipped with the right tools to be able to deal with not only the non-competitive athlete, but the competitive one in all aspects of the game.

There are books and videos available for the coaches who have never coached soccer before (Coerver, 1993; Detchon, 1996), and there are also books available for the coaches to address sport psychological issues with their teams (Hackfort & Spielberger, 1989; Martens, 1987). There are also books available for coaches who coach females. There is not, however, a book or manual available for the new high school soccer coach that has a special emphasis on the female athlete. It is at the high school level that athletes decide

whether or not athletics are in their future. This manual will be a resource for high school soccer coaches who will then help children, especially girls, stay interested in soccer for a long time after high school.

Delimitations

The delimitations of this project are as follows:

The manual -- the manual was delimited to high school girls' soccer coaches.

The chapters in the manual -- the subjects chosen for the manual were common issues that many coaches deal with. The topics included: Coaching females, goal setting and motivation, competition anxiety and coping strategies, dealing with difficult athletes, and communication and team cohesion.

Limitations

The questionnaire used for the manual evaluation -- the questionnaire may have contained questions that the evaluators saw as biased. The comments made by the evaluators could have been due to socially desired effects, or the fact that they were not truly honest so as to not offend the author. Since the evaluators were not chosen at random, the answers did not represent the population as a whole.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature is divided into five topics. These topics are: coaching females, goal setting and motivation, competition anxiety and coping strategies, problematic athletes, and communication and team cohesion. These five topics are the five chapters in the manual, So, you are the new soccer coach: A psychological approach to coaching.

Coaching females

Coaching boys and coaching girls can be extremely different. As Anson Dorrance, of the University of North Carolina has said, "...when coaching males you must coach to their egos, and when coaching females you must coach to their emotions" (Schrof, 1995, p. 15). A coach must be prepared to coach all athletes. At one time, the female athlete was looked upon as being a second-class citizen. The passage of Title IX in 1972 allowed females and males to compete more equally regarding opportunities in sports (Mechikoff, 1987). Title IX was signed into law by President Richard Nixon, as part of the Education Amendments Act, proposed by Congresswoman Edith Green. Compliance with the law was not required for another 4 years, and at that time there were only 31,000 women participating in intercollegiate athletics (Wulf, 1997). Now, in 1997, there are more than 120,000 women participating in intercollegiate athletics (Wulf). Wulf (1997) stated that the year prior to Title IX passing, women were offered approximately 5.6 teams per college. This 5.6 number has risen to 7.5 in 1996 (Wulf). While these numbers have increased, the participation rate for high school girls has increased even more. While the number of boy athletes has remained the same as in 1977, (approximately 3.6 million), the

numbers for girls has increased from 294,000 in 1971 to 2.4 million in 1995 (Wulf). The passage of Title IX has been instrumental in giving females a chance to participate in competitive sport.

The enforcement of Title IX has been a long time coming, however, the idea that girls are less competitive still exists today at some local levels (Mechikoff, 1987). Feminism and the passage of Title IX have been instrumental in the advancement of women's sport, yet the playing fields are far from level in relation to men's and women's equality in athletics (Sabo, 1980). Women's athletics are described as separate and unequal (Sabo). The separation is because women generally do not play the "men's" games (i.e. football, wrestling) and unequal because women's sports and intramurals are often underfunded compared to men's programs, women coaches are paid less compared to men and the media tend to highlight women less frequently (Sabo). Thus, women's participation in sport may seem similar to males, but is hardly equal (Gill, 1986a).

In order to clarify the differences and language used in this chapter, it is necessary to define the terms used. According to Gill (1986b), sex differences refer to the biological differences between men and women, while gender differences refer to the societal, psychological, and behavioral characteristics in men and women. Historically women have been restricted by the traditional gender roles and the expectations of society (Mechikoff, 1987; Sabo, 1980). From early childhood, girls are expected, by society and culture, to behave differently than boys (Neal & Tutko, 1975). As a young girl, the female athlete is encouraged to allow the boys to win in order to show her femininity, and not to "lose" the affection of the boy in the future (Hart, 1980). According to Boslooper and Hayes (1980)

most women lose out either by lack of opportunity or by choice. Women have historically not known how to compete and are often programmed not to try (Boslooper & Hayes).

Unfortunately, as a girl enters her teen years, she is caught between being liked by the boys and being “like a girl”, and being called a “tomboy” (Neal & Tutko, 1975).

Lenkyj (1986) suggests that femininity and being heterosexual are concepts that are incompatible with being successful in sport. In this context, the women who play sports are either masculine from the beginning or sport makes them masculine (Lenkyj). The term “tomboy” had many damaging consequences for the female athlete (Hart, 1980; Lenkyj, 1986). According to Lenkyj, “tomboy” is used in conjunction with lesbianism. Unfortunately the girls who have chosen to play the traditional “non-feminine” games are considered masculine and deviant (Lenkyj). Women then must choose between two evils: participate and be ridiculed, or participate in the traditionally feminine sports (i.e. gymnastics, synchronized swimming, and figure skating) so they may mask their socially unaccepted masculine qualities (Lenkyj). Bacy (1970) states, “A woman must decide whether or not she can participate in competitive sports and, at the same time, enjoy satisfying and meaningful social relationships with men... The male concept of what is properly and appropriately feminine is still a powerful role determinant” (p. 28).

Female athletes not only have to deal with being competitive, but they must also deal with being accepted, being understood as an athlete and being taken seriously by coaches (Neal & Tutko, 1975). With these problems have sometimes come the assumptions that have surrounded the female athlete. Some of the myths for female athletes are that females are mentally and physically weaker, that females are unable to deal with

competitive stress, and the inability of a female to remain feminine if she competes in sport (Neal & Tutko). Nixon (1981) pointed out that cultural values generally favor involvement in sport for males due to the competitive, aggressive nature of the activities. Part of the socialization of the female may mean that she then becomes less involved in sport at an early age due to role expectancies in society (Nixon). Increased participation of women in competitive sport has initiated numerous studies on the problems that the female athlete faces. These issues include gender role conflicts, the orientation of gender roles in choice and levels of participation, and socialization into athletics (Anthrop & Allison, 1983; Colker & Widom, 1980; Greendorfer, 1987; Matteo, 1988; McElroy & Willis, 1979; Myers & Lips, 1978; Sage & Loudermilk, 1979; Salisbury & Passer, 1982). Each of these issues is a sensitive one for the high school athlete. It is therefore, important for the coach to be sensitive to the psychological, as well as physical, needs of the female athlete.

Along with being a female athlete comes the dilemma of her role in society. A woman's role in society has historically been that she stay home and provide for the family (Neal & Tutko, 1975). Now that females have more opportunity for advancement in sport, the ideals of societal roles are slowly changing (Weiss & Barber, 1995). The women of the past who endured the ridicule of society and played sports anyway, have lead the way for women to participate today (Weiss & Barber). It has been found that female athletes of today have received greater support from parents, siblings, friends and coaches to participate in sport than those of 10 years ago, yet it still is not equal to men (Weiss & Barber). Also, time has shown that the future for women's athletics is likely to continue

to be bright (Duquin, 1978). It is only logical that female athletes are imitating the men who play the sports they love, yet this creates the “manly” female that society condemns (Duquin). The more complex the society, the more roles are to be learned, the more confused the female athlete will become. Unfortunately, with the confusion of the female athlete, comes attrition (Weiss & Barber). If these girls participate and play the games as they are intended, they will be called names, such as “butch”. If these girls participate and act indifferently, they will be accused of not caring (Birrell, 1988). The roles of women and being a successful female athlete have been seemingly incompatible in the United States (Hart, 1980). According to Hart, a woman who wishes to participate in athletics in the United States places herself outside the norm of society. The societal conditioning begins when the female child is continually told that participation in sports is considered “manly” and that to be considered a girl, she must participate in girl-like activities such as dance (Hart, 1980). It is here that girls and women have a difficult time understanding which to choose from, society or sport (Hart). Few studies have been conducted on the female athlete and gender roles. These studies suggest that most female athletes surveyed were either masculine or androgynous (Colker & Widom, 1980; Harris, 1980). It is the case that they must choose. It is also unfortunate that once they do decide to compete, they may feel the need to continually convince society of their femininity (Hart).

Research has shown that participation in sport leads to heightened self-esteem in young boys (Ommundsen & Vaglum, 1991). This fact may also hold true for female athletes. Female athletes have been shown to possess better self-confidence, self-control, endurance, tough mindedness, and perseverance than female non-athletes (Harris, 1975;

Ho & Walker, 1982; Snyder & Kivlin, 1975). Harris (1975) conducted a study on 600 female and male students. She found that although the female athlete exhibits more masculine personality traits than non-athletic females, they are not any less feminine and have higher levels of self-esteem. Female athletes have also been found to be more interested in fair play and playing to the best of their own abilities, and not necessarily with winning as opposed to male athletes (Blair, 1985; Duda, 1987; Gill, 1986a). It is hypothesized by Blair that even though women were not displaying an orientation to winning in her study, that women may change their attitudes due to their increasing opportunities in sport. For the coach who coaches females, the psychological and social differences in male and female athletes need to be known.

Goal setting and motivation

Motivating athletes has been an on-going dilemma throughout the centuries (Tutko & Richards, 1971). Although coaches are expected to motivate their athletes, the athletes must take it upon themselves to become motivated on their own as well. Success largely depends on skill and motivation (Locke & Latham, 1985). Motivation consists of two aspects: intensity and direction (Martens, 1987). Intensity pertains to the amount of energy a person is putting out to obtain a goal, while direction means the goal itself (Martens).

Goal setting is an effective way for athletes to stay focused and achieve better performance (Bandura & Cervone, 1983; Barnett & Stanicek, 1979; Burton & Martens, 1986; Elliot & Dweck, 1988; Locke & Latham, 1985). Locke and Latham (1985) found that through interviews and questionnaires, athletes and coaches agree that without goals,

success is impossible. Many of the coaches also believed that motivation depends in a very large part on goal setting. The coach must have goals and the team must have goals.

Locke and Latham (1985) concluded from their studies that goals commit everyone to the work, pain and whatever else is part of the price of achieving success. Goals must be high enough to excite the athletes, yet not so high that they cannot be vividly imagined (Locke & Latham). Locke and Bryan (1966) found that specific, difficult goal setting was better for performance enhancement than the “do the best you can” approach. Specific goals are much more direct and are more reliable than vague ones (Locke, Mento, & Katcher, 1978). Additional information and feedback are necessary for performance enhancement and successful goal achievement (Koestner, Zuckerman, & Koestner, 1987).

Locke et al. (1978) have provided some definitions of goals, yet there needs to be some distinctions between these definitions so that they may be used effectively (Martens, 1987; Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981; McClements, 1982). McClements (1982) contended that there are subjective goals, general objective goals, and specific objective goals in goal setting. Subjective goals are those that include having fun, fitness, and trying hard or one’s best. General objective goals are basic ones that describe an overall accomplishment such as winning the league title or just making the team. Specific objective goals apply to the performance of the individual. These would be increasing personal statistics like increasing the number of goals scored, or increasing a batting average. Similar definitions have been established by other researchers as well (Locke et al., 1981; Martens, 1987). Outcome goals are goals that are stated for the general outcome of the competition or performance such as beating a specific opponent.

Performance goals are ones similar to McClements' specific objective goals which apply to one's individual improvement from the last performance.

Unfortunately, goal setting in sport research is relatively new. Prior to 1985, very few researchers conducted studies pertaining to goal setting in a sport environment (Barnett & Stanicek, 1979; Botterill, 1983; Burton, 1984; McClements, 1982). Although these studies have been few, they were promising for future research. Botterill (1983) studied young hockey players to determine if goal difficulty, goal explicitness, specificity and types of goals, were successful in increasing performance in endurance tasks. Consistent with the results found in the past with non sport related research, Botterill found that goal setting increased performance. More precisely, difficult goal setting was more effective on success in performance than easy goals or the "do your best" routine. It was concluded that difficult, very explicit, and team or group oriented goals were the best in increasing performance. Burton (1989) performed a similar study to determine if goal setting would increase performance. Burton also looked at the relationship of failure to achieve set goals vs. successful goal attainment to general cognitions (i.e. self-confidence, motivation, and anxiety levels). The subjects of this study were male and female national sports festival and collegiate conference championship swimmers. Burton found that the group that had set goals and participated in goal setting training were more able to focus on their performance goals and not concentrate on their anxiety or negative cognitions. These swimmers had better personal performances and had better self-confidence and lower anxiety levels.

Locke and Latham were the pioneers and the catalysts for much of the sport goal setting research done today (Gould, 1992). Locke and Latham (1985) used the already existing research findings in laboratory studies: that difficult goals are more effective and lead to better performance than easy goals; short term goals lead to long term goal achievement; goals affect performance by increasing effort, motivation and persistence; feedback is necessary to goal achievement; and goals must be accepted and realized for them to work. Locke and Latham wanted to evaluate whether these findings were applicable to athletics, hence the study. Their research found:

1. Specific goals will regulate action more precisely than general goals.
2. For quantitative (specific) goals, the higher the goal, the better the performance, assuming sufficient ability and commitment.
3. Specific, difficult goals will lead to better performance than the “do your best” or no goals.
4. Using short-term goals plus long-term goals will lead to better performance than using long-term goals alone.
5. Goals will affect performance by directing activity, mobilizing effort increasing persistence, and motivating the search for appropriate task strategies.
6. Goal setting will be most effective, when there is feedback showing degree of progress in relation to the goal.
7. With goals that are difficult, the higher the degree of commitment, the better the performance.

8. Commitment can be affected by asking the individual to accept the goal, showing support, allowing participation in the setting of the goal, training, selection, and incentives and rewards.
9. Goal attainment will be facilitated by a suitable plan of action or strategy, especially when the task is complex or long-term.
10. Competition will improve performance to the degree that it leads to the setting of higher goals and/or increases in goal commitment (Locke & Latham) (p. 210).

Locke and Latham went on to examine goals for practice, team as opposed to individual sports, goals during competition, using goals to increase self-confidence, task difficulty versus goal difficulty, achieving long-term goals through short-term goals, and gaining goal commitment.

According to Locke and Latham (1985) goals set for practice need to be difficult and specific. These goals will be set for the development of stamina, strength and skill. Goals to improve strength must be set prior to the workout. These goals may be in the form of repetitions and amount of time spent, as done in weight training. Specific goals are set according to physiological limits of each individual found by initial testing. Endurance goals may be set by choosing repetitive exercises used and time limits for during and in-between sets. These goals and limits will increase over time so as to allow the individual to be challenged. These increases must be factored in so that the individual realizes that short-term goals have been achieved and will stay motivated.

Goal setting for team and individual sports is generally the same. Each skill and sub--task may be divided so that each individual on a team can contribute to the team's success. With individual sports, the same holds true. Each task and sub-task must be broken down to ensure success for the individual in their sport. The only difference in these two are that team sports require that each individual cooperate with each other for success. The members must coordinate with each other to achieve success.

The goal for many competitors is to win. Locke and Latham (1985) suggest that although winning is the ultimate goal, there also should be goals set in how to win. This achievement would entail scouting the opponent and possibly limiting their best player to a given amount of points or limited action. For individual athletes this may mean setting a goal of percentages of successful tasks (i.e. making 45% of first serves in tennis). It is pointed out that too much goal setting may be burdensome (Locke & Latham). Competition may already increase anxiety levels in athletes, so additional things to concentrate on may be too much to remember. Another aspect to goal setting, suggested by the authors, is to assign points for tasks completed during competition. This would take the burden of winning off the team and put the aspect of personal achievement in the hands of each athlete. This would enable the athletes to still feel successful even if the win is not achieved. For example, each team member would set goals to their own positions and duties that would eventually lead to team success. This point system may also prevent the team or individual from feeling apathetic if the opponent is better than them (Locke & Latham, 1985). The point system is positive; no negative points are allowed. It has been found in additional research that positive-only feedback reduces the fear of mistakes. An

athlete who is experiencing high levels of stress will not take the risks for fear of failing (Martens & Gill, 1976).

Goal difficulty has been established as setting a specific goal for achieving subskills during practice and games. These goals should be difficult to achieve, yet short term to show the athlete success in small increments (Locke & Latham, 1985). It has also been discovered that another way to prepare athletes for competition is to make practice skills more difficult than the actual competition may be (Smith, 1980). These skills may be made more difficult by having team mates shout while team mates are taking penalty kicks in soccer, or making the basket target smaller than the basket in a real basketball game. There has not been much research on this topic, yet Campbell and Ilgen (1976) found that making the task more difficult in practice resulted in performance increases during competition.

Long term goals may seem out of reach without the setting of short term goals first (Locke & Latham, 1985). Short term goals allow the athlete to see pieces of the end result in each practice or competition. So, when the athletes are setting their goals for the season, it is suggested that they are very specific in why and what they are trying to achieve (Locke & Latham). The coach must be able to explain the reasons for each goal whether it be strength, skill or endurance, and the coach must be supportive. The relationship between the coach and athlete is extremely important. If the athlete does not trust the coach, then the ability for the athlete to have commitment to these goals is lost (Locke & Latham, 1985). The athlete is the one who must determine if the relationship is

a positive and supportive one. Locke and Latham (1985) suggest that these questions be asked of the athlete prior to goal setting training:

1. How much confidence and trust do you feel the coach has in you?
2. To what extent does the coach convey a feeling of confidence that you can perform successfully?
3. To what extent is the coach interested in helping you to achieve high performance?
4. To what extent does the coach try to understand your problems and do something about them?
5. How much is your coach interested in helping you (within reason) with your personal problems?
6. To what extent is the coach approachable?
7. To what extent is the coach generous in giving attention? (p. 220-221).

Locke and Latham (1985) also suggest that participation in goal setting may not be crucial, but being involved in planning is. This is so that the athletes are able to critique their own performances and see the progression in achievement (Locke & Latham). Once goals are set, the athletes need feedback in order to achieve the goals (Locke & Latham). Recognition may either come as a pat on the back during practice or game, or recognition of the best play or acknowledgment in the local paper. This will show the athlete that the coach is supportive and is willing to help the athlete achieve the short term goals set for them (Locke & Latham).

Locke and Latham's research, published in 1985, was the beginning of the goal setting research in sport type settings. This research challenged other researchers to begin testing their theories to see if in fact their ideas were valid. Since then, much research has been done to support their findings (Burton, 1989; Garland, 1985; Gould, 1992; Weinberg, 1992). Goal setting has been found to not only allow the athlete to achieve success, but it gives the athlete a sense of control and direction in their performances in practice and competition (Browne & Mahoney, 1984). Goal setting has also provided athletes with the ability to do self evaluation, and establish how much effort needs to be given in each activity setting (Locke & Latham, 1985). Short term goal setting is valuable because it gives the athletes direction and effort to their efforts (Bandura & Simon, 1977). Although goals must be difficult in nature, they must not be so difficult that they are unattainable (Locke & Latham, 1985). It is also important to note that goal setting in sports leads to self efficacy and positive self confidence. It is this aspect of sport that one hopes may transfer over into the other aspects of the athletes' lives (Locke & Latham, 1985).

Competition anxiety and coping techniques

This section will include a discussion of competition anxiety and some different coping strategies available to coaches and athletes.

Anxiety may be defined as "...feelings of nervousness and tension associated with activation or arousal of the organism" (Gould & Crane, 1992, p. 121). Anxiety prior, during, and after, competition has been a subject of research for a number of years (Jones & Cale, 1989; Martens, 1974; 1977; Sanderson & Reilly, 1983; Swain & Jones, 1991). Although anxiety may at times be helpful in aiding the athlete's focus, too much anxiety

can be detrimental to performance (Martens, 1977). There are many components to anxiety research, and so a brief summary of these topics is necessary to understand their relationship with sport.

Anxiety can be divided into state and trait anxiety (Spielberger, 1966). State anxiety refers to the anxiety that one feels in a specific situation. As the situations change, so may the anxiety level. Trait anxiety is the anxiety that one feels according to their beliefs and ideals. Trait anxiety is more stable than state anxiety, since situations change more freely than beliefs do. Trait anxiety may be the result of a person's life experiences while state anxiety may be the result of the situation at that very instant.

Anxiety may also be divided into cognitive and somatic components (Morris, Davis, & Hutchings, 1981). Cognitive anxiety is produced by thoughts and perceived as the mental part of anxiety. Cognitive anxiety is also considered to be the worry aspect of anxiety (Furst & Tenenbaum, 1986). Somatic anxiety is the physiological elements of the anxiety response. Somatic anxiety is the perception of rapid heart rate, clammy hands, tense feelings in muscles and the "jitters" (Martens, Vealey, & Burton, 1990). A person may feel all of these feelings when confronted with a perceived stressful situation.

Within state and trait anxiety, cognitive and somatic aspects emerge (Krane & Williams, 1987). It has been found that anxiety is multidimensional, not uni-dimensional (Davidson & Schwartz, 1976). The multidimensional view represents both the physical and emotional states that make up anxiety (Liebert & Morris, 1967). The physical or somatic aspects that Liebert and Morris found were similar to Morris et al. in 1981. It was noted in Davidson and Schwartz's work in 1976, that the cognitive anxious people

were not only worried by negative concerns, but also were unable to concentrate on given tasks and were experiencing disrupted attention spans. Martens et al. (1990) had also realized through their work that self-confidence and cognitive worry were on opposite ends of the spectrum in measuring anxiety levels. It was concluded that self-confident people were less likely to feel cognitive anxiety than those who were less confident (Martens et al., 1990).

Much of the anxiety research prior to 1977 was research done on the average person who may feel anxiety (Mahoney & Avenier, 1977; Martens, 1971; 1974; Spence & Spence, 1966). Spielberger, Gorsuch and Lushene, in 1970, designed an inventory to assess a person's anxiety. They developed the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) which had been used in the sporting world, but was not designed for sport. This inventory contains two separate scales, one for assessment of trait and one for the assessment of state anxiety levels. Sport specific state anxiety inventories exist as well. Martens et al., in 1990, published the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 (CSAI-2), while the State Sport-Confidence Inventory was established in 1986 by Vealey. These inventories address the state measures that are sport specific.

Anxiety as it affects performance in sport has also been a subject of interest for many years (Burton, 1988; Furst & Tenebaum, 1986; Krane, Joyce, & Rafeld 1987; Krane & Williams, 1987; Maynard & Howe; 1987; Prapavessis, Grove, McNair, & Cable, 1992). Much of the research has focused on the aspects of cognitive and somatic anxiety as it pertains to sport competition. Many theories have been established as to how high levels of anxiety affect performance (i.e. the Inverted-U theory). These theories all suggest that

an athlete will experience a level of optimal anxiety that will in turn help them perform at their best abilities (Hanin, 1980; Sonstroem & Bernardo, 1982; Yerkes & Dodson, 1908). The Inverted-U theory, although not established in reference to athletics, has continued to have consistent support regarding athletic performance (Hebb, 1955; Klavora, 1977; Martens & Landers, 1970, Sonstroem & Bernardo, 1982). The original premise of the Inverted-U theory was based on mice and their performance after they were given an electric shock (Yerkes & Dodson, 1908). In athletics, the basic premise of the Inverted-U theory is that an athlete will experience varying levels of arousal throughout competition (Klavora, 1977). The athlete will then perform the best when the anxiety is at some intermediate point. The original Inverted-U curve shows that the level of performance is related to the arousal level. Yerkes and Dodson, in 1908, established the Inverted-U to show that there is an optimal energy zone level at the height of the inverted-U shape that represents the point where performance will be at the highest level and the energy is at a moderate level. This theory may be applied to athletics. If athletes attempt to perform at a level of arousal that is too high, their performances will decrease, and conversely if their arousal level is too low, they will also experience low performance levels (Martens & Landers, 1970).

Martens and Landers in 1970 also found that moderately stressed individuals performed better than those who were performing at low or high levels of arousal. Klavora in 1977 studied the relationship between levels of arousal with male high school basketball players. Klavora found a range of optimal arousal where the best performances occurred. Sontroem and Bernardo, in 1982, also found support in the Inverted-U theory

while studying female collegiate basketball players. It was found that athletes with moderate levels of trait and state anxiety performed the best, scoring the most points and playing the best overall. Here it was also stated that the worst performances were by those athletes that were either too high on the anxiety scale or not high enough. Although these studies have been helpful in understanding Inverted-U, Martens (1987) contends that high levels of arousal may be divided into two categories: psychic energy and stress energy. It has been suggested that moderate to high levels of psychic energy are what are beneficial to optimal performance, not moderate to high levels of stress (Martens). Stress is known to hurt athletes' performances by causing unnecessary muscle tension and causing attention span to become very narrow (Martens). According to Selye (1956) "Stress is the state manifested by a specific syndrome which consists of all the nonspecifically induced changes within a biologic system" (p. 54). This means that stress has its own characteristic form but may be caused by anything. In most cases, stress is considered to be bad, and can possibly have some harmful effects (Martens, 1987). Lowe (1971) studied the effects of psychic energy levels in Little League Baseball players, ages 11 and 12. Lowe found that the psychic energy that the players experienced was determined by game criticality and situation criticality. The game criticality referred to where the game placed the team in the league standings, and situation criticality referred to the situation in which the hitters were hitting. Lowe and his assistants monitored the heart rate of each hitter prior to each at bat and also subjectively monitored the amount of fidgeting that hitter did prior to being in the on-deck circle. It was found that game criticality was the highest when two teams, close to each other in the standings, played

each other. Situation criticality was the highest in the last few innings, with a tie score. Performance was rated on the kind of hit the hitter got in relation to solidness of the hit, not necessarily how far the ball went, or the outcome of the play. The hit was then recorded as a high performance hit, if the player was able to make good, solid contact on the ball. Outcome ratings were also scored for each hit, which was evaluated by the play of the defense. If the play by the defense was an outstanding one, (i.e. diving third baseman, who makes the play) then the outcome rating was low. Outcome scores then in turn could be high if the performance rating was low if a hit was not a good, solid one, but the outcome was that the play by defense resulted in an error and the baserunner reaching first. Lowe showed that luck may be a critical factor in this, as a base runner would reach base on an error. This would show the children that although they may not perform well in each situation, they still may be able to score high on the outcome due to luck and error on the defense. Lowe's results supported the Inverted-U by showing that hitters who were hitting in moderately critical games performed higher (combined game and situation criticality scores) than those that were extremely high criticality and low criticality. These results were when all players were averaged together, which would mean that there were some athletes that were out of the norm. Martens (1987) also suggests that the zone of optimal energy is quite different for each individual athlete. Since each athlete is different, the coach must have the ability to realize each athlete's potential and how to tap into each psychic source (Martens & Landers, 1970).

Athletes must be able to tap into their psychic energy source prior to and during athletic contests to perform their best (Martens, 1987). In order for the athlete to find

these sources and stay focused, they must be equipped with the tools to master these tasks. Athletes must be able to tap into their self-awareness in order to stay focused in competition (Orlick, 1980). Athletes should be able to go back to past performances and identify which emotions and thoughts were ones that prevented them from giving a total effort during a given competition (Porter & Foster, 1985). These feelings may include intense fatigue, panic or depression. Cognitive reactions to stress could range from worrisome thoughts about outcomes (“I can’t finish this race, I am too tired”) to personal evaluations (“I did not train hard enough to be here”). These thoughts and cognitions hinder an athlete from concentrating enough to complete any task successfully (Suinn, 1989). Somatic reactions to stress that may lead to burn off of energy, high heart rate or the feeling of having to go to the bathroom all the time may also distract the athlete so that they may not be able to compete to the best of their abilities (Suinn). The athlete, then, must create a strategy that will replace these negative thoughts and feelings with thought stoppage techniques, positive self-talks and self-affirmations (Porter & Foster).

Stress management. Stress management is important for all athletes to understand in order for them to perform to the best of their abilities (Suinn, 1989). Some stress management techniques used in behavioral psychology have been useful in sport as well (Suinn, 1977). Some of these techniques include: progressive relaxation techniques, autogenic techniques and training, thought stopping and positive self-talk techniques (Martens, Vealey, & Burton, 1990). Just the mere sight of the opponent may distract the athlete enough that he or she will not prepare properly for the game (Suinn, 1976). Strategies as simple as putting a towel over the head to block the sight of the opponent, to

reading a slogan and concentrating on the surrounding environment, may serve as distractions to stressors (Suinn, 1976). Desensitization training may also be helpful in aiding the athletes' concentration (Wolpe, 1958).

Coping techniques are strategies to help people deal successfully with dysfunctional anxiety (Greenberg, 1996). These techniques are used in a variety of settings, and are now being used in sport environments as well (Silva, 1982). These techniques have been useful in enhancement of performance (Kendall, Hrycaiko, Martin, & Kendall, 1990; Meyers, Schleser, Cooke, & Cuvillier, 1979; Silva, 1982). It has also been found that the techniques in conjunction with each other are the most effective in enhancement of performance (Kendall et al., 1990; Silva, 1982; Suinn, 1977).

Since there are different kinds of anxiety, there are different ways of coping. If an athlete is primarily feeling somatic anxiety, then different somatic coping strategies will be used (i.e. progressive relaxation or breathing techniques). If the person is primarily feeling cognitive anxiety, then cognitive interventions are used (i.e. thought stopping, positive self-talk and cues). Both of these types of anxiety are inter-related in how one deals with them. By using cognitive techniques, the body will also calm down. The somatic techniques also, in turn, can calm the mind.

Progressive relaxation techniques are a series of tensing and relaxing selected muscle groups to enhance relaxation. This is a somatic anxiety coping mechanism. Edmund Jacobsen, in 1938, designed a method of tensing and relaxing muscle groups to help the subject recognize the two states of tension and relaxation. Jacobsen's theory was that a person could not be anxious and relaxed at the same time. This procedure is one in which

the subject is able to tense and relax muscle groups progressively throughout the body until each part is relaxed. As each muscle group is contracted, the contraction is held for approximately 10 seconds, and then relaxed for 15 to 30 seconds. The process is done repeatedly until that muscle group feels relaxed, and then a new group is incorporated. Jacobsen also suggests that relaxation occurs only when the muscle group being worked on is totally free of muscular contraction. These series of contraction and relaxation techniques need to be practiced over time, so that when the athlete is presented with an anxious situation, the procedures will not take as long for the athlete to benefit (Bird & Cripe, 1986).

Autogenic training is another technique to combat somatic anxiety (Greenberg, 1996). Johannes Schultz developed autogenic training in 1932. He proposed that this type of training consisted of a series of exercises that were to bring about a self hypnotic state. This state is similar to the state achieved with progressive relaxation techniques, yet it uses verbal cues to initiate the process (Bird & Cripe, 1986). A student of Schultz's, Wolfgang Luthe, began using these techniques with healthy individuals who wanted to be able to regulate their physiological and psychological states with training (Greenberg, 1996). This technique allows for the subject to decrease the heart rate, respiration, and muscle tension (Greenberg, 1996). According to Greenberg (1996), Schultz and Luthe established some prerequisites for autogenic training to be successful:

1. High motivation and cooperation of the subject.
2. A reasonable degree of subject self-direction and self-control.
3. Maintenance of particular body posture conducive to success.

4. Reduction of external stimuli to a minimum, and mental focusing on the procedure so as to eliminate the external environment.
5. Concentrated attention on physiological responses in order to concentrate on inward focusing.
6. Ability to give up ego boundaries (p. 51).

Based on Shultz and Luthe's work, Greenberg suggests that with these prerequisites, the body must be in an appropriate position for autogenic training to be successful. This positioning should be reclining with arms to the sides, palms facing upward, and the legs straight, with the toes pointing away from the body. Cushioning may be placed in areas for comfort, although not so much that the body is misaligned. The other positions may be seated, either in a straight-back chair with arm rests, or on a stool or low-backed chair while the subjects rest their forearms comfortably on their thighs with hands dangling (Greenberg, 1996). The seated position is the most convenient since it can be done anywhere and the subject does not fall asleep as easily (Greenberg, 1996). The process of autogenic training is one of sequence. Each stage must be mastered before the subject may move to the next level. These stages are based on Shultz and Luthe's work according to Greenberg (1996) and are:

1. Focus on the heaviness of the legs and arms.
2. Focus on sensations of warmth throughout the legs and arms.
3. Focus on sensations of warmth and heaviness of the heart.
4. Focus on respiration.
5. Focus on sensations of warmth in the abdomen.

6. Focus on sensations of coolness in the forehead (p. 148).

These stages may be mastered very quickly or over time depending on the individual (Greenberg, 1996). It is, however, necessary to make sure that the individual is able to achieve low levels of arousal (Kerr, 1989).

Imagery is also used in conjunction with relaxation techniques to allow the individual to mentally relax, while the body relaxes as well (Kendall et al., 1990). This is used to integrate the techniques of somatic and cognitive anxiety reduction. In regards to performance, much has been done to show that imagery, used along with relaxation, enhances performance much more than relaxation or imagery alone (Kendall et al., 1990; Suinn, 1977; Weinberg, Seabourne, & Jackson, 1981). Imagery may be defined as the quasi-sensory and quasi-perceptual experiences of which we are aware and which exist in the absence of real physical sensations (Mahoney & Avenier, 1977). These images may either be ones of seeing an image for relaxation or movements associated with mental practice. With imagery comes the use of cues (Silva, 1982). In 1982, Silva studied the effects of cognitive restructuring and self-instructional imagery as intervention strategies. Silva noted that there were stages to go through in order for the verbal cues to be effective. The stages were to identify the problem, identify the boundaries where the anxious feelings arose, and find solutions for each. The athletes were instructed to keep a journal in which they were to write their feelings regarding their behavior. The athletes were then told what were the consequences of their negative behavior and told to think of a word or phrase that would keep them focused and away from such activity. For example, Silva chose a collegiate, male, ice hockey player who had a problem with penalty time.

The athlete was instructed to identify the problem and give reasons for the fouls. He was then instructed to try to identify the exact time from when the problem arose to when it ended in each game. The athlete suggested that the problem time for him was right after he was beaten by an opponent. He felt the need to “make them pay” for beating him. The journal written by the athlete clearly stated that the problem of being beaten by an opposing player was what set off his negative behavior. Silva and the athlete then listed all the reasons why the behavior was negative (i.e. his team then had to play short due to his penalty time, his team would be at a disadvantage due to his temper, and inadequate use of his hockey skills). The next stage involved finding a phrase that would be heard by the athlete and he would be able to associate feelings of self-confidence and success. The phrase “stick to the ice” was used. Silva explains that with this phrase, the player was also supposed to visualize himself being successful and utilizing self-control. The phrase then reminded the athlete of a number of things: To keep his stick on the ice and not foul, to remain “cool” like ice, and to visualize success. The athlete was instructed to say “stick to the ice” to himself, each time he felt himself entering the boundaries of negative behavior. Silva found that the hockey player’s penalty minutes went from 52 in an eleven games to 22 in the remaining ten games of his season. It was also noted that the player’s on-ice time increased slightly more than two minutes per game, while his assist and goal production increased. Silva then used these same techniques on collegiate basketball players, and obtained positive results as well. Bird and Cripe (1986) also used cues to help anxious athletes focus better on their performances. This study was done on soccer goalkeepers who were defending corner kicks. Bird and Cripe suggest that the cues are

“if, then” statements to remind the player of consequences of their situation. These statements are to be shouted by the coach to warn and instruct the player of a given situation. Since the corner kick may result in a flood of attacking players rushing into the defending goalkeeper’s area, “if, then” meant:

1. If the corner kick is directed to the right uppermost portion of the penalty area, then look for an open attacker in front of the goal.
2. If the corner kick is sent in front of the goal and to the left, then face the opponent immediately in front of and to the left of the goal (Bird & Cripe, 1986) (p. 129).

Bird and Cripe (1986) suggest using such “if, then” statements because they instruct in a short amount of time and are positive in content. The cue, most likely then, will enhance the athlete’s ability to perform at a high level, increase success rate, and therefore decrease arousal (Bird & Cripe). The researchers also note that for the cues and imagery to be successful in decreasing arousal, the coach must be knowledgeable about the sport. This knowledge includes the ability to analyze the sport and players (Bird & Cripe, 1986; Silva, 1982).

Cognitive coping strategies may be used in conjunction with somatic coping strategies to gain the most success (Kendall et al., 1990). Thought stopping and positive self-talk are two cognitive strategies for increasing performance (Suinn, 1987; Ziegler, 1987). Basic psychology suggests that an individual can not give undivided attention to more than one task at a time (Ziegler, 1987). This premise assumes that athletes are the same as ordinary individuals. Ziegler demonstrates that if this premise is true, then athletes need to

replace their negative thoughts with positive ones. Once this displacement takes place, the athlete may then become “centered” on the task at hand (Ziegler). In Richard Cox’s book (1994) Sport psychology: Concepts and applications, athletes may only be centered if they are aware of their center of gravity and able to control their thought processes. The following steps may be useful in thought stopping and centering :

1. Displace any negative thought that enters one’s mind with a positive one.
2. Center one’s attention internally while keeping in touch with arousal levels.
3. Use external cues to help focus on the task, and proper form.
4. Execute the skill as soon as one reaches a feeling of control with one’s attention (Cox, 1994).

Jerold Greenberg, in his book, Comprehensive stress management, suggests that the negative thoughts be replaced by positive reinforcement. Greenberg (1996) also suggests that the thought stopping process should be accompanied by deep muscle relaxation. Self-talk represents the thought stoppage procedure and also positive response time (Greenberg, 1996). This is to assure the individual that the eventual outcome, even the worst possible scenario, is never totally bad. Ievleva and Orlick found in 1991 that positive belief systems are influential in healing injured athletes. Positive self-talk is only successful if the athlete is willing to replace all negative thoughts with positive ones. The instant the negative thought enters the athlete’s mind, it serves as a cue for the athlete to do a replacement with positive thoughts (Ievleva & Orlick, 1991). The key for an athlete to be successful in thought stopping is awareness (Ziegler, 1987). The athlete must realize that he or she is having negative thoughts so that they may replace them with positive ones

(Ziegler). An effective strategy to awareness may be for the athlete to break down the day into parts, and then count the number of negative thoughts in each part (Ziegler). Ziegler points out that this type of strategy may be useful in showing athletes the level of their problem. Ziegler suggests that the athletes may start by yelling the word “no” each time they felt a negative thought begin. This would then cue the athlete to think positively. This strategy would eventually become a subconscious act, where the word “no” would not have to be yelled out for the athlete to realize the negativity taking place (Ziegler).

Weinberg, Smith, Jackson and Gould (1984) studied the effects of positive self-talk on 115 males and 115 females from University of Texas physical education classes. The subjects were to perform a leg lift muscular endurance test. The subjects were divided into four groups. Group one was instructed that throughout the whole task, they were to constantly think of a pleasant time that was unrelated to strenuous exercise. The second group was instructed to monitor their fatigue throughout the exercise. The third group was to encourage themselves throughout the whole exercise. The fourth group was the control group, and were not given any strategy. The results of the study showed that the groups that were instructed to think pleasant thoughts and to encourage themselves held their legs up for significantly longer times than those who thought of fatigue and the control. Gould, Finch and Jackson (1993) assessed the use of positive self-talk and positive orientation. The subjects were U.S. National Champion figure skaters between the ages of 18-33 years old (10 females and 7 males). These skaters were asked a series of questions that pertained to their coping strategies. It was determined that 76% of the skaters found that positive self-talk and a positive belief system were the most effective

strategies in dealing with stress. These strategies were all different in approach, yet they all served the same purpose. One skater stated that she never went to bed at night thinking that she could not be successful. Although she believed she was a nervous wreck and that she was unable to eat, she never believed that she could not do it: “I felt like I earned it, I deserved it and I could be as good a national champion as anybody” (p.457).

Problematic athletes

This section will include some examples of the problematic athlete, eating disorders and possible solutions or strategies for coaches to use when dealing with eating disorders and the problematic athlete.

In a review of literature dating 1960 to the present day, very little research was found to have been conducted on how to deal with problematic athletes. Problematic athletes come in all forms. Ogilvie and Tutko (1966) describe in their book, Problem athletes and how to handle them, seven types of problem athletes. These athletes were: the athlete who resists coaching, the “con man”, the hyper-anxious athlete (or “psyched-out” athlete), the success-phobic athlete, the injury-prone athlete, the withdrawn athlete, and the depression-prone athlete. These categories were found after much field observation and surveying of prominent coaches (Ogilvie & Tutko). More recently, Tutko (1993) found that although these seven types of athletes were at one time the most difficult to deal with, the most enduring types over the years were the uncoachable athlete, the obnoxious athlete, the “psyched-out” athlete, the athlete who fears failure, and the underachiever. Although Tutko found that these types were similar to the ones previously stated, these were more evident in youth sport, so these will be discussed in this section. This section will also

include eating disorders, due to the overwhelming statistics that point to adolescent female athletes being the victims of this problem (Borgen & Corbin, 1987; Burckes-Miller & Black, 1988; Dummer, Rosen, Heusner, Roberts & Counsilman, 1987; Lindsey & Janz, 1985; Rosen & Hough, 1988). The female athlete with an eating disorder not only has the complications of the disorder itself, but also has the pressures of the sport environment which may overemphasize proper body shape and size (Thompson & Sherman, 1993).

The uncoachable athlete. Ogilvie and Tutko (1966) state that although there are many problems in athletics, none is more frustrating than the athlete who resists coaching. It had been found that the majority of highly successful athletes are ones who were extremely coachable. It was found that coachability was determined to be one of the most common attributes among successful athletes as opposed to under-achieving athletes. It is stated that although there are some athletes who truly behave neurotically, there are athletes who are non-neurotic who create coaching problems (Ogilvie & Tutko). These athletes are ones who either have problems with authority or who are unable to trust the group and coach they are affiliated with. Trust is the most important factor for these athletes. Distrust is something that the athlete learned from prior experiences and has now brought to his or her current team. Coaches who betray trust not only destroy the athlete's confidence in them for that season, but for future seasons as well. Yet for some, unqualified trust may be placed in a new individual to give them the benefit of the doubt, yet for others, this concept is unheard of. The individual who can display unconditional trust and is able to feel well organized, free of restrictions, and respects the authority role of the coach, is one who presents little problem for the coach (Ogilvie & Tutko). The

greatest challenges come from individuals who have little respect for authority, have few organizational skills, and a need for exaggerated self direction. Although Ogilvie and Tutko found that there are other combinations of uncoachable athletic problems, these were found to be of the worst consequence to the coach. The following list contains signs for a coach to be aware of in the instance that an athlete is leaning toward uncoachability:

1. There is a definite tendency to avoid contact with the coach even when it is appropriate to have such contact.
2. There is a tendency to be argumentative, usually in a hostile manner.
3. The coach finds him or herself repeating directions often.
4. The athlete may use other authorities to refute the coach's arguments.
5. The athletes may return to prior coaches for support and instruction.
6. The athlete may resist the training regime given by the coach. The athlete will attempt to find flaws in the regime and suggest that it may not meet their personal needs.
7. The athlete may attempt to catch the coach making inconsistent statements and try to find flaws in his or her arguments.
8. The athlete may exhibit a strong tendency to let the coach down when they are most dependent upon them (Ogilvie & Tutko, 1966) (p. 33).

There are a few strategies in dealing with uncoachable athletes. Although these are a few, they are by no means all that exist. The importance in all of this is that integrity and trust are upheld.

1. As a coach, one must be careful about appointment scheduling and punctuality. Punctuality is a must. Athletes will respect a coach more if the plan is exhibited and stuck to. If the athlete is resistive to the plan, explain that the plan was a well thought out one, and produce a detailed form of such. The coach must try to resist changes to the plan, and discourage the personal change by the athlete by giving constructive criticism. Honoring the need for self expression is important as a coach, yet it is more important for the coach to express that he or she is the ultimate judge of what is good for an athlete and the team.
2. As the coach, be in tune to the types of athletes on the team. If the coach senses that he or she may have an athlete who will test him or her, the coach must make sure that he or she is up to date on the game or event that the athlete is participating in. This will eliminate the chance for the athlete to catch the coach being inconsistent and will allow the athlete to see him or her as a valued knowledge base.
3. The coach must try not to improvise by relaying information that he or she is not sure about. If the answer is unknown, the coach should let the athlete know that he or she will find the answer as soon as possible.
4. Coaches should not make promises that they are not able to keep. This will destroy any trust they may have had with the athlete to begin with. Keeping promises will be a great way for coaches to show their trustworthiness.
5. The most important thing for a coach to remember is that he or she is a role model as the coach. How the coaches act is how they are asking their athletes to

act. A coach must be aware of his or her behavior (Ogilvie & Tutko, 1966) (p. 33-34).

The obnoxious athlete. The obnoxious athlete comes in all forms (Tutko, 1987). In some cases, this athlete possesses no talent whatsoever, and the method of dealing with him or her is easy: to cut him or her (Tutko, 1987). However, when the athlete is one who is talented enough to make the team, or the best player, then the coach has a problem. Not only will this player help the team with his or her talent, chances are he or she will also be destructive. This destruction may be in the form of bad mouthing his or her teammates, openly challenging the coach, or just speaking freely (Tutko, 1987). The coach must then be able to analyze why the athlete is that way, and figure out positive strategies to deal with them. Although it is extremely hard to deal with this type of athlete due to the pressures of winning, without this athlete, the winning may not happen. It is likely that the athlete in this situation is imitating his or her parents. He or she has seen his or her parents act in this manner, and is acting out what he or she has seen. The coach then may be able to understand much more about this athlete by observing his or her parents (Tutko, 1987). The priority of the coach is then to be able to look at the situation objectively, to help the athlete most effectively. Tutko (1987) suggests five steps in approaching the athlete, and initiating change:

1. The coach must be able to let the athlete know what their behaviors are and why they are disruptive to the team. This discussion should be done in private since the athlete may not know that they are acting that way. The coach must also

let the athlete know at that time that their behavior will be pointed out to them the next time it happens so that they may be made aware of it in that instant.

2. The athlete must be made aware of the impact of their behavior on others.

3. The coach needs to let the athlete know of their importance to the team and how they may be a positive influence on others who are less talented. The athlete must also be alerted that their behavior needs to change in order for them to be a leader.

4. The coach needs to then pay attention to the athlete after the meeting so that they may strongly reward any attempts to change.

5. There must also be follow-up meetings to the initial meeting to keep the athlete in check. As time passes, and the athlete makes changes, the meetings may be less frequent. The complete change in behavior then becomes the ultimate in rewards for the athlete (Tutko, 1987) (p. 3).

The “psyched-out” athlete. It is suggested that the “psyched-out” athlete may also be looked at as the hyper-anxious athlete (Ogilvie & Tutko, 1966; Tutko, 1989a). Tutko (1989a) believes that being “psyched-up” suggests that athletes are at their peak and will be able to perform at their highest level. It is also suggested that an athlete who is too psyched-up will become “psyched-out”. As Tutko points out, being psyched-out means that the mental aspect of an athlete’s game is more responsible for failure than the physical part. There are countless ways an athlete may be psyched-out: playing a rival, having a significant lead on an opponent or remembering past experiences with the current opponent. These instances are basically divided into four categories: people, places,

objects or circumstances. In the instance of people being a factor, some athletes may feel that there are some opponents whom they cannot beat. In the places category, some athletes may feel that there are certain fields or facilities at which they will be unable to play well. In sports in which each athlete has their own equipment (i.e. golf or baseball) there is an opportunity for the athlete to have a problem with certain pieces of equipment (i.e. a golfer who is unable to use their six iron, or a batter who only has one type of bat they can use). Circumstances may also be a part of an athlete's ability to see the whole situation clearly. As Tutko relates, all of these aspects of the athlete's psyching come from past experience. A successful athlete must be able to let go of the past, both in relating to experience and circumstances in order to overcome the phenomenon of being psyched-out.

In order for an athlete to be able to get mentally ready for a game, he or she must be able to have good stress management techniques (Ogilvie & Tutko, 1966). In most cases, this athlete will not have a problem with being motivated or dedicated. The problem with this athlete is that they expend so much energy on psyching up for the games that by the time the game has arrived, the athlete is burned out or completely exhausted. Tutko (1989a) focuses on two main reasons why an athlete may become psyched-out prior to contests. The first reason may be due to the inability to forget the past, and the second is that the athlete is constantly practicing failure mentally. The athlete will then respond to stressful situations during competition expecting failure. It is important that the athlete have a mental game plan when this phenomenon occurs (Tutko). The situations athletes play out in their own heads will set the tone for the competition ahead. It is important,

then, for the athlete to have a positive mental game plan to practice prior to competition so that his or her own positive reinforcement can create a stronger belief system (Tutko). Tutko believes the following steps will be helpful in allowing athletes to create a more positive mental game plan:

1. The athlete must be aware of their anxiety. Rather than trying to deny themselves the anxiety, they must be allowed to feel anxious and be allowed to express their fears so that a strategy can be established.
2. Development of an alternate plan to replace fear with strength. Discover what is it that the athlete is feeling and formulate specific thoughts to replace the fear behavior.
3. Have the athlete mentally rehearse the specific successful scenarios that they have thought up. These must be rehearsed with emotion and action mentally. This must be as close to reality as possible, so the athlete must envision the success.
4. The athlete then needs to learn to stop negative thoughts as soon as they occur. This process of “thought stopping” is crucial in creating a positive game plan. Once a negative thought enters the athlete’s mind, it must be stopped and then replaced with a positive alternative. This replacement will be difficult at first and become easier the more the athlete practices. Eventually this plan will happen automatically.
5. Once this game plan is complete, the athlete must be able to practice it in competitive arenas. This practice can be accomplished by going to the field and watching games in which they are not involved. There, the athlete should envision

themselves competing, imagining the worry and replacing it with their own game plan thoughts (Tutko, 1989a) (p. 2).

Tutko (1989a) states that it is extremely important that athletes do not allow negative thoughts to dominate their thinking in game preparation. Just as physical practice is important to game preparation, mental practice is as well.

The athlete who fears failure. There are many problems that athletes face when trying to reach their own potential (Tutko, 1993a). Fear of failure seems to be high on the list of confusing patterns that athletes face (Smith, 1989; Tutko, 1993a). Fear of failure, along with fear of disapproval, are the most common sources of maladaptive stress that exist in sport (Smith, 1989). According to Martens et al. (1990), Endler found that fear of failure was more frequently felt among athletes than fear of physical harm in competition. Tutko (1993a) believes that the agony of defeat can become an obsession in which the athletes obsess about failing so much that they are unable to compete to their potential. Tutko also states that the 'joy of victory' can be very brief, while a terrible defeat can last forever. The athlete who participates with this fear is one who does not enjoy competing. This athlete constantly fears psychological pain, embarrassment, humiliation, rejection and the feeling of looking incompetent around others (Tutko). The athlete who feels this much anguish will often quit to stop the pain, even if they are the most talented of the field. This athlete may also be described as the one who has lost confidence (Tutko). Ogilvie and Tutko (1966) describe this athlete as someone who may also be afraid of success. A type of person exhibiting this syndrome is the athlete who is so affected by an outstanding performance that he (or she) is unable to perform. For example, a high-

jumper who discovers that his opponent has just set a record or a near record may be so affected that he (or she) fouls out. He (or she) uses his (or her) opponent's performance as a yardstick for himself (or herself) and frequently sets a goal for themselves so high that it would be impossible as a goal for anyone. This suggests that the athletes are so concerned with not meeting expectations of themselves or of their team that they fail in trying. Tutko (1993a) agrees that this athlete is so interested in his or her own self worth, that winning or losing is not the issue anymore. Tutko suggests that there are three dimensions involved with the fear of failure. The most simple of these dimensions is the external fear of failure. This more specifically may mean that the athlete is afraid of what others (coaches, peers, family) will think if he or she is unable to perform successfully. The young athlete may fear the lecture from the parents at home regarding his or her work rate or competitiveness. The athlete may also have been lectured by his or her peers regarding his or her performance, which in some instances, may be worse than losing itself. Confidence must play a dominant role in how the athlete handles the failure. Athletes who are confident in themselves realize that success will come in a matter of time and that failure is just a stepping stone. In this case, the best solution is to leave the athlete alone and he or she will deal with the loss in time. Success in this case is inevitable (Tutko, 1993a).

The second type is the internal fear of failure. Internal fear of failure is a far more serious condition and is more devastating to the athlete. With this athlete, there is a great deal of self-doubt, as well as feeling that he or she is incapable of contributing to the success of the team. This athlete feels like a loser before even beginning to participate.

Confidence is a missing factor for this athlete. This athlete will use every challenge, competition or contest as a way to measure up to others and find that he or she is not equal. Any success for this athlete is considered “lucky” or short-lived. Any failure to this athlete may be seen as reality. Tutko points out that this phenomenon is one that is manifested in the young athlete. During youth sport, this athlete competes and is talented in his or her sport. As time progresses, and the athlete is joined by other talented athletes, success does not come as easily. Winning now is not a sure thing. These athletes find that although they are trying harder and performing better, they may not be assured of a win. Success at this point is seen as their identity and if they fail, they may not have the identity they once had. The fear of not having that identity puts a strain on the athlete’s ability to have fun and relax while competing. This is where the athlete may realize that winning is expected and losing is frowned upon. Unfortunately, as a consequence, the athlete becomes more concerned about losing than experiencing the joy of victory.

The third fear is the total fear of failure. When an athlete becomes so frightened of failure they experience the fear both internally and externally (Tutko, 1993a). There is no joy in athletics for this individual anymore and they are afraid that others will see them as a loser, as they see themselves. This individual may get to a point where any way to find relief is acceptable. It is this point that the athlete may become “injured”. Any slight pain or injury will be magnified. Some athletes may resort to faking an injury, since no one could truly blame the injured athlete. At this point, the injury and recovery may seem endless. These “injuries” may surface when the tough competitions are near due to the

possibility that losing may be high. Although this is a way of getting out of competing, not competing at all is the ultimate escape.

Tutko (1993a) suggests that there are some common symptoms of fear of failure that a coach or athlete may be aware of:

1. Open and direct statements that losing is just too difficult for them and that winning does not mean anything anymore.
2. Discussing losing more intensely with others.
3. Minimizing the fun of playing and the excitement of winning and exaggerating the potential for failure.
4. Wanting to avoid talented competitive athletes and evenly matched opponents.
5. How they respond to an injury:
 - a) not wanting to play in pain.
 - b) faking the injury
 - c) exaggerating the injury or the pain
 - d) not wanting to practice when the injury has healed, and using it as a lingering excuse (Tutko, 1993a) (p. 3).

Tutko (1993a) also believes that there are strategies in dealing with athletes who fear failure. Tutko suggests 12 steps that may be helpful for a coach to deal with an athlete who is ready to quit due to their fear of failing and being seen as a failure.

1. De-emphasize winning and losing. Circumstances of the game and process of play must be discussed as important.

2. Diversion by humor can be a great distraction when an athlete is consumed by the aspect of losing. Changing the topic of conversation is the best solution.
3. Put emphasis on progress and good play, improvement and fun.
4. Use examples of others overcoming fears and show how they have succeeded.
5. Share moments of personal failure to show the athlete that they are not alone in failing at times.
6. Let the athlete know that they are not a loss, the game was. Try to separate the person from the game and ask the athlete to do the same. Let them know that their identity is not the loss, they are their own person.
7. Give the athlete their own new identity. This should be done by pointing out their strengths in the game. Let them know that sports are for fun, but they are not their sole identity.
8. Introduce the athlete to other interests and individuals outside of the sporting realm.
9. Instead of emphasizing the loss, point out the parts of the game in which the athlete did well.
10. Let the athlete know that you, as the coach, are concerned and that you want to help them.
11. Let them know that no one wants to fail and that trying their hardest may be the best that they could have done at that moment.
12. If you, as the coach, are close with the athlete, try to assess if you are contributing to his or her pain. If you are living through their accomplishments,

you need to let them know. Showing them that you are vulnerable may also be a source of more trust the athlete gains in you (Tutko, 1993 a) (p. 2-3).

Tutko (1993a) believes that there is no real way of finding out how many athletes suffer from this problem. It is self started and self destructive all at the same time. The main goal of working with athletes who experience this problem is to regain their joy in participation.

The underachiever. Tutko (1993b) believes that there is no greater challenge for a teacher or a coach than the underachiever. Tutko defines the underachiever as an athlete not playing up to their abilities. Unfortunately, this perceived ability may be placed on the athlete by the coach and is often subjective. The athlete may be perceived as being talented due to their speed or endurance and may not be given a fair chance in showing what they are able to do (Tutko). Performance may be erratic or poor with some good times mixed in. Usually the majority of the performances will be bad. Tutko also uses more detailed descriptions to further define underachievement: lack of effort by athlete, resistance to trying harder, unwillingness to listen to the coach, continually making mistakes, and finally not learning from repeated mistakes. The one thing that is apparent with all underachievers is they are all talented. This seems ironic since the underachiever would not be labeled as such if they were not an above average athlete. Tutko believes that underneath the umbrella of the underachiever are several types of athletes. These types include: the unmotivated, the misdirected in motivation, and the athlete who lacks confidence.

The unmotivated (or disinterested) athlete is the typical model of the underachiever. This athlete may dislike sports, but may play because it is the only thing at which he or she is talented. This also may mean that this athlete will perform well in games and not so well in practice due to his or her belief that the practice has no value. (Tutko, 1993b). To this athlete, winning and losing are of the same consequence, it does not matter. This may also mean that the athlete is playing purely for someone else's desires, not his or her own. Playing sports to this athlete is just doing time (Tutko). Practices for the athlete need to be fun and more on a personal level. Excitement for him or her needs to be shown by added positive reinforcement and periodic joking, or personal exchanges. Overall, this athlete needs to know that he or she is important to the team and to the coach. This athlete may also be more productive if given a role on the team such as a designated leader, where he or she may lead by example.

The misinformed athlete usually has a background of low self esteem (Tutko, 1993b). Athletes like this may have had a childhood in which they were constantly told that they were not worth much. In this case, the athlete will not have any high expectations of himself or herself. This athlete would appear to the outsider as lazy, or uninterested, when in actuality may be thinking that he or she is not any good, so why try. Athletes like this, at times, will play beyond their expected abilities, yet will continually play poorly because that is where they are most comfortable. The most effective way of handling this athlete is to be as factual as possible with him or her. The use of charts and graphs to show his or her strengths is a good start. Reasonable goals need to be set with them so that they may realize their talents in a short time. Reprimanding for unattained goals is not necessary,

while gradual additions to the goals help the athlete see that they are making improvements. Use of the factual information during times of regression is helpful.

The athletes who lack confidence typically are very motivated, yet unsure if they will be able to perform. This unsure athlete typically is seen as lazy due to inability to try for fear of failing. This athlete must be dealt with in a similar manner to those who are afraid of failing: the coach must not respond to negative self talk by the athlete, and the athlete must be taught to compliment themselves specifically after each successful performance. Above all, this type of athlete needs the strong support of their peers, families, and coaches.

Tutko (1993b) believes that although there are many types of athletes who fit into the category of underachiever, several strategies need to be kept in mind when a coach is faced with an underachiever.

1. The coach must feel that the strategies given will fit into the athlete's personality make-up.
2. Several different handling procedures may be helpful in dealing with an underachieving athlete. Not all underachievers fit the model given.
3. These athletes may have these same problems in other aspects of their lives and so the coach needs to remember that if the athlete has a positive sport experience, then the strategies given to them may help them later (Tutko, 1993b) (p. 4).

Eating disordered athletes. This section will contain descriptions of eating disorders, who is most likely to develop an eating disorder, and how this is related to athletics. This

section will be concluded with some possible strategies of how to deal with athletes who may be experiencing an eating disorder.

Eating disorders, for many, were unheard of disorders, prior to 1981 (Byrne, 1987). Unfortunately, many eating disorders in the early 1980s were misdiagnosed and the individuals went without relief (Byrne, 1987). At that time, the literature that did exist primarily focused on the role of the mother and the development of food obsessions (Byrne, 1987). Very little literature existed that focused on the individual and their problems. It was extremely rare for one to find literature that was in layperson's terms that did not focus solely on the parents as the cause of the child's eating disorder (Byrne, 1987). If the parents were not given the blame, they were left out of the equation all together. There was minimal literature that focused on the everyday struggle that the individual went through when dealing with food (Byrne, 1987). Today, more literature exists in which the individual is the focus of attention, while the family and peer groups are still taken into account (Byrne, 1987).

Anorexia is described as the active and constant pursuit of being thin (Clark, 1993). According to Bickford (1989) and Clark (1993), the American Psychiatric Association defines anorexia as:

1. Intense fear of becoming obese, which does not diminish as weight loss progresses.
2. Unrealistic body image. Visualizing themselves as being "fat" when they are emaciated.

3. Weight loss of at least 25% of original body weight or, if under 18 years of age, weight loss of 25% of original body weight plus projected weight gain expected from growth charts.
4. Refusal to maintain body weight above a minimum of normal body weight for age and height.
5. No known illness that would account for excessive weight loss.

Anorexia typically refers to the individual who believes that they are unattractive, unworthy and overweight (Bryne, 1987; Clark, 1993; Thompson & Sherman, 1993). This person typically believes that if they were thinner, that they would be happier (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). In some cases, the individual may, in fact be overweight at the start of dieting, yet as they begin to lose weight, some is never enough. As they begin to lose, and they are complimented by their peers, they become gratified and begin to believe that they will be really rewarded if they lose more (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). The sense of actually being in control of something in their lives makes it more motivating for them to lose more (Bryne, 1987; Thompson & Sherman, 1993). Lack of weight loss once an individual begins this process, would be considered failing in the eyes of an anorexic person (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). Bryne (1987) points out that although the term anorexia is used, it is far from the truth. Anorexia, according to Bryne, means “absence of appetite”, which is not what most sufferers feel. Bryne also points out that most individuals who suffer from anorexia are hungry. Bryne uses this term to describe the individuals as hungry for attention, love, and a feeling of belonging, besides just food. Bryne (1987) writes that since the Greek prefix “an” means to be without, the term self-

starver would be a better description of an individual who has this type of eating disorder. Eating-disordered athletes typically are the ones who are considered the hardest workers, and at times described as over-achievers (Bickford, 1989). These individuals may also suffer from the cold, even on warm days, and may wear baggy, warm clothes to hide their imagined fat and to keep physically warm (Bickford, 1990).

According to Burckes-Miller and Black (1988), there were no diagnostic criteria for bulimia or anorexia until 1980. Bulimarexia, or bulimia, refers to an individual who binge eats and then purges what they have eaten soon afterward (Bryne, 1987; Burckes-Miller & Black, 1988). Bulimia, according to Clark (1993), is the fear of food. Many of the individuals who experience an eating disorder may not experience bulimia in the true sense of the definition, but may experience disordered eating. Many individuals may not experience all of the classic symptoms of an eating disorder, yet they engage in disordered eating at times of their lives. According to Clark (1993), the American Psychiatric Association defines bulimia as the following:

1. Recurrent episodes of binge eating (rapid consumption of a large amount of food in a discrete time period, usually less than 2 hours).
2. At least three of the following behaviors are displayed:
 - a) consumption of highly caloric, easily ingested food during a binge
 - b) inconspicuous eating during a binge
 - c) termination of such eating episodes by abdominal pain, sleep, social interruption, or self-induced vomiting

d) awareness that the eating pattern is abnormal and fear of not being able to stop eating voluntarily

e) depressed mood and self-deprecating thoughts after eating binges

(Clark, 1993) (p. 143).

Common symptoms include: blood-shot eyes, swollen glands, bruised fingers (from induced vomiting), and the excessive use of laxatives or diuretics (Clark, 1993). Bulimic behaviors are, for the most part, more subtle than the anorexic behaviors (Clark, 1993). For the most part, bulimic people are of average weight, but possess abnormal eating habits (Clark, 1993). The bulimic individual may not necessarily die from their disordered eating, but may die from other related health problems such as gastric rupture, suicide, heart attack, liver damage, and immune system dysfunction (Burckes-Miller & Black, 1988).

The individuals who experience eating disorders. According to Clark (1993) most victims of eating disorders grew up in dysfunctional families, more specifically ones with alcoholic parents. Persons who experience disordered eating typically have the need for perfection and control in their lives and find that controlling their weight is the easiest solution. Clark also points out that adult children of alcoholics feel that since they were unable to control their parents' drinking, they tend to believe that they may gain control of their lives if they are in control of their eating. This behavior may lead to obsessive and compulsive attitudes regarding food or body fat. These tendencies could come in the form of exercise compulsion (taking no days off for rest) or food compulsion (not eating

enough or too much). These individuals may be described as driven athletes, when in actuality, they may just be compulsive exercisers (Clark, 1993).

Thorton (1990) believes that the incidence of eating-disordered, college-aged athletes, may be as high as 25%. It has been found that of the total number of individuals with eating disorders, at least 90% of those are female (Thompson & Sherman, 1993; Thorton, 1990). It was estimated that in 1988, approximately two million American women ranging in age from 19-39 suffering from disordered eating while one million teenage females were also experiencing some disordered eating (Burckes-Miller & Black, 1988). It is suggested that although there are males who suffer from eating disorders, they may not feel the pressures of society and the media to be thin (Borgen & Corbin, 1987; Overdorf, 1991; Thompson & Sherman, 1993). Research also suggests that males with eating disorders may be more apt to exercise excessively rather than diet excessively which may be less hard to detect (Thompson & Sherman, 1993).

Bryne (1987) wrote a manual for parents who were dealing with children with eating disorders. The manual was to aid the parents in some strategies to deal with the child with a disorder and how to not blame themselves for their child's affliction. Bryne describes a girl who is a self-starver, who has gone too far. Eventually the starver becomes aware that something is wrong, that this ideal solution to her problems is not so ideal. In her eyes, she has become beautiful and special and ought to be popular and happy. But she does not have enough energy to enjoy it. In weather that is barely cool she is too cold to go outside for any length of time. Her hair does not shine so much anymore, her lips and fingers may be blue. And what she begins to see in the faces of those she cares about is

not admiration and wonder but pity, pain and fear. She is bedeviled by guilt: guilt for what she is doing to her family, guilt each time she “slips” from her rigid diet, each time she is ‘imperfect’. At this point, ideally, she would say, “This is not working as well as I thought.” For many reasons, however, she can not do that. One of the most important is that the illness becomes the starvers identity, her whole life focus. She cannot give it up without something to replace it, or her life will be totally empty and without a center. She herself will be nothing. This is understandably terrifying, and parents must fully accept and grasp this basic fact if they are to guide their child to health.

Athletics and eating disorders. Thompson and Sherman (1993) believe that an athlete with an eating disorder is one who belongs in a special category. It is suggested that the non-athlete with an eating disorder does not have the pressures of a performance-based activity to add to his or her stress. Many of these athletes easily hide their afflictions due to the emphasis on leanness in sport (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). Athletes go to extraordinary lengths to ensure their lean physiques and reduce their fat stores to improve performance (Rosen, McKeag, Hough, & Curley, 1986). This type of individual may also be one who is a perfectionist, one who works through pain, and is willing to train extra times, which are all characteristics of an elite or highly coachable athlete as well (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). It has been found that athletes who participate in sports in which a lean body type is encouraged are more susceptible to eating disorders (Borgen & Corbin, 1987; Burckes-Miller & Black, 1988; Garfinkel & Garner, 1982; Humphries & Gruber, 1986). Thompson and Sherman (1993) found that athletes may be more susceptible to eating disorders due to these factors:

1. Aspects of sport or specific sports attract individuals who may already be eating disordered, or may attract people who are at risk for an eating disorder.
 2. Athletes may become eating disordered because of sport participation (they see that they must have a specific body type or be a certain weight for example).
- (p. 25).

When an athlete exercises intensely, their appetite is suppressed, which may show the athlete that food is not that important. It is noticed by the athletes that they lose weight when they are not eating, which motivates the athletes to exercise more (Epling & Pierce, 1988). Unfortunately, the disorder of not eating properly while competing will initially help with weight loss and may enhance performance at first, yet the athlete will soon feel the effects of improper nutrition and his or her performance will suffer (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). It is important for the coach to realize that when an athlete continues to have pathogenic habits regarding weight-loss and nutrition, that injuries and possibly cardiac arrhythmia from electrolyte imbalance can result (Squire, 1993).

It is believed that sport may either enhance an already existing eating disorder, or it may bring on a problem where one did not exist before. Epling and Pierce (1988) suggest that the exercising and dieting that many athletes participate in can initiate anorexic behavior. Chopak and Taylor-Nicholson (1991) also studied whether or not exercise induces anorexic behaviors. The results indicated that of 100 female college athletes surveyed, 30% of those who responded believed that they had an eating disorder of some kind during their athletic years. It was also found that 66% of those who believed that they had an eating disorder thought that during their competitive seasons, the problem

became more of an issue. It is believed that 75% of anorexia cases are sport or exercise induced (Epling & Pierce, 1988).

Athletes may also be motivated to lose weight on a continual basis by coaches or trainers (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). Some coaches find it necessary to make the issue of weight public knowledge. Some of the dangerous weight management practices include:

1. group weigh-ins
2. arbitrary weight or body composition goals
3. punishment for not making specified weight
4. careless or unfeeling remarks about weight issues
5. always associating weight loss with performance enhancement
6. minimizing the detrimental and unhealthy effects of rapid weight loss (Swoap & Murphy, 1995) (p. 324).

Researchers have found that many athletes diet at the suggestion of their coaches (Rosen & Hough, 1988). As many as 75% of the athletes surveyed in Rosen and Hough's study indicated that they had used extreme measures in the attempts to lose weight to please their coaches. Researchers have also found that environmental influences play huge roles in the influence of female athletes and their eating habits (Combs, 1982; Costar, 1983; Overdorf, 1987). Many athletes believe that their weight loss will help them have more successful performances (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). Due to the fact that athletes believe that they must lose weight to perform optimally, athletes will use pathogenic weight loss practices to ensure the loss (i.e. induced vomiting, the use of laxatives,

diuretics and restriction of fluid intake) (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). Rosen et al., (1986) found that of 182 college age female athletes, 32% practiced at least one of the pathogenic weight-loss methods listed (self-induced vomiting, used laxatives, binged more than twice weekly, or used diet pills). It was also discovered that although the prevalence of abuse of weight-control aids was in long distance running and gymnastics, a large number of athletes who responded did not compete in sports where weight and leanness were important (i.e. softball and field hockey). Overdorf (1991) did a similar study to determine the eating patterns of female athletes. Of the 102 athletes surveyed, 41% indicated using at least one of the following pathogenic weight-loss regimes during their athletic years (self-induced vomiting, exercise abuse, bingeing, laxatives, diuretic or diet pill use). It is also interesting to note that the female athletes surveyed in this study answered that they competed in sport for fun. In summary, most females in the study had distorted body images due to the pressures they felt from the community, coaches, peers, family and society to be thin (Overdorf, 1991).

Unfortunately, eating disorders may be found in all sports participated in by females (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). Dick (1991) found that within 810 reports of eating disorders in the NCAA, 15 sports were represented. All 15 sports that were represented were ones in which the athletes were judged on appearance or were sports in which a lean appearance was most desirable (i.e. synchronized swimming, gymnastics, long-distance running).

Possible strategies for dealing with eating disorders. As mentioned before, athletes are special in that they may be able to “hide” their disorder due to the stringent nature of

nutrition and athletics (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). Athletes with eating disorders may be reaching out for help in other areas of their lives and need to be approached gently (Clark, 1993). Individuals who have eating disorders try very hard to appear normal, to please others and not to be found out (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). Most individuals with eating disorders will deny having a problem so that they may avoid embarrassment or being disliked by others (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). Unfortunately, the approach to an individual with a disorder is hardly easy. Usually, the acceptance of therapy and the fact that they have a problem is not readily received (Bryne, 1987). Therapy may scare the individual with the problem because they will have to reveal their inner self to the therapist (Bryne, 1987). The anorexic person must be able to face the reality of possibly being cured which would also mean that, according to that person, would not have an identity anymore. Their eating disorder has become them in every way (Bryne, 1987). The individual must know that he or she has the undivided support from their friends, family and coaches to go forward with therapy (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). If this type of support is strong and loving, the individual may be more apt to receive counseling rather than resist it (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). It is suggested that although some athletes may need some guidance with weight loss, they should never be questioned in front of their teammates, disciplined immediately when they are thought to experience disordered eating, be told that they are being watched, or told that they must shape up or severe consequences will result (Rosen et al., 1986).

In athletics, the athlete with the eating disorder must be approached with great care as well. The person who approaches the athlete must be the one who has the best rapport

with the athlete so as not to scare him or her further (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). The athlete should be approached as soon as the individual that is closest to him or her realizes that there is a problem (Thompson & Sherman, 1993). Thompson and Sherman (1993) believe that different disorders will be different in identification. Anorexia is extreme weight loss which would be easy to detect, while bulimia may be more difficult to detect since the athlete may have a seemingly normal body type. The danger then is to correctly identify an eating disorder, and not assume that one exists when it does not. Unless a bulimic is caught bingeing and purging, identification of their problem is difficult. An anorexic, on the other hand, may have a difficult time explaining the loss of weight when challenged to weigh in (Thompson & Sherman, 1993).

There are some specific signs that a coach or manager may look for in an athlete who is expected to be struggling with an eating disorder (Rosen, et al., 1986). These behaviors or symptoms may include:

1. Repeatedly expressed concerns by an athlete about feeling fat when the individual is of below average weight.
2. Expressions of fear of being or becoming obese even when weight loss is continuing.
3. Refusal to maintain even a minimal normal weight consistent with their sport age and height.
4. Consumption of large amounts of food that are not consistent with the individual's weight.

5. Secret eating or stealing food (this may be indicated by excess candy wrappers in the athlete's locker or food missing from areas where it was once there).
6. A pattern of eating large amounts of food followed by frequent trips to the bathroom soon after. These trips to the bathroom may then be followed by more food consumption upon return to the table.
7. Bloodshot eyes, particularly after trips to the bathroom.
8. Vomit, or the odor of vomit in sinks, wastebaskets and shower of the individual.
9. Complaints of light-headedness or dizziness not explained by any other medical condition.
10. Irritability and periods of lethargy over short amounts of time (this may be evidence of the use of diet pills).
11. Excess use of laxatives (evidence may be the appearance of laxative packaging in the wastebasket, athlete's locker, and locker areas).
12. Avoiding situations in which the athlete may be observed eating (this may be evident by the athlete not wanting to eat with the team on roadtrips or making excuses why they are unable to attend the team meals).
13. Certain changes in the athlete's appearance: thinning hair, sores in the corners of the athlete's mouth, skin rashes, and tooth decay).
14. Known or reported eating disorders in the athlete's past or if the athlete is from a dysfunctional family with a known history of disordered eating (Rosen et al., 1986) (p. 81).

Thompson and Sherman (1993) suggest some strategies in dealing with athletes who are suspected to have eating disorders. Although, it is stated that professional help is needed, a coach or team manager can take a few steps in getting the athlete to help himself or herself:

1. The athlete may resist the request for an evaluation at first. This may be difficult to force on the athlete, yet the health risks need to be made known.
2. Schedule an examination of the athlete with a doctor to assess the dangers and damage done to his or her body. If this is refused, then prohibit training and competition until they have the examination. If the exam is taken, and results are such that the athlete is compromising his or her health with the actions, prohibit training until they are able to see an eating disorder specialist. The prohibition of training is a last resort since the athlete may already have a negative view on life and sport participation may be the only positive in their life. This strategy is only to try to force the athlete to go to therapy and get help, not to discourage.
3. A few weeks should pass and then the athlete needs to be approached again. The person approaching the athlete must show complete compassion and understanding for what the athlete is going through. It is here where the athlete must be shown that he or she has complete support. It must also be made known that this meeting is not a confrontation but one of concern and support.
4. Refusal of a problem may still continue after the first few meetings. The approaching person must then make the meetings more confrontational, but not angry. If the athlete has been heard purging, tell her. If she have lost an

extreme amount of weight ask how much. Ask if she has lost her menstrual cycle, is she having difficulty sleeping, is she irritable, depressed, tired, or losing hair. If the athlete admits to any of these, suggest that they all may be related to their eating disorder. This is a way to create some doubt in the athlete's mind. If the athlete still insists that she is not at risk, then the individual closest to her must insist that she be treated. This strategy is used as a last resort since the confrontation may be more detrimental to the athlete's mental well being.

5. If the athlete still refuses treatment, the athlete must be prohibited from participating. Suspension is the next step, yet the very last resort due to the fact that the athlete may train on her own and could be even more dangerous to herself. If suspension is the case, then the athlete must be kept in contact with to monitor her behavior. A medical evaluation, if not done already, needs to be stressed. The family must be notified and involved in the treatment regardless of the athlete's age, but definitely if the athlete is a minor. (pp. 99-109).

It is noted by Thompson and Sherman (1993) that although an athlete may admit to having an eating disorder, and be in treatment, continuation of training should be kept to a minimum due to the health risks involved. It is extremely hard to assess an eating disorder, and it is also suggested that coaches and individuals affiliated with the athlete be sure that they are able to refer the athlete to a specialist (Thompson & Sherman, 1993).

Rosen et al. (1986) also suggest some strategies for aiding an athlete who may be suspected of having an eating disorder. Although this athlete may have been suffering from the disorder for a long time, as a coach, one must make sure that the eventual

meeting with the athlete is non-threatening and is supportive. It is also important that the meeting be as non-punitive as possible, and make sure that the athlete understands that the coach is trying to help and not punish them for doing what they believed was right. It is also important that the athlete is reassured of their significance to the team. Disallowing an athlete to participate should only be a last resort, and the athlete needs to be told that their disorder is enhancing the probability that they may become injured or sick. It is also suggested that if the athlete denies that they are having a problem with food, that the athlete be told that many individuals with disorders need outside help and that it should be nothing to be ashamed of. The most important thing to remember as a coach who is dealing with eating-disordered athletes is that at one time or another, most of them have been told that they are overweight. Coaches must be careful not to expect athletes to participate in a weight loss program during the season, and that safe and effective weight loss strategies may be obtained after the season has ended.

Communication and team cohesion

Positive communication is a priority in successful coaching. The coach must not only communicate successfully with the players, but also with officials, parents and administrators. This communication is important in order for positive cohesion of the team to be achieved. Carron (1982) conducted research that revealed the coach-athlete relationship must be a compatible partnership. This partnership must contain good communication skill by both the athlete and the coach and rewarding behavior (Carron, 1982).

The coach's personality and ability to communicate is key in making a team successful (Rotella, 1985). It has been debated as to what type of personality is most successful in coaching, and there is no clear cut answer (Fisher, Mancini, Hirsch, Proulx, & Staurowsky, 1982; Martens, Christina, Harvey, & Sharkey, 1981; Rotella, 1985; Tutko & Richards, 1971). Hendry (1974) found that the underlying personality dimensions of coaches often can determine cohesiveness of the athletes involved. How the coach communicates with the team could create a very cohesive team, or destroy their unity (Moos, 1976). Positive coach-athlete communication is then likely to lead to mutual satisfaction with coaches and athletes which then leads to positive team cohesion (Fisher et al., 1982). Yet the communication between the coach and others must not end there, parents of youth athletes are also very important in making the team successful. Although the coach has the last word in what happens with the team, without positive parental support, this job can be extremely difficult (Martens et al., 1981). The coach must not only be knowledgeable in the game itself, but must also be a mediator (Rotella, 1985). It must then be understood that positive, good communication skills must be used not only with the athletes, but with the parents (Martens et al., 1981).

Unfortunately, there are many coaches who believe that authoritarian rule is the most successful style of coaching (Tutko & Richards, 1971). Successful coaching is generally seen as winning on a consistent basis and also being able to relate well to the athletes involved. Unfortunately, for the most part, success is measured by a winning record (Tutko & Bruns, 1976). Ogilvie and Tutko (1966) discovered that coaches who tend to score high on need achievement, abasement, and endurance, typically are interested mostly

in getting ahead and succeeding, not team cohesion and character development. It is this type of authoritarian leader who is in coaching for his or her own ego (Anderson, 1959; Tutko & Richards, 1971). According to Rotella (1985), Anderson “describes an authoritarian leader as one who uses authority to control others, issues orders to others in the group, tries to have things done according to the accepted rules (and) acts in an impersonal manner” (p. 111). Yet in order for the coach to be successful, he or she must be able to reach the athletes on a personal level (Martens et al., 1981). A democratic style may also be used in coaching (Rotella, 1985). Rotella quotes Anderson in saying,

“...Democratic leaders generally act in a friendly, personal manner; allow the group as a whole to plan the agenda; allow group members to talk with one another without permission...accept suggestions about how the work shall be done; and talk only a little more than the average group member” (p. 112).

There have been many democratic coaches who have been successful, yet the chance for chaos is great (Rotella, 1985). George Sage (1973), a known expert in the field of successful coaching, suggests that coaches must be able to use both the authoritarian and democratic styles in order to become successful. Straub (1980) suggests that there are more than two types of leadership for coaches, but rather three: the hard driver, the thoughtful persuader, and the friendly helper. The hard driver strives on organization and discipline, while having faith that the strength is in the numbers if handled correctly (Straub). The thoughtful persuader does not have much faith in the athletes themselves and believes he or she must manipulate them into acceptance of the coach (Straub). The friendly helper fears being too authoritarian and chooses not to take a stand at all in most

situations. This type of coach will not be a ruler, therefore the team will flounder without direction from the leader (Straub). Rotella (1985) suggests that there is no real way to determine which style is the most successful for every situation, and it may take years of research to find the answer. Rotella also suggests that since there is no true style that should be used that the most important skills that the coach must possess in order to maintain success are flexibility and communication. Mancini and Agnew (1980) found that communication in coaching was more of a factor to success than teaching.

Along with communication comes encouragement and verbal reward (Rotella, 1985). According to Rotella, encouragement and individual communication is the most difficult problem every coach faces. This is important because each individual needs to feel as important as the others and that the athletes must feel equal (Rotella). The encouragement process is important partially due to the fact that the athletes will experience the confidence the coach has in them and in turn decrease self defeating thoughts they experience (Bandura, 1979).

“...Encouraging people are not afraid of their positive emotions and can express them to other people. You as an encourager should be aware of how vital are your reactions to the discouraged person’s ideas after he ‘took a risk’ and told you. This is healthy and a real compliment to you. An enthusiastic, non-evaluative response to his feelings will give this person the courage to take a risk again. Your reaction to what he says may determine whether or not he pursues goals (growth) or gives them up (stagnation). A comment uttered in a monotone or a neutral or disinterested facial

expression can really turn off someone who is already in doubt about his or her abilities or worth” (Losoncy, 1977, p. 94).

This quotation demonstrates that a coach must be able to effectively encourage his or her athletes without giving the wrong message. Martens et al. (1981) give numerous examples of how a well-meaning coach may be taken in the wrong way by athletes who are unsure of themselves. These examples include: the contents of the encouragement may be used in the wrong setting, the body language used does not match the verbal message, the athlete may not have been paying attention at the time of the message, and the messages are not consistent with what the coach is trying to relay (Martens et al., 1981). It is clear that the miscommunication of the coach and the athlete is not always the coach’s fault (Martens et al., 1981). Communication skills are not only the ability to relay processed messages, but are also the ability to listen (Martens et al., 1981).

Unfortunately, many potential benefits of sports for adolescents can be crushed by the well-meaning, misunderstood coach (Tutko & Bruns, 1976). Although some parents may argue that children never really listen to adults, one misunderstood comment can be the downfall to a young athlete (Tutko & Bruns). Yet it is at the pre-adolescent and adolescent levels of athletics that the coach is the most important. The coach must, in effect, become similar to a third parent. But, unfortunately for the young athletes, many coaches do not realize the psyche of their athletes and coach only to their own egos (Tutko & Bruns). This becomes a problem when the coaches at the youth levels typically are acting on their own fantasies spawned by their viewing of the professional athletic scene (Tutko & Bruns).

Coach/parent communication. The parents of the athlete are crucial factors in an athlete's sport experience (Tutko, 1985). Along with the coach, the parents have the ability to make their child's sport experience a positive one or a negative one (Tutko). This experience at the adolescent age may be the deciding factor in whether or not the athlete continues competing or quits all together. Yet although parents may seem supportive and committed to helping their child have a positive experience, they may have ulterior motives in their actions (Tutko, 1986). Many parents have an unrealistic view of their child's skill level, which may very well conflict with the coach's view (Tutko). The parent involved may then be putting undue pressure on the child to perform better or to become more vocal about their playing time. The coach must make it known to the parents and the athlete that they are there for the maximization of the athlete's potential (Tutko). This type of communication must first start with the athlete, and the coach must take the time to let the athlete know that they are there for them (Tutko). The coach must then also let the athlete know that they understand that there may be some pressure at home about their participation in sport, and they are there for them if they would like to talk about it (Tutko). This meeting should be done individually with each athlete on the team and should be done in complete confidentiality (Tutko). The function of this meeting is to show the athlete that they have the undivided support of the coach or coaches (Tutko). Tutko suggests that there are a number of things that the coach may do after their meeting with the athlete that may ease the minds of overzealous parents.

1. The coach may send out a letter to each parent, introducing themselves, and stating their philosophy of coaching, and coaching plan for that season. This

should also be the time to invite the parents to respond. This would show that the coach or coaches have open minds to communication with them.

2. Calling the parents may also show that the coach or coaches are concerned teachers.

3. The coach or coaches may also set up a group meeting with the parents and the athletes to discuss the team's goals for the season, along with coaching philosophies shared by the coaching staff. It is here that the parents may also get to know each other so the environment is not so unknown. This may help the over zealous parent to focus on the team and not themselves (Tutko, 1986) (p. 2).

Tutko (1989b) also gives some strategies that parents may use in ensuring their child has a positive sport experience. These strategies may be given to the parents by the coach at the group meeting for individuals who are new to the sport scene.

1. Have a positive attitude. This may be conveyed to the child as "I care for you, and I care for you as an athlete so I want you to do well, and I am supporting you no matter what." This will enable the child to play freely without pressure from home.

2. After each contest, ask the child if they had fun, and if they enjoyed themselves. Listen for the most enjoyable times so that they may be asked about in the future.

3. Compliment the child after each contest on some part of the game that they participate in. Ignore mistakes.

4. In times of failure, point out positives in their behavior. Remind them of the enthusiasm and how much fun the game really is. Try not to get caught up in the pain of losing and emphasize the good points of the game.
5. Let the child know that you, as a parent, are part of their support system, and that you will be there for them in whatever they decide or do during the season.
6. Avoid critical and negative behavior. This will not only restrict the athletes, but will limit their creativity. This negativity may then be carried over into their play and cause problems for them and the team. Although most parents do not see themselves being negative, they will admit that they thought it was in the best interest of the child. It may also be confusing for the child if the parent is yelling out directions to the child that may be contradictory to what the coach has told the child. Cheering for a child in a positive way is the best solution. For example, “good hustle”, or “nice try”, or just, “go”. Parents must be able to self-assess their behaviors by keeping track of their interactions with their children, avoid comparisons with other athletes, and not discuss their child’s performance publicly. A parent may also use an outside source (i.e. another parent or friend) to observe them so they may make checks on their behavior.
7. Avoid pressure. Since the child athlete will become the center of attention for the family, and his or her performance will be under a microscope, undue pressure from the parents is unnecessary. The child athlete may create his or her own pressure without the pressure from the family. It is not necessary for the parents to talk of importance of the games, to draw attention to themselves at the games,

or put emphasis on wins and losses. The first priority here is that the child is aware that his or her parents are supportive in a positive way for the child. It needs to be made known that the parent is a positive role model and a positive guide for his or her future in sport (Tutko, 1989b) (p. 2).

Team cohesion

Carron (1982) defines team cohesion as a process in which a group stays together and remains united during the pursuit of goals and objectives. In sport, it is a well known fact that individuals who work together, as opposed to separately, accomplish more (Cox, 1994). For example, on any given team there may be numerous members who are able to score points, yet the coach may ask some of these individuals to assume different responsibilities for the good of the team (Cox). This aspect of team play creates “team players” and allows the team to accomplish more. It has been stated that there is no “I” in the word team, and that team is an acronym for “Together Everyone Accomplishes More” (Hacker, 1996). Widmeyer and Williams (1991) found that in surveying 85 female golfers who were members of the 18 Division I NCAA golf teams, that personal factors were the most important determinants of team cohesion. Other factors found to be important in team cohesion were, team factors, leadership factors, and environmental factors (Widmeyer & Williams, 1991). It has also been found that team stability fosters team cohesion (Essing, 1970). Since stability of a team is shown by the number of members of the team staying constant, Widmeyer, Brawley, and Carron (1990) suggest that the cohesiveness of the team will decrease as the number of team members increases. Cox (1994) also confirms that team cohesion is related to the size of the group. It is

suggested then, that coaches who want to maintain team cohesion must limit constant turnover of team members, and to keep the number of athletes on each team, according to the sport, relatively small.

Consequences of team cohesion. The majority of research done on team cohesiveness is done on the consequences, or effects, of team cohesion (Martens & Peterson, 1971; Ruder & Gill, 1982; Williams & Hacker, 1982). The concern in much of the research lies in understanding to what degree does team cohesion lead to performance of the team or individuals. Unfortunately, most success is measured by wins and losses and not usually by the measurement of the current performance to the previous performance (Cox, 1994). Some research has found that a positive relationship exists between team cohesion and performance (Martens & Peterson, 1971). Yet, there is also a difference between interactive sports (in which team members must interact with each other to compete) and co-active sports (individualized sport where the athlete does not interact with other team members) (Cox). Interactive sports, for example, are, football, soccer, softball, and volleyball. Co-active sports, for example, are, golf, archery, bowling, and swimming.

The cause of why team cohesion takes place must also be determined in order for the cohesion research to be complete (Cox, 1994). It has been noted that in much of the research, causality has not been determined (Cox, 1994). Causality, in this case, is the reason for success. Has team cohesion been the reason for the team's success, or has the success of the team been the reason for the team's cohesiveness? Mikalachki (1969) suggests that task cohesion relates to the group setting and obtaining goals collectively, while social cohesion relates to the group relating to each other.

Team cohesion development. It is said that the morale and cohesion of a team is dependent on the coach (Schum, 1996). Schum quotes the late Bill Hughes, of Roberts Wesleyan University (NY) as saying, “ The ‘nuts and bolts’ of any sports program begins with the coach. The effort that he or she puts into the program will be reflected in both the attitude and spirit of their players” (p. 423). This may be true, yet it is the players and how they relate to each other that is the deciding factor as to whether there is cohesion on the team or not. Building team morale and cohesiveness is an important, but not easy, task. According to Schum (1996), sport psychologist Mel Lorback of West Chester State University, believes that the proper development of team cohesion begins with each individual which then affects the group. This cooperation among the individual players then manifests itself into group motivation, mass emotional commitment, and spiritual cohesion (Schum). Lorback, according to Schum, believes that there are levels that each player must achieve before the optimal cohesiveness can take place. These levels are: identification, incorporation and emotional commitment. Identification means that the player must be able to identify with the team. Incorporation means that each player must add admired aspects of other team members to their own behavior. And, finally, emotional commitment relates to each individual player actually becoming what they had hoped to be for the season, and is able to add positive aspects to the group.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

The manual

The manual entitled So, you are the new soccer coach: A psychological approach to coaching, was written for new coaches. This manual was also written with a special emphasis on female athletes. The manual contained five chapters that addressed: Coaching females, goal setting and motivation, competition anxiety and coping strategies, problematic athletes, and communication and team cohesion. Each chapter addressed one of these topics and gave some strategies for achieving success. The coaching females chapter addressed the differences between coaching females in relation to coaching males. The goal setting chapter discussed the reasons for goal setting and strategies for coaches to help their athletes achieve their goals. The competition anxiety chapter gave coaches ways to identify competitive anxiety and coping techniques to teach their athletes. The section dealing with problematic athletes suggested strategies for identifying these types of athletes and strategies to deal with them. The communication chapter included communication between the athlete, coach and parents, plus how to build a cohesive team.

Evaluation of the manual

The manual was sent to five high school coaches, five college coaches and four sport psychologists. A questionnaire and a copy of the manual was sent to each evaluator.

Evaluators

The subjects were five high school coaches (three females and two males), five college coaches (two females and three males), and four sport psychologists (two females and two males). Each coach had a minimum of five years coaching experience. A copy of the manual was sent to each of the evaluators. Completed questionnaires were analyzed descriptively and the results summarized.

Procedures

The evaluators were recruited at various tournaments and conferences. Follow-up phone calls were made to each subject who agreed to be an evaluator, so that proper addresses could be obtained. Each evaluator was sent a cover letter (appendix B), a questionnaire (appendix C), a manual (appendix A), and a self addressed stamped envelope. After two weeks, an e-mail message (appendix D) was sent to all evaluators reminding them to send back the material if they had not already done so.

These evaluators, both male and female, assessed the manual, and returned the completed questionnaire with any additional comments.

Evaluation form

The questionnaire had a cover letter (appendix B) explaining the procedure and thanking the evaluators for their time. The questionnaire (appendix C) was developed specifically for this study. The questionnaire (appendix C) was formulated using a Likert scale, and contained eight questions with question number three having six parts. The responses were numbered 1 to 5: 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = undecided, 4 =

disagree, and 5 = strongly disagree. At the end of each question there was room for additional comments.

Data analysis

The answers were evaluated by themselves and then compared to all other answers given by the other evaluators. All comments were assessed and a total analysis of each question was conducted.

Summary

The manual So, you are the new soccer coach: A psychological approach to coaching, plus a questionnaire, cover letter and a self addressed stamped envelope were sent out to high school girls soccer coaches, college women's soccer coaches, and sport psychologists. The chapters in the manual included: Coaching females, goal setting and motivation, competition anxiety and coping strategies, problematic athletes, and communication and team cohesion. The manual was targeted at high school soccer coaches who coach girls or coaches who are coaching for the first time. The evaluators then completed the questionnaire and sent it back for analysis.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

The purpose of the manual was to offer a psychological approach to coaching for new high school soccer coaches. Although the manual addressed the high school soccer athlete, the manual could be used for all sports, at all levels. The manual also had a special emphasis on the female athlete.

Fourteen manuals were sent out with cover letters, self-addressed stamped envelopes, and evaluation forms to pre-selected evaluators. Of the 14 questionnaires sent back, one was dropped from the analysis because the questionnaire was not completed. One evaluation was not returned. A total of 12 evaluations were used for analysis. Only two of the four sport psychologist evaluations were usable.

The questionnaire

The questionnaire was comprised of eight questions with room for comments after each (appendix C).

The majority of the responses for all questions in the questionnaire were 'strongly agree' and 'agree'. Five evaluators answered 'undecided' on given questions, one evaluator answered 'disagree' on a question, with 'strongly disagree' used once for the question regarding problematic athletes. The following analysis is a detailed account for each question in the study.

Question one: Do you think that the manual clearly shows the importance of coaches using sport psychology techniques?

High school coaches: Three of the five high school coaches 'agreed' that the manual showed the importance of sport psychological techniques in coaching. The remaining

two coaches ‘strongly agreed’ that the manual was clear in the importance of sport psychology in coaching.

Representative comments: ...Each element is presented in a “do-able” way.

...It would encourage a coach to investigate further information on sport psychology.

...With the plentiful references this should lead to a well-informed coach.

...More examples from literature or personal experience of how a good psychological-approach improved a player or team would make it more compelling.

...Topics well chosen. Reasoning is clear, language very understandable. Good sequence.

...It has taken me 20 years of coaching and parenting to be aware of, trying to understand, and finding learning tools of implementation that are contained in this manual. It would have been neat for me to have this information years ago but life is a dear teacher.

College coaches: Four of the five coaches ‘agreed’ that the manual clearly showed the importance of sport psychological techniques in coaching. One coach ‘strongly agreed’ in regards to the importance of sport psychological techniques in coaching.

Representative comments: ...You have done a good job putting this manual together. In some areas, there is need for fine-tuning. In other areas, there is need for elaboration or more clarification. Overall, the manual is a good concept.

...You could also stress that all athletes in the 1990’s seem to be different and “more difficult” to coach. Therefore, a psychological approach is needed more.

...I think it is great for a large majority of teams. All aspects may not be incorporated into 'elite' programs. Anson Dorrance would disagree with some of this!

...The only concern I had was that a coach that has not had any training or classes in it, may be a little confused or not fully understand. But for those who had training or classes it was good because it was broken down and explained well.

Sport psychologists: One of the two sport psychologists 'strongly agreed' that the manual was clear in showing the importance of sport psychology in coaching while the other one answered 'agreed'. The evaluator who answered 'agree', failed to give any comments. The sport psychologist who 'strongly agreed' believed that the manual contained a number of important psychological issues that coaches need to know.

Question two: Do you think that the manual meets the goal of educating the new soccer coach?

High school coaches: Two of the five coaches agreed that the manual met the goal of educating the new coach and two others 'strongly agreed'. One of the five coaches was 'undecided' because he or she believed that the material may be a little overwhelming for a new, or first year coach. The 'undecided' coach also believed that the manual would be more effectively targeted at a coach with at least 3 or 4 years of experience coaching.

Representative comments: ...One does have to be aware of the "new psychology" of today versus yester-year and be willing to open the mind to recognize and implement helpful tools. This is not just for the "new soccer coach" but also for the experienced soccer coach and coaches of other sports as well.

... Yes, but all the psych stuff could scare them too. Although new coaches need to be aware with everything else, having to worry about this too might be overwhelming.

... Perhaps shorter would be better if new coaches are the target.

College coaches: Three of the five coaches 'agreed' that the manual met the goal of educating the new soccer coach, while the remaining two 'strongly agreed'.

Representative comments: ... There is a lot of good information for the "new soccer coach" and a high school soccer coach. An important point I must make is that the "new soccer coaches" typically are not high school coaches. High school coaches typically have experience before being hired. When I think of a "new" coach, I think of a coach of kids in the recreational leagues under the age of eight.

... Lots of great information and ideas. Some ideas need more concrete steps... e.g. when and where to use relaxation, imagery, etc.... 1 hour before game, with whole group, 15 minutes before a game.... etc.

... I think this is excellent for a new soccer coach.

... I think it should be mandatory for all (old and new) coaches to read this or something like this. Sometimes more the older ones because sometimes they are coaching the win-at-all-cost way and with females that may not be appropriate.

Sport psychologists: One of the two sport psychologists answered 'agree' while the other answered 'strongly agree'. Again, the one evaluator who answered 'agree' failed to comment, while the other evaluator gave some constructive, yet positive advice.

Representative comments: ... You have some good information for new soccer coaches, although some of your choices about what to include would not be mine. Some of the information seems a bit too advanced for new coaches.

Question three: Do you think the material in the manual adequately covers the topics of: Coaching females?

High school coaches: Two of the five coaches 'agreed' that the manual adequately covered the topic of coaching females, while two other coaches 'strongly agreed'. The remaining coach 'disagreed' that the manual adequately covered the topic of coaching females. Although the coach believed that the section was a good start, the coach believed that a whole manual could be dedicated to the subject of coaching females alone.

Representative comments: ... It's dealt with in great depth, which has been addressed adequately but by a few. Clearly the main purpose of the work.

... Having coached males and females, this manual is even more pertinent to females than males... probably mostly because males just "react and don't show" their more sensitive natures. Many males are not allowed to show their emotions by culture and by training. I found this manual to be far more appropriate for my female athletes than my male athletes. This manual is a good introduction to coaching females... there is a difference and you acknowledged the main reasons.

... As a coach of both genders it seems that there are usually fewer females per team that play soccer for the love of the game and an intense desire for competition. Many

more seem to play because they like soccer and want to be part of the team. This was covered in the manual very accurately.

...A more complete discussion of male/female differences, and how much they really exist, would be a nice addition.

College coaches: Two of the five coaches 'strongly agreed' that the manual adequately covered the topic of coaching females. Unfortunately neither one of these coaches commented on why they answered the question the way they did. One coach agreed that the manual was meeting the goal of covering coaching females, and two were undecided. The two undecided coaches were positive with their comments and believed that the section was slightly stereotypical of gender roles in society in the United States. The indecision also came from the fact female athletes can be good athletes too, and that it was not as clearly stated in the text as they would have liked.

Representative comments: ...There is a lot of good information about female athletes and differences with the male athlete. In a couple of areas there are stereotypical references made about male athletes or coaches that are no longer true. You may want to adjust these areas.

...I really feel that there needs to be a little more about coaching females. Because coaching males and females is different, not saying they both aren't good athletes, it is just in the way you approach them. Most female athletes will agree with that

...So, it is different to coach females than males. From your chapter the differences seem to be: The male role model lacks emotion, that the coach must possess feminine

qualities to coach females, and must have compassion. I need more information from this chapter to make a more educated decision.

The last two comments in this section are from the coaches who were 'undecided'.

Sport psychologists: One of the two sport psychologists answered 'agree' while the other was 'undecided'. In this instant, both evaluators commented as to why they answered the way they did. The first comment was given by the 'undecided' evaluator.

Representative comments: ...Much of the material is really appropriate for both male and female athletes.

... You have covered some important points. In order to keep the chapter short, you have covered several important topics so briefly that I am not sure if you have provided enough information to really do the coach a significant amount of good.

Question three continued: Do you think the material in the manual adequately covers the topics of : Goal setting and motivation?

High school coaches: The majority of the coaches ($n = 3$) 'strongly agreed' that the manual adequately covered the topics of goal setting and motivation. All three coaches commented that they believed this section was easy to follow and easy to understand. The other two coaches 'agreed' that the material was adequately covered and commented as such.

Representative comments: ...Good step by step that is easily followed and understandable.

...I agree with the section completely and the development is good. Examples and methods are key here. More is better here, and methods must be tailored to each group as each team has a different overall personality.

...Having set goals and not set goals...mine and/or the teams...has made a difference when I think about it in retrospect. In the future I plan to make more time and effort to have active individual and team involvement in this process.

...Strong goal setting techniques and a good concentration on various motivation techniques for different types of athletes.

...Good discussion of the importance of these items and how to use them.

College coaches: Three of the five college coaches 'strongly agreed' that the goal setting and motivation section was adequately discussed in the manual. The remaining two coaches 'agreed', and one of those coaches neglected to comment. Each of the three 'strongly agree' statements were backed with comments about how good the motivation and goal setting section was. Although one coach 'agreed' that the section was adequate, his or her comments were as follows: "Goal setting in front of teammates may not be the best scenario (p. 10)...peer pressure and the player responds as expected, not necessarily honestly. Write it down first, not after discovering they are quiet or introverted.

(Commitment to goals set is minimal if you don't trust the coach ...p. 11) but you set goals in pre-season before players even know the coach, let alone trust them. (this is for the new soccer coach). Chapter is "Motivation and goal-setting"...how does a coach specifically help with motivation? (positive reinforcement for example)."

Sport psychologists: One of the two sport psychologists answered 'strongly agree' while the remaining one answered 'agree'. The 'strongly agree' answer was supported by a comment that he or she felt that this section was much more complete and organized than the previous section on coaching females. The 'agree' answer was not substantiated by any comments.

Question three continued: Do you think the material in the manual adequately covers the topics of : Competition anxiety?

High school coaches: Three of the five coaches 'strongly agreed' that the manual covered competition anxiety adequately, while the other two 'agreed'. All comments were supportive and positive.

Representative comments:

... Well done. A++.

...Some things I had not necessarily thought about were brought out...and methods of implementation of relaxation were great.

...Again, good discussion of the techniques for dealing with this problem.

...Again various techniques covered accurately for different athlete types.

...This can be easily shared with athletes you suspect need help.

College coaches: As with the high school coaches, three coaches 'strongly agreed', and two 'agreed' that the section on competition anxiety was adequate in the manual. Although one coach who answered 'agree' did not comment, the remaining four coaches did. Of the four coaches who commented, all comments were positive and constructive in nature. Two of the coaches who 'strongly agreed' believed that there is not enough

information available for coaches that is easy to read and easily accessible. Both of these coaches expressed that they would like to use some of the techniques mentioned with their teams next season.

Representative comments: ... (p. 19) High levels of anxiety may be divided into psychic energy and stress energy... psychic energy is the energy that athletes use to become focused on competition...this doesn't sound like anxiety to me. Specifically of use of relaxation, visualization, ...use concrete examples. How does one stop negative thoughts (p. 28).

... (p. 27) "...cannot pay attention to more than 1 task at a time" yet on p. 28 you say ...commitment to positive self-talk is prior to the execution of the skill and then during the outcome is essential"... more detail needed about how this all works.

... There is a lot of good information in this section, however, paragraphs are too long in areas thus making it difficult to read. (i.e. imagery, cues, and positive self-talk sections).

Sport psychologists: Although both sport psychologists answered 'agree' on this section, one commented that it was too briefly discussed to make an impact on the new coach. He or she also commented that more information was needed to make this section more useful to the new coach.

Question three continued: Do you think the material in the manual adequately covers the topics of: Coping techniques for competition anxious athletes?

High school coaches: The majority (n=3) of the coaches 'strongly agreed' that the section on coping techniques for competition anxious athletes was adequate. The

remaining two coaches in this group 'agreed' regarding the coping techniques section. One of the coaches commented that although the manual covered the topic of coping techniques well, he or she wondered just how feasible it would be to get a high school aged athlete to dedicate off field time on the techniques described. All other comments were positive and supportive.

Representative comments: ...Some great tools...I particularly like the imagery part and just used some with my girls today!

...Well done.

...Various methods used...nice variety.

College coaches: Three of the five coaches 'strongly agreed' that the manual was adequate in covering coping techniques for competition anxious athletes. Unfortunately, only one of the three commented after circling the answer....good...again, maybe suggestions about how, when and where this is done." The remaining two coaches 'agreed' that the section was adequate, and neglected to comment.

Sport psychologists: One of the two sport psychologists 'agreed' that the section on coping techniques for competition anxious athletes was adequate, while the second evaluator answered 'undecided'. The evaluator who answered 'agreed' failed to comment and the 'undecided' evaluator gave helpful ideas on how to positively change this section.

Representative comments: ...I wasn't crazy about this section. I think autogenic training is too complicated a technique to teach coaches and athletes. I also don't think you gave coaches enough information about self-talk to use the techniques appropriately.

Question three continued: Do you think the material in the manual adequately covers the topics of : Problematic athletes?

High school coaches: Four of the five coaches 'agreed' that the section on problematic athletes was adequately covered, while the remaining one 'strongly agreed'. One of the coaches who 'agreed' just briefly commented that the section was well done, while the rest of the coaches elaborated in the comment section as to why they answered the way they did.

Representative comments: ...A coach should really read more on these athletes and ways to handle them... excellent reference with Tutko.

...The toughest subject of all should be a thesis by itself. Issues with players are often gender specific. Good job, just an enormous and highly complex subject. Spice equals variety. It is why we coach, and it is always fun although always challenging.

...Good discussion.

...Describing the various behaviors that an athlete might demonstrate is very helpful.

...Some great points...yet I've experienced some problem athletes and always tried to change myself to try to meet their demands/expectations. Some of those ideas are very helpful. A few are difficult for me personally (i.e. punctuality). Being aware of my own behavior and recognizing imperfection to the team members plus being honest.

College coaches: Three of the five coaches 'strongly agreed' that the section on problematic athletes was well done and adequately covered. One of the two remaining coaches 'agreed' that the manual section was adequate while the other remaining coach

provided helpful comments but did not circle any answer. Two of the five coaches commented on the problematic athlete section.

Representative comments: ...Good information. Some paragraphs too long...too difficult to read. Eating disorders...maybe should be a separate chapter?

...Minor details...(p. 34) “produce a detailed form of the plan”...what plan? For training, the season? Have everything written down in detail before each session?... (p. 36). Maybe add a description of the positive behaviors and attitudes expected of all...you have a frame of reference from the get-go and can give a concrete example of positive, replacement behaviors (p. 55). The coach is to request an evaluation, state health risks to athlete, schedule appointment with doctor, prohibit training and competition if athlete doesn't see a doctor....try to “force the athlete to go to therapy...” yet “it is important that the athlete is not feeling threatened by the coach...” We are dealing with NEW coaches...they have as training in counseling or therapy...shouldn't they get advice from a professional first?

Sport psychologists: In this section there was a significant difference between the two sport psychologists' answers. One of the two, 'agreed' without comment, while the other 'strongly disagreed' with extensive, constructive comments.

...I don't like the problem focus and believe it has almost disappeared from sport psychology practice. Instead, a 'skills' approach is much more positive and constructive. Help coaches see challenges and opportunities rather than problems.”

Question three continued: Do you think the material in the manual adequately covers the topics of : Communication?

High school coaches: Three of the five coaches 'strongly agreed' that communication was adequately covered in the manual, while the remaining coaches ($n = 2$) 'agreed'.

Each coach commented on why they answered the way they did.

Representative comments: ...No matter what level soccer is played, it boils down to how well a team can communicate and support each other. So that technique can serve as tactics.

...This is so key to a new and old coach's success.

...One of the best chapters...so pertinent especially when I look at some poor communication by me in past and by other coaches and people in general. Good communication does make a big difference with the players...and parents, and then the team and the progress and play. Good thoughts and tools.

...Good quick management communication skills that a coach could use for an individual athlete or a team as a whole.

...Only comment is some coaches believe females need to be communicated with differently, and more tie-in with female sports psychology would improve this discussion.

College coaches: One of the five coaches 'strongly agreed' while three other coaches 'agreed' that the manual adequately covered the topic of communication. The remaining coach answered 'undecided'. The undecided coach felt that the section needed more elaboration. One coach who answered 'agree' failed to comment.

Representative comments: ...There are at least five different coaching styles according to the USSF. In this chapter you talk only about the authoritarian and democratic

coaching styles. This section needs elaboration. Also, the order that the material is presented may also need to be rearranged.

... Good, could go into a little more with the different types of coaching styles.

... I agree communication line should be open and agree with the techniques. There is a pitfall in this though. I am the coach! I do not need to change things based on this communication, but I do need to listen. It isn't a democracy... I am in charge and that must always be known. Parents will not run my program... There is a fine line between this and democracy, but I am also not a dictator!

... Would it be better to have players and parents meet together at the beginning of season. You are the new coach. Nobody knows you and they need to get to know you. When do you have all this time for all of these meetings? What you are suggesting you do with players and parents takes a tremendous amount of time and energy.

Sport psychologists: As with the previous section, the two sport psychologists differed greatly in their answers. One evaluator 'strongly agreed' that the manual adequately covered the topic of communication, while the other was 'undecided'. The 'undecided' evaluator had comments as to why he or she answered that way.

... I thought you had a decent overview but provided few specifics that coaches could readily use.

Question three continued: Do you think the material in the manual adequately covers the topics of : Team cohesion?

High school coaches: Almost all of the five coaches ($n = 4$) 'strongly agreed' that the section on team cohesion was adequate. Two of the four coaches did not comment as to

why they answered the way they did. The remaining coach answered 'undecided' and commented that the section was adequate in covering cohesion between the coach and the players but needed more on how to create more team cohesion among the players themselves.

Representative comments: ...I love this! Good thoughts...a couple I suspected (from experience) and will handle a little differently with some of this information.

...Agree! By definition! Excellent opening statements! Key word here is flexibility...type casting is good...authority to democracy could be addressed.

College coach: One of the five coaches 'strongly agreed' while two more 'agreed' that the manual adequately covered team cohesion. With this group, just as with the high school coaches group, one coach answered 'undecided'. One of the two coaches who 'agreed' with the section, failed to give any comments. The coach who answered 'strongly agree' commented that team cohesion is a little more important to female athletes than it is with male athletes. The following comment was given by the 'undecided' coach:

...I was disappointed in the number of suggestions as to how a coach can help build team cohesion. It was interesting that as numbers increase, team cohesion decreases, but that was the only suggestion. What about team bonding activities and team rule setting?"

Representative comments: ...(p. 70) You used the term "spiritual cohesion" What is this? Bible study? Chanting together? Bonding by summer training and don't allow anyone to join afterwards? What if not everyone is available during summer with work or family vacations?

... Good information, but the paragraphs were too long.

Sport psychologists: One of the two evaluators for this section 'strongly agreed' and the other 'agreed' that the manual adequately covers the topic of team cohesion.

Interestingly, the 'strongly agreed' evaluator failed to comment, while the 'agreed' gave comments that were not consistent with his or her answer. This evaluator believed that the section was a good start, but that the manual did not provide enough specific strategies for team cohesion building.

Question four: Do you believe the manual can be helpful to all coaches?

High school coaches: Four of the five coaches 'strongly agreed' that the manual can be helpful to all coaches. One of the five coaches answered 'undecided' and stated that not all coaches believe in all of the issues presented in the manual. This 'undecided' coach also believed that the manual could be a help for a coach just starting out with psychological techniques with his or her team but it would not be helpful after that. Of the four coaches who answered 'strongly agree', one did not give any comments.

Representative comments: ...It approaches things from the athlete's, coach's, and parents' perspective. There is something here for everyone. I value having this work as a ready reference. Thanks, Lisa.

...Information is concise and various techniques are illustrated that a coach could adapt to his or her personality.

...Oh yes! Anyone who will take the time to read it and open her or his mind and implement this material will be helped.

College coaches: One of the five coaches circled 'strongly agree' but failed to comment why. Two of the five, answered 'agree' and gave comments, while one coach was 'undecided'. The undecided coach believed that this manual would be great for the new coach just starting out coaching at the high school level, but believed that it was too elementary past that. This coach did state that she or he did get a few new ideas from reading the manual.

Representative comments: ...I agree that parts of the manual can be helpful to all coaches. The manual doesn't address elite teams where you may want to encourage competitiveness. Even working with these teams, you will need to be aware of the issues mentioned, but it is not all 'feel-good' coaching.

...There is a lot of good information for all levels of soccer coaches. This is helpful. I have learned some things.

...Yes, it can be helpful to all. But I am concerned about dimwitted coaches trying to do everything you suggest and being a bull in a psychological china shop. These practices and techniques take experienced coaches a lot of time to utilize properly, yet your manual is for the BRAND NEW coach.

Sport psychologists One of the two sport psychologists answered 'strongly agree' and failed to comment why he or she answered that way. The remaining evaluator answered 'agree' and commented that although the manual is a great start, he or she believes the manual needs to be more in depth regarding strategies and specific ideas for coaches to actually implement.

Question five: Do you believe the illustrations are understandable?

High school coaches: One of the five coaches circled 'agree' while three others 'strongly agreed'. The remaining one coach was 'undecided' and admitted to not really paying any attention to the illustrations.

Representative comments: ... They're great!

... Thanks for injecting a sense of humor.

... Well referenced and easy to understand.

... Cute and pertinent!

College coaches: Two of the five coaches 'strongly agreed' that the pictures were understandable. The remaining three coaches all 'agreed' that the illustrations were helpful and understandable. Two of the five coaches added comments, while the other three did not. One coach stated that the illustrations were helpful for the most part. The other coach questioned whether or not all of the coaches in the pictures were male.

Sport psychologists: The sport psychologists answered 'strongly agree' and 'agree' for this section. The evaluator who 'strongly agreed' commented that he or she like the illustrations, while the 'agreed' evaluator did not comment.

Question six: Do you think the writing style of the manual is understandable for coaches?

High school coaches: Two of the five coaches answered 'agree' while the remaining three answered 'strongly agree'. All coaches commented on this question. The first two comments in the representative comments section are from the coaches who answered 'agree'.

Representative comments: ...Perhaps on some issues some idea of different approaches to the problem would be an added plus.

...I felt the author tried to cover a very large collection of ideas and current practices in sport psychology. It was covered in a direct and concise manner.

...Interesting and not difficult to understand...I wanted (and did) continue reading.

...It flows well, and has few technical language errors.

...It helps bring elements of competition to light for a coach that may have never been an athlete.

College coaches: The college coaches were more divided regarding this question. Two coaches answered 'undecided', two 'strongly agreed', and one 'agreed' that the writing style of the manual was understandable for coaches. The 'undecided' comments were as follows:

...Many of the paragraphs are too long....maybe subdivide some chapters into smaller chapters...did this manual receive a professional edit?

...My same answer as with question 1...the only concern I had was that a coach that has not had any training or classes in sport psychology may not understand. But for those who had training or classes it was good because it was broken down and explained well.

The one coach who answered 'agree' did not comment as to why she or he answered that way. The remaining comments are from the 'strongly agree' answers.

...Every chapter is organized the same way. It is very easy to follow.

...More clarity needed in specifics of techniques. Very readable and enjoyable.

Sport psychologists: Both evaluators in this section answered 'agree'. One evaluator failed to comment while the other believed that the manual writing style was not bad overall, yet needed some work on some sentences and paragraphs that were confusing and hard to read. Unfortunately, the sentences and paragraphs that needed work were not specified.

Question seven: Do you think the length of the manual should be :

shortened kept as is lengthened

High school coaches: Two of the five coaches believed that the manual length should be kept as is. One of the five coaches was undecided on how long the manual should be. Another coach believed the manual should be shortened and one coach commented but did not circle an answer. All of the comments were supportive of his or her own thoughts on the length of the manual. The undecided coach's comment is the first in the representative comments section.

Representative comments: ...It might depend on the target audience. In some ways, I think the manual could focus more in depth on a particular topic (i.e. performance anxiety) rather than cover so many aspects of athletes' personalities. However, it is a quality overview of most all aspects of athletic psychology.

...The resource lists are great if readers want to go deeper on a subject.

...The issues tackled here are basic to all coaching. Obviously this manual will be re-written with the phrasing as it was originally intended. I suspect it will be similar in length.

...I read it in its entirety in one sitting because I was interested. I don't know if everyone would be that motivated. But it would be hard to condense it and still have the information presented as well.

...If truly for the new coach, I would say shortened. If for the coach that wants a path into these issues, I would say just about the correct length.

College coaches: Interestingly, in contrast to the high school coach's answers, the majority of the college coaches thought the manual should be longer (three out of five). The remaining two coaches in this category believed that the manual was the right length. The coaches who thought the manual should be longer commented as such. Of the two coaches who believed the manual should be kept as is, only one commented on why.

Representative comments: ...Some areas need more elaboration...the introduction needs elaboration...I recommend an overall summary page and a table of contents.

...Maybe explain a few more sections a little more so that coaches of all levels of education can understand.

...Your manual is approaching issues and areas of the game that require several encyclopedias of writing.

...It really depends on your goals of this manual and target audience. If you want a broader audience (i.e. college coaches) you will need to go deeper. If not, then keep it where it is as far as length.

Sport psychologists: One of the two sport psychologists believed the manual needed to be 'kept as is' while the other believed the manual needed to be 'lengthened'. The evaluator who believed the manual needed to be 'kept as it' did not comment as to why.

The other evaluator commented that there needed to be more detailed information. This evaluator also indicated that some of the sections could be cut out and the sections that remained could be lengthened so that the manual would stay the same in length. Again, the evaluator failed to be specific, and did not mention which sections could be eliminated and which sections could be elaborated on.

Question eight: Is there any further information or comments that you believe would be helpful to include in the manual in terms of topics covered?

High school coaches: Each coach believed that a little something different should be added to the manual to make it more complete. Each comment was different and suggested some additions to the manual. The comments were as follows:

... This manual should encourage coaches to further their knowledge by reading some of the references listed to deepen their understanding of the topic.

... More help coaching girls differently from boys... techniques and strategies that are proven successful.

... The section on nutrition should include the positive side of things. Extended events such as tournament play should have been addressed. I also felt post-game psychology deserved more attention. In closing, I would like to remind Lisa's advisors of a book 'Why the caged bird sings', by Maya Angelou, from which I quote, 'The quality of strength lived with tenderness is an unbeatable combination as are intellect and necessity when unblunted by formal education.'

... The part on eating disorders was very well covered and thus lengthy. In the context of a coaching manual for new coaches who have much on their mind it may be more than

they wish to deal with...but they can always skip and refer to it later. Good! It may indeed be more prevalent and troublesome than I am aware of. I will pay more attention.

...More discussion on what present research suggests about female psychology regarding sports and competition.

College coaches: The majority of coaches ($n = 3$) did not comment on this last question. The other two coaches gave some suggestions on how the manual could be better.

...Maybe put something in the manual about athletes with attitude problems.

Excellent manual...be sure you try to publish it!

...As mentioned earlier, overall you have done a very good job. Some fine-tuning is needed in areas. In some areas, you need to expand your train of thought. There is a major flaw in the title. A 'new' soccer coach is an under-5, under-6, or under-7 coach. Your manual is geared towards high school soccer coaches who coach females. You may want to rethink your title. High school soccer coaches are not new coaches.

Sport psychologists: Both evaluators commented about this question, yet their answers were different in nature. One of the evaluators believed that the manual was essentially a great manual for a beginning coach. The first evaluator also stated that the manual was a good overall coverage of a lot of information that could be helpful to a new coach to use as a basis for a program. The second evaluator gave suggestions as to what could be added to the manual to make it more complete. This evaluator believed that the manual needed more information on imagery, self-talk, conflict management, and possibly something on leadership.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The manual, So you are the new soccer coach: A psychological approach to coaching, was sent out to 14 evaluators to be analyzed for its content and approach. Thirteen evaluators sent back their responses and 12 were usable for analysis. The manual contained sections on: coaching females, goal setting and motivation, competition anxiety and coping techniques, problematic athletes, and communication and team cohesion. The overall responses from the evaluators regarding the purpose and content of the manual were positive. The majority of the ratings for the manual were 'strongly agree' and 'agree' with nine 'undecided' and one 'strongly disagree'. The comments were mostly supportive and interestingly enough, the one 'strongly disagree' gave positive comments as to why he or she answered that way. The most highly rated questions were: the manual clearly showing the importance of sport psychological techniques in coaching (question 1); the material in the manual adequately covered the topic of goal setting and motivation (question 3B); the material in the manual adequately covered the topic of competition anxiety (question 3C); and belief that the manual can be helpful to all coaches (question 4).

The evaluators were made up of five high school coaches, five college coaches, and two sport psychologists. This information was given at the top of each questionnaire. The college coaches and the sport psychologists were the most critical of the manual. The possible reason for this may have been that the high school coaches typically coach athletes who are not as experienced in soccer as the college coaches, and do not have as much applied training as the sport psychologists. While most high school coaches

answered the majority of the questions with 'strongly agree' and 'agree', they also gave less critical comments for each question. The college coaches were more concerned with the actual application of the manual, and the sport psychologists were more concerned with the content of the manual. The comments from the college coaches and the sport psychologists were indicative of their concerns.

Summary

The high school coaches believed that the manual would be a great addition to any coach's library. The majority of the high school coaches also believed that the manual may be a little too advanced in content for the new coach, and that the length of the manual was too long and drawn out for the new coach. Each of the high school coach evaluators had at least five seasons of experience coaching high school athletes. Each of these coaches believed that the manual would be great for them, yet too advanced for the new, inexperienced coach. The coaches believed that the manual would be helpful to all coaches in some way or another and saw value in each section.

The college coaches believed that the manual had some good points, but, like the high school coaches, also believed that the manual was too long and in depth for the new coach. Many of the college coaches believed that the section on coaching females was too short, and needed more justification. Two of the five coaches believed that a whole manual alone could be dedicated to coaching females and that the manual just briefly touched on the subject. The majority of college coaches expressed the belief that the manual needed more detail, and that a manual of this nature could be addressed at a coach who coaches females, but not a new coach.

The two sport psychologists differed slightly in their answers on the questionnaire. Although both believed that the manual adequately covered a number of topics, one believed that the topics of coping techniques and communication needed some elaboration. The sport psychologists also differed on the length of the manual. One believed that the manual should be lengthened and elaborated on while the other liked the length of the manual kept as it was. Overall, the comments from this group were constructive and helpful.

Recommendations

In the future, projects of this type should consider the following:

1. the purpose of the manual should be well defined;
2. more current research must be found on the differences in genders in sport;
3. the evaluation forms sent to the evaluators should be coded in a way to protect anonymity but allow for tracking of responses, and analysis of gender of the evaluator;
4. if the manual is truly for new coaches then the length of the manual should be shorter so as not to overwhelm the reader;
5. the author should try to cover fewer topics more thoroughly;
6. the author must also be able to give more practical, applicable suggestions for coaches who are trying to use the techniques in the manual with their teams;
7. the targeted audience should be more clearly specified;

8. the chapter containing eating disordered athletes should be in a chapter on nutrition for sport.

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APPENDIX A

Introduction

This manual is for the coaches who find themselves coaching for the first time. The intent of this manual is to give coaches who coach all types of athletes, a tool for understanding psychological factors that may affect their athletes. For example, many female athletes may be more sensitive and motivated differently than male athletes. With this in mind, the manual will address all types of athletes with an emphasis on the female athlete who may have different motivations than the traditional male athlete.

Coaches have typically used the professional model. Professional coaches, for example, Bear Bryant or Vince Lombardi, have typically been regarded as the most successful, motivational coaches of our time. These coaching models are from the professional, male sport ranks. These coaches were known for their win-at-all-costs attitudes, and this type of coach may be great for the more traditional, male, professional athlete, but this coach may not be a good match for the more sensitive, high school athlete, who may be motivated differently than the professional athlete.

It is typically understood that most athletes will react the same way in regards to participation in competitive sport. For example, most high school athletes participate to win and for the competition. This may be true, yet some athletes at the high school level may be participating in sport for a variety of reasons, not just the competition itself. Some athletes compete for the sport itself, while others may participate for fitness, or because their friends do. Whatever the reason for participation in sport, the coach of female athletes especially must be prepared for all varieties of athletes. Girls and women, in the past, have not had the same opportunities to participate in sport as boys and men

have had. With the passage of Title IX in 1972 and the advancement of sport for girls and women, more women, from a wider variety of backgrounds, are joining teams. This manual is meant to be useful for coaches, especially those coaching women.

Coaching females

Coaching, in itself, is difficult at times. The majority of coaches with experience in coaching the high school athlete, can attest to the diversity among athletes. Yet, with this diversity may come some surprises that a coach may not be aware of. Since the model of the typical, competitive athlete is the professional athlete that we all see on television, it is difficult to know what type of athlete will be participating at the high school level; especially if one has never coached at that level before. It would be nice to have all hard working, equally skilled athletes on your team, but that is not really realistic.

At the high school level, more and more females are now participating in sports. The reasons for their participation, as with males, could be anything from playing because they have friends that play, to looking for a college scholarship. Whatever the reason for participation, there will be a diverse population of personalities on the team. Although

the coach may have experience in coaching, if the coach has not coached high school females before, he or she may be in for a surprise. This is not to say that there are extreme differences between female and male athletes. There is a large overlap between how male and female athletes respond to sport experiences. Yet there are, for the most part, more sensitive, communicative, emotional female athletes than there are male athletes. Many traditional coaches believe that in order to coach males, one must coach to their egos. This means that to challenge the male athlete to succeed and strive to be better, one must “get in their face” and maybe raise one’s voice to get their attention. For instance, historically, male coaches who coach American football to motivate their athletes may refer to some of the males as “girls” to express their discontent in the team’s play. In theory, this means that the team is being too soft and sensitive. This strategy is supposed to motivate the boys into playing harder and with more intensity, yet who’s to say that women do not work just as hard as men? It is also believed that to coach females, one must coach to their emotions. This may mean that the coach must possess and understand more “feminine” qualities to be successful in coaching women. These qualities typically could be: more sensitivity, understanding, and compassion for what the athletes are going through.

Athletic female role models. Coaching females, is therefore, somewhat different than coaching males. Males have traditionally had the professional role model to strive toward. This role model has historically been one of power, mental and physical toughness, and lack of emotion. So, since the females have not had the luxury of having gender specific role models, they have been forced to either conform to the male model,

or create their own. This role model created in a female's mind, may be a mixture of many different men who have been the leaders in their sports. Unfortunately, this model is not quite realistic for any high school age female athlete, since the opportunities for females are very different than ones offered for males. It is true that with the passing of Title IX in 1972, and the push in the 1990s for more professional sports for females, that there are more role models for young female athletes to admire, but there are not nearly enough. The emergence of the American Basketball League (ABL) and the Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA) has provided the opportunity for young women to admire the talents of female athletes. In 1996, the women's Olympic soccer team from the U.S. won the first ever gold medal in women's soccer. So what is a young female athlete to do when she is faced with modeling her own style and play after a role model who does not quite exist? She will look to her coach for that modeling, and that is why it is so important that the coach is not only physically fit, but has the ability to demonstrate and play the game with expertise.

High school; a new frontier. The female high school athlete goes through a number of dynamics when participating in sport at school. Some girls at the high school level have never participated in sports, while others have participated their whole lives. When children find themselves going to a new school, trying to make new friends, and adjusting to puberty, some distractions exist. When sport is added to this mix, the individual must decide which distractions are easier to live with. In the female athlete's case, she has to find a happy medium between wanting to be a physically and mentally tough competitor, and being ladylike enough to be accepted. This may not apply to girls who are

uninterested in boys, but for the majority of cases, this is a dilemma. The fear of being called a “tomboy” or not being well liked by the “social scene” may be a problem for some girls. Although, for the most part, female and male athletes are similar, there are some differences.

Most coaches who have coached both genders have found that many female athletes are just as tough, competitive and motivated as many male athletes. This chapter is for those coaches who have not had the experience of coaching females before. The female athlete, for example, typically will want to know why she has been substituted from a game, where the typical male athlete will assume it has been because he has played poorly. A quick remedy to this problem is while substituting athletes from games, have them get a quick sip of water, and then come to talk to you. For the most part, you will be able to quickly tell them why they were substituted. This will help your athletes feel more comfortable about being substituted, and also help you understand what was happening on the field.

Conclusions, references, and suggested reading. Female athletes may need to be coached differently than male athletes. This is not to say that some female athletes will respond to their sport experiences differently than some male athletes, but there will be some differences. These differences could be anywhere from how each athlete reacts to stress, how they react to your communication, and how they react to each other. Most male athletes will be competitive with each other, just as much as they would with another team. Many female athletes will be more competitive with another team composed of girls they do not know, than against their own teammates. For example, if

you said to a girls' team, "next goal wins", during a game in practice, they would challenge for the ball, but not necessarily try to slide to win 50-50 balls. If the same was said to a boy's team, the mere fact of winning would probably drive them to win at all costs to beat the other group of their own teammates. Now, this example is not to say that there may be some girl's teams out there who would not respond like the boys, this is just to say that the majority of girls would probably respond as in the example. It seems very apparent that while females and males are very competitive in sport, their competitiveness is equal, yet different. The difference is not in level of intensity, but more different in style. This chapter is to make the first time coach more aware of those possible differences in style.

A male athlete may want to show dominance by showing the team that he can be the best player, and not necessarily show the team that he is the best team player. On the other hand, most female athletes will want to show that they are the best team player, and not necessarily the best player. A good example of this may be that a male forward going toward the goal may try to shoot the ball as hard as he can to beat the keeper. Many female athletes in this same situation may pass the ball more often than take the shot. This very well may be the fact that the male athlete has more confidence, yet the female tends to look for a teammate, not the shot. This, again, is not to say that there would not be females who act like males in this situation, but it is more common to see the female pass the ball off.

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Motivation and goal setting

How to motivate athletes has been a long time mystery for coaches at all levels and the high school athlete is no exception. Athletes are motivated for a variety of reasons. Many high school athletes participate in sport because their friends play and they are bored after school, but athletes may also play the sport because they love the game. The number one priority for a coach of any sport, is to establish what kinds of athletes are on the team, and how each individual approaches the game. Although the coach is expected to motivate the athletes on the team, motivation also comes from within the athlete.

Motivation consists of two aspects: intensity and direction. Intensity is equal to the amount of energy the athlete is willing to put into training and competition. If the athlete is unwilling to train with intensity, and treats training like a game, then the athlete will have a difficult time. But, the athlete must also have a direction. The direction of the

athlete's motivation is related to their goals. Goal setting is an effective way to keep an athlete focused and will help the athlete achieve better performances in practice and competition.

Goal setting

Goal setting can be accomplished in a variety of ways. As a coach you must be sure that the athletes understand what is expected of them from the beginning of the season. The easiest way to find out what your athletes are thinking is to ask. Devoting a pre-season practice to goal setting is a simple and easy way to find out what type of athletes you are dealing with. This can be accomplished by using a chalkboard and having your athletes tell you what they want. Be prepared for some answers that are not quite what you had in mind for the team. It is at this time that you must tell the team what is expected of them, and what kind of coach you will be. This will be good for the athletes who may not be ready for the type of team or commitment you expect. This will also give the athletes an opportunity to decide if they want to participate or not. If you find that your athletes are quieter or introverted, have each athlete write down what they want to have happen for themselves, both long and short range, and also what they expect from the team, both long and short range. These goals must then be turned into you so that you may assess how you would like to approach the season. If this approach is taken, the athletes must be given the opportunity to know what you expect and what type of season you expect. This will give the athletes a chance to decide if they want to participate or not.

How to set goals. The ultimate success for a coach is for each athlete to have a positive experience while playing. The relationship between the coach and the athletes must be a trusting one. If the athletes do not trust the coach, then the commitment to the goals set is very minimal. The athlete must be the one to determine if the relationship between themselves and their coach is a supportive one. There are some questions you may ask of your players prior to goal setting:

1. How much confidence and trust do you feel the coach has in you?
2. To what extent does the coach convey a feeling of confidence that you can perform successfully?
3. To what extent is the coach interested in helping you to achieve your best performance?
4. To what extent does the coach try to understand your problems?
5. How much is your coach interested in helping you (within reason) with your personal problems?
6. To what extent is the coach approachable?
7. To what extent is the coach generous in attention toward you?

These questions can be helpful for your athletes to understanding if they are willing to commit fully to goal achievement. Athletes who have set goals for themselves and their team will have a better understanding about what they expect from themselves and what you as the coach expects from them.

The biggest part that the coach can play in the setting of goals is to give the athletes a base, and then have them brainstorm. Let the athletes set long range and short range

goals during this session. It is also a good idea to let the athletes know that the short range goals should be set so that the long range goals can be met. Short range goals need to be made so that the long range goals will not seem so out of reach. A long range goal of improving the team's passing game may seem impossible without short increments to be met along the way. Whatever the goals may be, make sure that all of the athletes on the team are aware of what they are trying to accomplish and why. Short term goals allow the athletes to see small pieces of the long range goal in each practice or competition.

Components of goals and goal setting. Basic guidelines for goal setting show that the goals should be difficult yet realistic, measurable, controllable, and specific. For example, an athlete wants to increase his or her number of shots taken in a game. This goal needs to be specific, so a percentage or number needs to be given to the shots taken so that they can be measured. An example of this would be to measure how many shots were taken in a specific set of games. Then let the athlete know that, for instance, he or she took 10 shots in the last two games. Make the next step for the athlete to shoot 10 shots in the next game alone. It may also be helpful to let the athlete have some rules for shots taken. The rules will help the athlete stay more focused on the task at hand, and make the shots more realistic, instead of just shooting to shoot. These rules may be something like:

1. The shot taken must be within the 18 yard line.
2. The shot must be with either foot, not just when the opportunity is there for a dominant foot shot. Many athletes will become too predictable to the defense

by always cutting the ball back to their dominant foot to take a shot. This is where the goal may be difficult, since the athlete may be unsure of his or her non-dominant footed shot. This where you may show the athlete that the task is not impossible, just difficult.

3. Shots taken under pressure must be taken with a three touch limit. This way the player will not try to dribble in closer to ensure an accurate shot. Many players are unsure of their abilities so they will only shoot when there is a high percentage of making the shot. As a coach, you know that anything can happen when a shot is taken, however hard the ball was struck. This will encourage the athlete to take all shots, not just the high percentage ones.

Goals may also be divided into subjective and objective. Since all of your athletes should set individual goals for themselves as well as team goals, subjective and objective goals will help them to be more organized. Subjective goals may be to just have fun, to try their best, or just make more friends. A coach must be prepared for all types of answers. Just because an athlete is competing does not necessarily mean that they are looking to get a college scholarship. Many high school athletes are trying sports for the first time, and want to get a feel for what a particular sport is all about. Objective goals can be divided into team and individual. Team goals may be as basic as learning how to connect more passes, or just making the team. Individual goals are ones that apply to the performance of the individual athlete. These goals would be for example, improving one's own personal statistics such as scoring more goals. These goals may also be called performance goals. The language of goal setting is insignificant. What is important, is

that the athletes are setting goals both for themselves and the team, and those goals are set in the short term and long term.

Winning; is it the only thing? Many coaches set long range goals that are uncontrollable. Winning is an uncontrollable goal. Although many coaches believe that being successful means winning, this is not always the case. Winning takes more than just being the better team. In many instances, the team that you find yourself coaching is not the best team in the league, and you must find a way to make them better. The progression of a team in most cases is the idea that the team is improving on individual as well as team skill, improvement of team concept, and improvement of team tactics according to a variety of situations. As each of the improvements take place, winning will come. Winning is something that is not a directly controllable event. It is impossible for a coach to control the field conditions, the weather, the actions of the other team or the outcome of anyone's performance. Make sure that the team understands why winning is not directly controllable, otherwise the athletes will believe that you are not confident in their abilities.

Unfortunately, the goal for many competitors is just to win. So, the coach must make sure that although winning may be the ultimate goal, there also should be goals set in how to get there. This could be achieved by scouting the opponent, or limiting the best player from the other team to a short amount of time with the ball. For individual athletes this may mean setting a goal of percentages, such as making a certain percent of connected passes, or a certain amount of shots taken that result in goals. If it is the pressure of the games that make the athletes less successful, you may create more game

like situations at practice to make them more realistic. For example, the athlete may have problems taking penalty kicks, so have that athlete waiting his or her turn, shout out as the athlete approaches the ball. This may scare the athlete at first, but with time this may be helpful in helping the athlete tune out other distractions while taking penalty shots. The coach must be careful in these cases, because competition may already cause certain amounts of anxiety and extensive goal setting for each competition may be too much. Make sure, as a coach, that the goals that are set and worked on for any given day are not so extensive that the athlete is not able to concentrate on the task at hand: the game. For example, setting daily goals for each player on the team in regards to how everyone else in the league is doing, may be a little extreme. But, on the other hand, setting daily goals such as having everyone on time, or not having anyone drop out of the running, may be valuable.

Conclusions, references, and suggested reading. Goals for a team may be very simple or complex. It may be that the team has been historically successful each year, so the goals may be very similar each year. But, for a team who is considered in the middle of the pack, the goals may change more drastically with each incoming group of freshmen. The basic thing to remember with goal setting with any group, is to make sure that the group goals are made public, and that they are written down so that all members of the team may check back to them as the season progresses. When setting goals, the best time is in the beginning of the season, so that the season is spent working toward the goals. The goals may also be set further on in the season, so that other tasks can be worked on in the off season as well. It may also be helpful to let each player write down

some goals that he or she has. These goals may be private, between you and your athlete, since some may be goals in which the athlete is overcoming something he or she is uncomfortable with. These private goals are also helpful to you as a coach, because they may help you become more aware of each athlete's mannerisms. Knowing each of your player's styles could be helpful in stopping poor habits, or negative thought processes. Overall, everyone wins when goal setting is used for individual and team motivation.

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Competition anxiety and coping techniques

This chapter is about competition anxiety, how to recognize if your athletes are dealing with it, and then some coping strategies they can use.

Precompetition anxiety may be defined as feelings of nervousness or tension prior to competition or practice. This type of anxiety may be beneficial for some athletes who need to be a little “psyched” prior to competition, yet too much of this type of anxiety can be detrimental to the athlete’s performance. There are so many aspects of anxiety in sport that a brief overview may be helpful.

Charles Spielberger, a sport psychologist, defines anxiety as the subjective perception of apprehension or tension usually accompanied by the perception or heightened autonomic arousal. This means that the individual or athlete involved will have his or her own evaluation of the situation and may or may not be clearly aware of the signs of his or

her heightened arousal. Anxiety can be divided into state and trait categories. State anxiety is the anxiety that an athlete feels in a specific situation. For example, an athlete may feel state anxiety just before the kick off or just before shooting at the goal. As the situations change throughout the game, the levels of state anxiety may change as well. For instance, the game is tied, and there is a penalty kick awarded to the opponents. For the brief moment that the kick is being taken, the anxiety levels may be extremely high, especially for the kicker and the goalkeeper. Once the kick is taken, and the outcome is decided, the anxiety levels may change. In contrast, trait anxiety is the anxiety that one feels according to their own beliefs and ideals. An example of trait anxiety may be that an athlete was injured playing in the rain. So, each time it rained, this particular athlete would tend to experience more trait anxiety. Trait anxiety is more stable than state anxiety since beliefs change less freely than situations do. Trait anxiety can be the result of an athlete's life experiences, while state anxiety may be the result of the situation at that very moment.

Anxiety may also be divided into cognitive and somatic components. Cognitive anxiety is worry and doubt, and is the mental part of anxiety. Somatic anxiety is the physical part of anxiety. This type of anxiety may be having to go to the bathroom right before kick off, a rapid heart rate, clammy hands, tense feelings in the muscles, or just the jitters. An athlete may feel all of these things prior to competition. Anxiety is usually felt in all ways, both physical and cognitive and may subside with time or may continue throughout the game.

Anxiety and performance. Anxiety as it affects performance in sport has been a subject for research for many years. Much of the research has been focused on the aspects of cognitive and somatic anxiety and how it pertains to sport performance. It has been found that although an anxious athlete may have problems performing at optimal levels, no anxiety at all is not very good either. Many theories have been established as to how high levels of anxiety affect performance. These theories suggest that athletes will experience a level of optimal anxiety that will in turn help them perform at their best. So, if an athlete is really pumped up and overly excited about competing, they may not be able to perform their best just as they would not be able to perform their best if they are not psyched up at all. High levels of anxiety may be divided into psychic energy and stress energy. Rainer Martens, a well-known sport psychologist, believes that psychic energy is the energy that an athlete uses to become focused on competition while stress energy is the type that is bad for performance. Stress energy is known to hurt athletes' performances by causing unnecessary muscle tension and causing the attention span to become very narrow.

Athletes who are able to tap into their psychic energy source prior to and during athletic contests will perform at their best. In order for your athletes to find these sources and stay focused, they must be equipped with the tools to master these tasks. Athletes who are able to go back to their past performances and identify which emotions and thoughts were ones that prevented them from giving a total effort during a given competition will be able to tap into their psychic energy source. This type of identification will take some training and time. It is important for an athlete to be aware

of what each success feels like in order to recreate that same state in the future. Athletes must also be able to stop negative thoughts from overcoming their ability to focus on the positive energy needed for their peak performances. Feelings of intense fatigue, panic or depression may be some examples of thoughts that would prevent an athlete from achieving peak performance. These feelings can be cognitive in nature (“I am so tired, I can’t keep up with the speed of play”) to personal evaluations (“I did not train hard enough to be a starter”). These thoughts hinder an athlete from concentrating enough to complete any task successfully. Somatic reactions to stress that may lead to wasted psychic energy, or the feeling that they have to go to the bathroom all the time may also distract an athlete from being able to compete at the best of their abilities. It is here that the athlete must have some strategies for dealing with stress.

Stress management. Stress management is important for all athletes. Many stress management techniques used in psychology have been useful in sport settings as well. Some of these techniques include: progressive relaxation techniques, autogenic training, positive self-talk techniques, and thought stopping.

Coping techniques

Coping techniques are strategies to help people deal successfully with anxiety that may be harming their ability to concentrate. Since there are different kinds of anxiety, there are also different strategies for dealing with each type. If the athletes primarily believe their anxiety is caused by thoughts, then they may engage in positive self-talk, thought stopping, or using cues. If the athlete believes he or she is feeling physically anxious, then coping strategies such as progressive relaxation or breathing techniques

may be used. Both of these types of anxious behaviors are interrelated and can be lessened by using a combination of different coping techniques to help ease both the body and the mind.

Positive self-talk. Positive self-talk and thought stopping are two strategies in helping athletes deal with negative thoughts during competition. Basic psychology suggests that a person is unable to pay attention to more than one task at a time. This would mean that if the athletes are busy thinking negatively about their performance, they cannot concentrate on the skills they need to perform. If this is true, then athletes need to be able to replace their negative thoughts with positive ones in order to be more successful. The following steps may be useful in thought stopping and centering:

1. Become aware of the negative thought.
2. Stop the negative thought.
3. Substitute the negative thought with a positive, realistic thought.

Self-talk represents the thought stoppage procedure and also positive response time. This is to assure the individual that the eventual outcome, even the worst possible case, is never totally bad. But, one has to remember, that positive self-talk and a positive belief system are only effective if the athlete is constantly willing to replace negative thoughts with positive ones. The mere fact that the athlete is thinking a negative thought should be the cue to replace it with something positive. For example, if an athlete is about to strike the ball to shoot and he or she thinks “ What if I miss, this could be the game winner? I will feel so bad if I miss, I shouldn’t shoot it too close to the sides, I might miss the goal entirely”. This instance should be a cue for the athlete to think instead, “ I have made this

shot so many times in practice, this is nothing. I will make this and many more to come.” The athlete must then deal with the outcome of the shot. If the shot is missed, the athlete must assure herself or himself that there will be more shots, and that this is not the end of the world. Commitment to positive self-talk prior to the execution of a skill and then during the outcome is essential. If the athlete mentally beats herself up over a missed play or shot, then the positive self-talk will not work. If the athlete is having a difficult time realizing when the beginning of a negative thought is taking place, have the athlete break down the day into parts, and then count the number of negative thoughts in each part. This type of strategy may be useful in showing your athletes the level of their problem as well. Athletes must then be able to stop their negative thoughts and replace them with positive ones. You may have your athletes start by yelling the word “no” each time they felt a negative thought begin. This would then cue the athlete to think positively. This strategy would eventually become a subconscious act, where the word “no” would not have to be yelled out for the athlete to realize the negativity taking place.

Cues. The use of a cue word or phrase can help remind the athletes to do what they learned in practice. For example, in a soccer game, you have an athlete on your team who tends to foul a lot of the time. This athlete seems to foul more when she was beaten to the ball or was beaten on the dribble by an opponent. In order for the athlete to be helped by this imagery, she must be able to keep a journal in which she writes down her feelings regarding her behavior. The athletes must then know what the consequences are for their behavior (i.e. less game time, fouls that result in penalty kicks and let the team down) and then are to think of a word or phrase that would keep them focused and away

from such behavior. This word can be just between the coach and the athlete. This word could be, for example, “more”. Then each time he or she started to engage in fouling to get back at an opponent, you may yell “more”. To the athlete, this could mean you need him or her to stay more focused on the task at hand, to stay more involved in the game as a team player, or more focused on their own game which involves not fouling unnecessarily. By the athlete being able to identify what the problem is, and being able to understand why the behavior needs to change, imagery can be very helpful. This also may be used with a player who is anxious about goal scoring. For instance, as you practice with your athletes on taking penalty kicks, go through a progression of thoughts and techniques that lead up to successful penalty kicks. As the kicker sets the ball, steps back, and takes the kick, have them think of each progression (set the ball, peek at the goal for a spot, place your shot). The athlete may think peek and place, or placement, as a way to calm himself or herself and not send the ball soaring over the top of the goal. These cues may be said by the athlete quietly to themselves to take them back to the non-threatening time at practice. As a coach, you can find ways to have the athlete concentrate more by finding a word or phrase that may cue her or him into a progression of movements and would help the athlete think positively about the skill. Being able to know your athlete’s mannerisms and target the negative behaviors, you may be able to help your athlete stay more focused and become more successful. Another example of using cues with anxious players may be with your goalkeepers. For example, if your goalkeepers are anxious about defending corner kicks, you may think of ways to help them stay more focused on the task at hand instead of being distracted. This process

suggests that the cues are “if, then” statements. These statements are to be yelled by the coach to warn and instruct the player in a given situation. Since the corner kick is a flood of attacking players into the defending goalkeepers area, “if, then” could mean:

1. If the corner kick is directed to the right uppermost portion of the penalty area, then look for an open attacker in front of the goal.
2. If the corner kick is sent in front of the goal and to the left, then face the opponent immediately in front and to the left of the goal.

These cues are not necessarily verbal ones. An athlete may be able to find an image, or color, that may make them feel more at ease. If the athlete has an image that makes them more relaxed, then have them draw it on their hand, and each time during the game when they begin to feel anxious, they may look at the image and take themselves back to a place of relaxation. A color may also be handy, since many of them may appear on the playing field. Each time a player sees a color that they have chosen for relaxation, they will be able to eliminate their anxiety by looking at it. For instance, the color may be a part of the team’s uniform, or green, like the grass. There would be numerous times when the athlete would see either of those colors in a game.

Progressive relaxation. Progressive relaxation is a technique of tensing and relaxing selected muscle groups to enhance relaxation. This is a somatic anxiety coping mechanism since it helps ease physical anxiety. The theory behind progressive relaxation is that the person cannot be anxious and relaxed at the same time. This procedure is one in which the athlete is able to tense and relax muscle groups progressively throughout the

body until each part is relaxed. As each muscle group is contracted, the contraction is held for approximately 2-3 seconds, and then relaxed for 5-10 seconds. This process is done until that muscle group is relaxed. This procedure usually starts with the athlete tensing and relaxing his or her feet, then calves, thighs, hamstrings and buttocks, back, chest, arms and ending with the head. It is better if the person is lying down when attempting to learn progressive relaxation. The supine position allows the athlete to remain relaxed while going through the process of relaxation. This procedure must be practiced over time, so that if the athlete is faced with an anxious situation, he or she may be able to relax and benefit in a short amount of time. The athlete who must try to relax in a short amount of time without practicing the techniques first, may become more anxious because the techniques are not familiar. This technique can be used before a training session, before games or just before he or she falls asleep at night. The main objective for the athletes is to take themselves back to that relaxed state in a short amount of time.

Relaxation techniques. Here are some prerequisites for relaxation techniques to be successful:

1. The person participating must be motivated and committed to the techniques.
2. Outside distractions must be kept to a minimum, so that the individual may be able to concentrate fully on the procedures.
3. The individual must be able to concentrate on their own physiological responses in order for them to concentrate on their inward focus.

Autogenic training. Autogenic training is another technique to combat anxiety. The procedure behind autogenic training is that the athlete practicing it may be able to get into a relaxed state by using a series of exercises focusing on warmth and heaviness. This state is similar to the one achieved in progressive relaxation, yet this state is achieved by using verbal cues. This technique allows for the individual using it to decrease heart rate, respiration, and muscle tension.

Once the athlete is committed to autogenic training, he or she must be able to be in a relaxed position. The most beneficial position is reclining with arms to the sides, palms facing upward, and the legs straight. Cushioning may be placed in areas for comfort. The other positions may be seated, either in a straight-back chair with arm rests, or on a stool or low-backed chair while the athletes rest their forearms comfortably on their thighs with hands dangling. The seated position is the most convenient since it can be done anywhere and the athlete does not fall asleep as easily. The process of autogenic training is one of sequence. Each stage must be mastered before the athlete can move on to the next level. This sequencing may take time to master, so if the athlete is willing to start early in the season, this technique may be extremely helpful. The stages are:

1. Focus on the heaviness of the arms and legs.
2. Focus on sensations of warmth throughout the arms and legs.
3. Focus on sensations of warmth in the chest.
4. Focus on slow respiration.
5. Focus on sensations of warmth in the abdomen.
6. Focus on sensations of coolness in the forehead.

These stages may be mastered very quickly or over time depending on the individual.

Some athletes may not be able to achieve this state of relaxation. This is why it is important to teach a variety of techniques, so that all of your athletes may benefit.

Imagery. Another way of helping athletes deal with precompetition anxiety is the use of imagery. Imagery is a picture in the mind. This picture can be created in the mind of an athlete to aid her or him in relaxation, psyching up for a game, or for mental practice. For example, an athlete may use a mental picture of a tropical beach to relax herself before an important game, or may use the image of the last big goal she scored to get herself psyched up. However imagery is used, there need to be some guidelines established in order for the imagery to be successful.

The image needs to be as intense as possible. This means that the picture in an athlete's mind needs to be vivid and lifelike. For example, if the use of imagery is meant to relax an athlete, and the picture in her mind is one of a serene mountain-side, then it must be so real that it is as if she is actually there. The athlete must be able to smell the grass, feel the breeze on her skin, see the surroundings and all of the colors involved. Without the intensity and vividness of the image, the athlete will be unable to completely relax. The same goes with an image that an athlete creates to psych up for a game. It may be that she would get energy from imagining herself successfully winning the ball from the best player on the opposing team. In order for this to happen, the athlete must imagine what the opponent looks like, be able to see, hear, feel and smell the surroundings, and the whole image must happen in real time. For instance, if it took 10 seconds to run the width of the field, while successfully winning the ball from her

opponent, then the image in her mind must take that amount of time. This image must also be seen from the athlete's own internal focus. Internal focus means that she must be able to see what is going on in the image through her own eyes, not how she would be seen by others watching her. If an athlete is using imagery to mentally practice a skill, the athlete must be able to include everything that is involved with the skill to be successful in practicing it. Imagery plays a key role in allowing the athlete to make the mental practice session as real as possible. For example, a player has a difficult time kicking lofted long balls. After going over the proper technique with the athlete, have the athlete sit somewhere quiet, and have her imagine her approach, strike and follow through of a long ball. The athlete must be able to feel the surface under her feet, smell the grass, feel the breeze on her skin, feel her body approach the ball, and so on. The whole image must take the same amount of time that it would if she were actually doing the skill. The repeated mental practice of a skill has been proven to improve actual physical skill. But, unfortunately, the athlete must be able to use all of the necessary guidelines for effective imagery, otherwise the mental practice will be for naught.

Not all athletes are capable of using imagery successfully. It is important to emphasize to the athletes that practicing imagery should not be done in a stressful situation. If imagery is only used prior to games, then the athlete may not be able to focus on the image because the environment is too distracting. To find out if your athletes are able to use effective imagery, ask them if they are able to see, hear, feel and smell the images as they are happening. The athletes must also be able to have internal focus and imagine the whole thing happening in real time. If your athletes are unable to concentrate enough to

imagine a scene successfully, then you must start from the basics of an image and move forward. This technique of helping athletes who have problems with imagery, may also be used for athletes who have not had any experience with imagery before. For instance, first have your athletes imagine a stationary soccer ball. This soccer ball has nothing else around it. Once the athletes are able to see just the ball, then add more detail. This may be something like imagining the ball on green grass. As the athletes are able to add more to the image, make the image more complex with the ball and then the players moving it. Each step is important in helping the athlete use imagery as a possible coping strategy for dealing with precompetition anxiety.

Conclusions, references, and suggested reading. Precompetition anxiety may be very detrimental for an athlete who is not trained in how to cope with it. There are a number of ways for a coach to help his or her athletes deal with precompetition anxiety, competition anxiety, and negative thought processes. Unfortunately, many athletes experience high anxiety prior to competition, so much of their energy is used worrying, and less energy is available to perform.

Progressive relaxation, autogenic training, imagery, and the use of cues all may help an athlete who experiences competition anxiety, but all of these techniques take time to learn. Some athletes may not be able to master progressive relaxation, for example, so this is why many techniques need to be taught. A combination of different techniques may also be helpful if an athlete is unable to master any one in particular. It needs to be emphasized that although all of these techniques have benefits, they will not be helpful if they are not practiced prior to being in a competition situation.

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Problematic athletes

All coaches, at one time or another, have had an athlete on their team who was not quite the model athlete. For some reason or another, this particular athlete makes it his or her job to make your life as a coach, miserable. It may be that this athlete is very needy, and needs to know the reasons for everything. It may be that this athlete is disruptive, and brings the team down with him or her when present. Or it may be that this athlete is annoying, and although he or she is extremely talented you would rather have 10 not so talented coachable athletes than one uncoachable one. Whatever the case, as a coach, it is comforting to know that you are not alone, and that this is something that can be resolved. The following chapter may give you some ideas on how to deal with a problematic athlete. Unfortunately, there are so many types of these kinds of athletes, it would be difficult to assess each and every one, so here are some typical types. Dr.

Thomas Tutko, a well known sport psychologist, outlines a few of the most typical types of problematic athletes. Tutko has written a number of books dealing with difficult athletes; a few of the following are from his work.

The uncoachable athlete

The uncoachable athlete is one who resists coaching all together. This type of athlete typically has a problem with authority or is unable to trust the group or the coach with whom he or she is affiliated with. The priority in all of this is trust. Distrust is something that the athlete may have learned from prior experience and has now brought to your team. Coaches who betray trust not only destroy the athlete's confidence in them for that season, but for future seasons as well. The athlete who is able to display unconditional trust and is able to feel well organized, free of restrictions and respects authority in a coach, is the one who presents little problem for the coach. The greatest challenge comes from the athlete who has little respect for authority, and has few organizational skills. Although there are other combinations of uncoachable athletic problems, these seem to be the worst for a coach. The following list contains signs for a coach to be aware of in the instance that an athlete is leaning toward uncoachability:

1. There is a definite tendency to avoid contact with the coach even when it is appropriate to do so.
2. There is a tendency to argue with you, usually in a hostile manner.
3. You as the coach, find yourself repeating directions often.
4. The athlete may use other authorities to refute your arguments.
5. The athlete may return to prior coaches for support and instruction.

6. The athlete may resist the training regime given by you. The athlete may attempt to find flaws in the regime and suggest that it may not meet their personal needs.
7. The athlete may attempt to catch you, the coach, making inconsistent statements and try to find flaws in your arguments.
8. The athlete may exhibit a strong tendency to let you down when you are most dependent upon them.

There are a few strategies in dealing with uncoachable athletes. Although these are a few, they are by no means all that exist. The priority to all of this is that integrity and trust are upheld.

1. As a coach, you must be careful about appointment scheduling and being on time. Being punctual is a requirement. Athletes will respect you more if the plan is exhibited and stuck to. If the athlete is resistant to the plan, explain that the plan was well thought out, and produce a detailed form of the plan. Try to resist changes to the plan, and discourage the personal change by the athlete by giving constructive criticism. Honoring the need for self expression is important as a coach, but it is more important for you to express that you are the ultimate judge of what is good for the individual and the team.
2. As the coach, be in tune to the types of athletes on the team. If you sense that you may have an athlete who will test you, make sure that you are up to date on the game or event that your athlete is participating in. This will eliminate

the chance for the athlete to catch you being inconsistent, therefore allowing the athlete to feel superior.

3. Do not try to improvise by relaying information that you are not sure about. If you do not know the answer, let them know you will let them know as soon as you find out.
4. Do not make promises that you are not able to keep. This will destroy any trust you may have had with the athlete to begin with. Keeping promises will be a great way for you to show your trustworthiness.
5. Remember, above all, that you are the role model as the coach. How you act is how you are asking your athletes to act. Be aware of your behavior.

The obnoxious athlete

The obnoxious athlete comes in all forms. In some cases, this athlete possesses no talent whatsoever, and so the method in dealing with him or her is easy: you make cuts. However, when the athlete is one who is talented enough to make the team, or the best player, then the coach has a problem. Not only will this player help the team with his or her talent, chances are they will also be destructive. This destruction may be in the form of bad mouthing his or her teammates, openly challenging the coach, or just speaking freely out of turn. You as a coach, have to then find out why the athlete is the way he or she is and figure out positive strategies to deal with them. It is likely that the athlete is dealing with an overbearing parent, and he or she must win to satisfy their parents. Although it is extremely difficult to deal with this athlete, winning may not happen without him or her. It is likely that the athlete is acting in a way that he or she has seen at

home, so it is believed that this is what the parents want. The coach may be able to understand the athlete much more by observing the parents. The priority of the coach is then to be able to look at the situation objectively, to help the athlete the most effectively. The following five steps may be helpful in approaching the athlete, and initiating change:

1. The coach must be able to let the athlete know what their behaviors are and why they are disruptive to the team. This discussion should be done in private since the athlete may not know that they are acting that way. The coach must also let the athlete know at that time that their behavior will be pointed out the next time it happens so that she or he may be made aware of it in that instant. The coach and the athlete can then think of a word that will be a cue for the athlete during practice, so the coach can discretely let the athlete know the behavior is happening.
2. The athlete must be made aware of the impact of his or her behavior on others.
3. The coach needs to let the athlete know of his or her importance to the team and how it may be a positive influence on others who are less talented. The athlete must also be alerted that the behavior needs to change in order for him or her to be a leader.
4. The coach needs to then pay attention to the athlete after the meeting so that he or she may strongly reward any attempts to change.
5. There must also be follow-up meetings to the initial meeting to keep the athlete in check. As time passes, and the athlete makes changes, the meetings

may be less frequent. The complete change in behavior then becomes the ultimate in reward for the athlete.

It may also be necessary for the team to express their concerns to this athlete if his or her behavior has affected them. A team meeting, in place of practice, may help the rest of the team voice their concerns and problems with the specific athlete if he or she becomes too abrasive. Although the 5 steps listed above may be helpful for the athlete to change his or her behavior, sometimes the athlete needs to hear it from his or her peers.

The “psyched out” athlete

There is a huge difference between being psyched up and psyched out. Most athletes feel that in order to feel mentally prepared for the game, they must get emotionally ready for the match. Unfortunately, some athletes get so carried away with mental preparation that they are unable to reach their peak performance because too much energy is being expended preparing for the match. Being psyched out basically means that the mental part of an athlete's game is more responsible for not playing well. There are countless ways in which an athlete can get psyched out: playing a rival, having a significant lead on an opponent or remembering past experiences in game situations, or playing in an important game. These instances are basically divided into four categories: People, Places, Objects, and Circumstances. In reference to People; an athlete may feel as if he or she is unable to beat a specific opponent, or that the opponent is extremely weak and turns out not to be. This may be due to what he or she has heard at school about the opponent, or has read in the newspaper. Significant others may also play a role in an athlete's inability to perform well. It may be that a boyfriend or girlfriend is coming to

watch the match for the first time, or that a parent is in attendance. Whatever the case, he or she has formed an opinion prior to the match that has made him or her feel either anxious, or not enthused. In the Places category, some athletes may feel that there are certain fields at which they will be unable to play. These feelings may have been formed by prior experiences. For example, the last time an athlete played at this particular site, he or she was severely injured, or the game was lost unjustly. It may be that the mere sight of the field, is unnerving enough for the athlete. In the case of Objects, a coach must be prepared at all times for any one of his or her athletes to forget a piece of equipment or part of their uniform arriving at a game; shinguards and socks are the most forgotten things. To remedy this, you may carry a small bag of extra equipment with you to alleviate some athlete's stress. Circumstances can also be a part of an athlete's ability to see the whole situation clearly. Successful athletes must be able to let go of the past, both in relating to experience and circumstances in order to overcome the phenomenon of being psyched out.

A mental game plan. In order for an athlete to be able to get mentally ready for a match, he or she must be able to have good stress management techniques. In most cases, this athlete will not have a problem being motivated or dedicated. The problem with this athlete may be that he or she expends so much energy on psyching up for the match that by the time it has arrived, he or she is burned out or completely exhausted. A mental game plan needs to be in place prior to the athlete beginning his or her psyching routine. For many athletes, being psyched out means to expect failure. This expectation may be due to past experiences or low self esteem. Situations that an athlete plays out in his or her head prior to a match

typically set the tone for the competition ahead. It is important for the athlete to have a positive mental game plan to practice prior to competition so that his or her own positive reinforcement can create a stronger belief system. The following steps will be helpful in allowing athletes to create a more positive mental game plan:

1. He or she must be aware of their own anxiety. Rather than trying to deny the anxiety, they must be allowed to feel anxious and be allowed to express their fears so that a strategy can be established. It is important that the coach allows for this to happen before the game. It may be accomplished by arriving at the match early enough so that nervous, unorganized energy can be released. This time may be spent talking and putting on cleats, juggling alone, or sitting down listening to music. It is important that athletes are allowed this time before the actual regimented warm-up begins.
2. Since it is allowed that nervous energy is expended, development of an alternate plan to replace fear with strength needs to be established so that the athlete may then go into this mode. This must be done way in advance so that the athlete may have time to practice the replacement process. As the process is practiced, it will be a more natural thing to do in competition settings.
3. Have the athlete mentally rehearse the specific successful scenarios that they thought up that replace the fear episodes. These must be rehearsed with emotion and action, mentally. This must be as close to reality as possible, so that he or she can envision success.

4. The athlete then needs to learn to stop negative thoughts as soon as they occur. This process of thought stopping is crucial in creating a positive game plan. Once a negative thought enters the athlete's mind, it must be stopped and then replaced with a positive alternative. This replacement will be difficult at first and become easier the more the athlete practices. Eventually this plan will happen automatically.
5. Once this game plan is complete, the athlete must be able to practice it in competitive arenas. This practice can be accomplished by going to the field and watching games in which they are not involved. There, he or she should envision themselves playing, imagining the worry and replacing it with his or her own game plan thoughts.

It is extremely important to the development of a positive mental game plan that the athlete dedicates himself or herself to the elimination of the negative thought process.

The athlete who fears failure

There are many problems which an athlete faces when trying to reach his or her own potential. Fear of failure, along with fear of disapproval, is one of the most common sources of maladaptive stress that exists in sports. It has been noted in literature surrounding this issue that some athletes fear failure more than they fear being physically injured. It is believed that the fear of defeat may become an obsession. If an athlete is fearing failure so much that he or she becomes obsessed, he or she may never reach their true performance potential. It seems, for these athletes, that the greatness of victory is short lived, while the agony of defeat lasts forever. The athlete who participates with this

type of fear does not enjoy competing. This athlete constantly fears embarrassment, humiliation, rejection, and the feeling of looking incompetent around others. Many athletes who feel this type of anguish will quit participating to stop the pain, even if they may be the most talented out there. This athlete may also be described as one who has lost confidence. An athlete who is so interested in his or her own self worth will not see the joy in winning anymore.

With this in mind, there are essentially three levels of this kind of fear. The most simple of these levels is the external fear of failure. This more specifically may mean that the athlete is afraid of what others (coaches, peers or family) will think of him or her if success is not achieved. The high school age athlete may fear a looming lecture from parents when he or she returns home after a match. The athlete may also have been lectured by his or her peers regarding performance, which in some instances is worse than losing itself. Confidence must play a dominant role in how the athlete handles the failure. Athletes who are confident in themselves realize that success will come in a matter of time and that this failure is just a learning experience. In this case, it is best to leave the athlete alone, so that he or she may deal with the loss or poor performance on their own. Success in this case is inevitable.

The second level of fear is the internal fear of failure. Internal fear of failure is a far more serious condition and is more devastating to the athlete. This athlete feels a great deal of self doubt, as well as feeling that he or she is incapable of contributing to the success of the team. This athlete feels like a loser before the match even begins. Confidence is a missing factor for this athlete. This athlete will use every challenge or

match as a way to measure himself or herself against others to find out if they are equal. In most cases, even if the athlete truly is equal, they will not see themselves that way. Any success for this athlete will be seen as “lucky”. Any failure this athlete may experience will be seen as reality. Unfortunately, during youth sport, the phenomenon of this second level of fear of failure is manifested. For example, during youth soccer, athletes compete and realize that they are talented in soccer. As time progresses, and these athletes are now joined by other talented athletes, success does not come as easily. Winning now is not a sure thing. These athletes find that although they are trying harder and performing better, they may not be assured of a win. Success at this point is seen as their identity, and if failure occurs, identity is lost. The fear of not having that identity puts a strain on the athlete’s ability to have fun and relax while playing. This is where the athlete may realize that winning is expected and losing is frowned upon. Unfortunately, as a consequence, the athlete becomes more concerned about losing than experiencing the joy of winning.

The third level of fear is the total fear of failure. When an athlete becomes so frightened of failure, he or she feels it both internally and externally. There is no joy in athletics for this individual anymore and he or she is afraid that others will see them as a loser, as they see themselves. This individual may get to a point where any way to find relief is acceptable. It is this point that the athlete may fake an injury to escape. Any slight injury or pain could become magnified. Some athletes believe that if they are injured, they may not be blamed for failure. At this point, if the athlete does truly become injured, the recovery may seem endless. These “injuries” may surface when the

tough competitions are near, and the losing possibilities may be high. Although this is a way of getting out of competing, not competing at all is the ultimate escape. There are some common symptoms of fear of failure that a coach should be aware of:

1. Open and direct statements that losing is just too difficult for them and that winning does not mean anything anymore.
2. Discussing losing more intensely with others.
3. Minimizing the fun of playing and the excitement of winning and exaggerating the potential of failure.
4. Wanting to avoid talented competitive athletes and evenly matched opponents.
5. The athlete responds to injury by:
 - a) Not wanting to play in any pain.
 - b) Faking the injury.
 - c) Exaggerating the injury, incident, or pain.
 - d) Not wanting to practice when the injury has healed, and using it as a lingering excuse.

There are some definite strategies in dealing with a scared athlete. These steps and strategies are ones that may help you, as a coach, deal with the athlete who is just about to quit all together due to his or her fear of failing:

1. De-emphasize winning and losing. Circumstances of the game and process of play must be discussed as important, not the outcome alone.

2. Diversion by humor can be a great distraction when an athlete is consumed by the aspect of losing. Changing the topic of conversation is the best solution.
3. Put emphasis on progress and good play, improvement, and fun.
4. Use examples of others overcoming fears and show how they have succeeded.
5. Share moments of personal failure to show the athlete that he or she is not alone in failing at times.
6. Let the athlete know that he or she is not the loss but the game was. Try to separate the person from the match and ask the athlete to do the same. Let him or her know that their identity is not the loss, they are not losers, and that they are their own person.
7. Give the athlete his or her own identity. Let the athlete know by pointing out the athlete's strengths in the match, however small. Let them know that sport is for fun, that it is not their whole identity. Avoid pointing out the loss.
8. Let the athlete know that you, as the coach, are concerned and want to help them.
9. Let them know that no one wants to fail and that trying his or her hardest may be the best that they could have done for that moment.
10. If you, as the coach, are close to the athlete, try to assess if you are contributing to their problem and pain. If you are living through his or her accomplishments, you need to let them know. Showing him or her that you are vulnerable may also be a source of trust the athlete gains in you.

This problem of fear of failure is difficult to detect. Many times, an athlete will not admit that he or she is actually scared, since this may show that he or she is intimidated by the competition. Unfortunately, it is self started and self destructive all at the same time. The main goal of the coach in this instance is to regain the joy of participation in the athlete again. Sports are fun! Remind your athletes of this everyday in some way. Interject some aspect of having fun in your instructions before practice, tell the team prior to a game that the ultimate goal is to have fun, or share some light humor before practice begins. However you decide to share with your team, make sure that it is clear; the bottom line is to have fun. Why play if it is not fun?

The underachiever

There is no greater challenge for a teacher or a coach than an underachiever. The underachieving athlete is one who does not play up to his or her abilities. Unfortunately, the athlete may only be perceived as being talented, and talent is often judged subjectively. The athlete may be perceived as being talented due to his or her speed or endurance and may not be truly judged by his or her ability to perform. Performance may be erratic or poor with some good times mixed in. Usually the majority of performances will be bad. Underachievement may also be defined as: lack of effort by the athlete, resistance to trying harder, unwillingness to listen to the coach, and not learning from repeated mistakes. The one thing that is apparent with all underachievers is they are all talented. This seems ironic since the underachiever would not be labeled as such if he or she is not an above average athlete. The underachiever may be any one of

the following: unmotivated, misinformed in motivation, or an athlete who lacks confidence.

The unmotivated athlete

The unmotivated (or disinterested) athlete is the typical model of the underachiever. This athlete may think that although he or she dislikes sports, he or she plays because it is the only thing at which he or she is talented. This also may mean that this athlete will perform well in games and not so well in practice due to his or her belief that the practice has no value. To this athlete, winning and losing are of the same consequence, it does not matter. This may also mean that the athlete is playing purely for someone else, like a parent. Playing to this athlete is just doing time. Practices for this athlete need to be fun and more on a personal level. Excitement for this athlete needs to be shown by added positive reinforcement and periodic kidding, or personal exchanges. Overall, this athlete needs to know that they are important to the team and to the coach. This athlete may also be more productive if given a role on the team such as a designated leader, where he or she may lead by example.

The misinformed athlete

The misinformed athlete usually has low self-esteem. The misinformed athlete may have had a childhood in which he or she was constantly told that he or she was not good, or of not much worth. In this case, the athlete will not have any high expectations of himself or herself. It would appear to the outsider, that this athlete was lazy, or uninterested, when in actuality he or she is thinking that they are no good, so why try. This type of athlete, at times, will play beyond their expected abilities, but continually

play poorly because that is where he or she is most comfortable. The most effective way of handling this type of athlete is to be as factual as possible with them. For instance, the use of charts or graphs to show his or her strengths is a good start. Reasonable goals need to be set with him or her, to help them realize their talents in a short time. Gradual additions to already set goals may be helpful, but be careful not to scold the athlete for unattained goals. Use of factual information may be more helpful than scolding during times of regression.

The athlete who lacks confidence

The athlete who merely lacks confidence is unjustly put into the underachiever category. The athlete who lacks confidence typically is very motivated, yet is unsure if he or she will be able to perform. This unsure athlete typically is seen as lazy, due to his or her inability to try, for fear of failing. An athlete in this category must be treated in the same manner as the athlete who is afraid of failing: the coach must not respond to negative self talk by the athlete, and the athlete must be taught to compliment himself or herself. Above all, this type of athlete needs the strong support of his or her peers, family, and coaches.

Although there are many athletes who fit into the category of underachiever, several strategies need to be kept in mind when a coach is faced with an underachiever.

1. The coach must feel that the strategies given will fit into the athlete's make-up.
2. Several different handling procedures may be helpful in dealing with an underachieving athlete. Not all underachievers fit the model given.

3. These athletes may have these same problems in other aspects of their lives and so the coach needs to remember that if the athlete has a positive sport experience, then the strategies given to him or her might help in the future.

Eating disordered athletes

This section will contain descriptions of eating disorders, who is most likely to develop an eating disorder, and how this is related to athletics. This section will conclude with some possible strategies of how to deal with athletes who may be experiencing an eating disorder. Many individuals may not experience all of the classic symptoms of an eating disorder, yet they engage in disordered eating at times in their lives.

Anorexia is described as the active and constant pursuit of being thin. The American Psychiatric Association defines anorexia in their Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, as follows:

1. Intense fear of becoming obese, which does not diminish as weight loss progresses.
2. Unrealistic body image, anorexics visualize themselves as being “fat” when they are emaciated.
3. Weight loss of at least 25% of original body weight or, if under 18 years of age, weight loss of 25% of original body weight plus projected weight gain expected from growth charts.
4. Refusal to maintain body weight above a minimum of normal body weight for age and height.

5. No known illness that would account for excessive weight loss.

The anorexic, the self-starver. Anorexia typically refers to the individual who believes that he or she is unattractive, unworthy and overweight. This person typically believes that if he or she were thinner, they would be happier. In some cases, this individual may, in fact, be overweight at the start of dieting, yet as they begin to lose weight, some is never enough. As he or she loses weight, compliments from their peers may make them believe that if they lose more, they will be liked more. The sense of actually being in control of something in his or her life makes it more motivating to lose more weight. Lack of weight loss, once weight has begun to be removed, is considered a failure in the eyes of an anorexic person. The term, anorexia, though is far from the truth. The Greek prefix “an” means without, and the term, anorexia, means without hunger. This cannot be more from the truth. An anorexic typically is hungry for not only food, but attention, love, and a feeling of belonging. The term anorexia, may then be more suited for people without appetites, not self starvers. These individuals may suffer from the cold due to low body fat, even on warm days, and may wear baggy clothes to hide their imagined fat.

Bulimia, the one who fears food. Up until 1980, no diagnostic criteria for anorexia or bulimia existed. Bulimia refers to an individual who binge eats and then purges, such as vomiting, soon after eating. Bulimia, in many cases, is the fear of food. The American Psychiatric Association describes bulimia as the following:

1. Recurrent episodes of binge eating (rapid consumption of large amounts of food in a short time period, usually less than 2 hours).

2. At least 3 of the following behaviors are displayed:
 - a) consumption of highly caloric, easily ingested food during a binge
 - b) secret eating during a binge
 - c) termination of such eating episodes by abdominal pain, sleep, social interruption, or self-induced vomiting
 - d) awareness that the eating pattern is abnormal and fear of not being able to stop eating voluntarily
 - e) depressed mood and poor self image after eating binges

Common symptoms include: blood-shot eyes, swollen glands, bruised fingers (from induced vomiting), and the excessive use of laxatives or diuretics. Bulimic behaviors are, typically, more subtle than the anorexic behaviors. Bulimic people, for the most part, are of average weight, but possess abnormal eating habits. The bulimic individual may not necessarily die from his or her disordered eating, but may die from other related health problems such as gastric rupture, suicide, heart attack, liver damage, and immune system dysfunction.

The ones who suffer. Most victims of eating disorders grew up in dysfunctional families, and more specifically, ones with alcoholic parents. People who experience disordered eating typically have the need for perfection and control in their lives and find that controlling their weight is the easiest solution. Adult children of alcoholics feel that since they were unable to control their parents' drinking, so they tend to believe that they may gain control of their lives if they are in control of their eating. This behavior may lead to obsessive and compulsive attitudes regarding food or body fat. These tendencies could come in the form of

exercise compulsion (taking no days off for rest) or food compulsion (not eating enough or too much). These individuals may be described as driven athletes, when in actuality, they may just be compulsive exercisers.

The incidence of eating disorders, high school and college aged athletes, may be as high as 25%. It has been found that of the total number of individuals with eating disorders, at least 90% are female and in 1988, approximately two million American women ranging in age from 19-39 suffered from eating disorders while at least one million teenage females were also experiencing some disordered eating. Although these statistics are almost 10 years old, the numbers are not decreasing. Although some males experience eating disorders, they may not feel so keenly the pressures of society and the media to be thin. Males with eating disorders tend to exercise more excessively rather than diet excessively which may be more difficult to detect.

Athletes with disordered eating. An athlete with an eating disorder is one who belongs in a special category. Many of these athletes easily hide their afflictions due to the emphasis on leanness in sports. Athletes go to extraordinary lengths to improve their bodies and reduce fat stores to improve performance. This type of individual may also be one who is a perfectionist, one who works through pain, and is willing to train extra time. Unfortunately, an athlete who is driven to succeed and is highly motivated may also be willing to work through pain, be willing to train extra times, and is a perfectionist. Athletes who participate in sports like gymnastics, swimming and long distance running tend to be more susceptible to disordered eating than other athletes. Athletes are more apt to suffer from eating disorders due to the following factors:

1. Aspects of sport or specific sports attract individuals who may already be eating disordered, or may attract people who are at risk for eating disorder development.
2. Athletes may become eating disordered because of sport participation (he or she may see that they must have a specific body type or be a certain weight). When an athlete exercises intensely, his or her appetite will be suppressed, which may show the athlete that food is not important. Unfortunately, the disorder of not eating properly while competing will initially help with weight loss and may enhance performance at first, yet the athlete will soon feel the effects of improper nutrition and his or her performance will suffer. It is important for you as the coach to realize that when an athlete continues to have bad habits regarding weight loss and nutrition, that injuries and other more serious health problems may occur.

Your possible contribution as a coach. Athletes may also be motivated to lose weight on a continual basis by coaches or trainers. It is important that the athlete does not feel threatened by you as a coach, so making his or her weight problem public knowledge is not necessary. Be careful that you do not engage in dangerous weight management practices (i.e. public group weigh-ins, arbitrary weight or body composition goals, punishment for not making weight, careless or unfeeling remarks about weight issues, always associating weight loss with performance enhancement, or down playing the dangerous effects of rapid weight loss). Researchers have found that many athletes diet at the suggestion of their coach. Many of these athletes will admit that they used extreme measures to lose weight to please a coach.

It is for this reason that you must be very careful in talking to athletes about weight, especially to females. Many athletes believe that if they lose weight, they will have progressively more successful performances. This practice usually leads to problems. Induced vomiting, the use of laxatives, diuretics and restriction of fluid intake are all pathogenic practices. Although it has been discovered that the prevalence of abuse of weight control aids has been in long distance running and gymnastics, athletes of all sports are susceptible to disordered eating. Many female athletes who are currently participating in sports also suffer from a distorted body image. Many of them feel that there are pressures from coaches, peers, family and society to be thin and beautiful. As a coach, you could be a contributor to your female athletes' disordered eating. Be careful!

Possible strategies for dealing with eating disorders. There are many possible strategies for dealing with athletes with eating disorders. Although it seems to be a delicate issue, and uncomfortable to deal with, it may only get worse if you, as the coach, are not willing to deal with it. An athlete who is suffering from an disordered eating may be reaching out for help in other areas of his or her life and will need to be approached gently. Individuals who have an eating disorder try very hard to appear normal. It may be very difficult to determine if your athlete has an eating disorder, so make sure that if you are going to approach your athlete that you are really sure. According to Black, in his book, there are some signs and signals that you and or your coaching staff can look for if you suspect one of your athletes of having an eating disorder:

1. Repeated expressed concerns by an athlete about being fat when he or she is not.

2. Expressions of fear of being or becoming obese even when he or she is continuing to lose weight.
3. Refusal to maintain even a minimal normal weight consistent with his or her age, sport and height.
4. Consumption of large amounts of food that are not consistent with the individual's weight.
5. Secret eating or stealing food (this may be indicated by excess candy wrappers in the athlete's locker or food missing).
6. A pattern of eating large amounts of food followed by frequent trips to the bathroom soon after. These trips to the bathroom may be then followed by more eating upon returning to the table.
7. Bloodshot eyes, especially after returning from the bathroom.
8. Vomit, or the odor of vomit in sinks, wastebaskets and shower of the individual.
9. Complaints of light-headedness or dizziness not explained by any other medical condition.
10. Irritability and periods of lethargy over short amounts of time (this may be evidence of the over use of diet pills).
11. Excess use of laxatives (evidence may be the appearance of laxative packaging in the wastebasket, athlete's locker, and locker areas).

12. Avoiding situations in which the athlete may be observed eating. An athlete may not eat on roadtrips or make excuses why they are unable to attend team meals.
13. Certain changes in the athlete's appearance: thinning hair, sores in the corners of his or her mouth, skin rashes, and tooth decay.
14. Known or reported eating disorders in the athlete's past or if the athlete is from a dysfunctional family with a known history of disordered eating.

Since most individuals with eating disorders will deny having a problem, it will be difficult to discuss at first. Therapy of any kind may scare the individual because she or he would then have to reveal themselves and their safety net would then disappear. In most cases, the person with the eating disorder will associate her or his own identity with the disorder, so to take that away means that they themselves will be lost. It must be made known that he or she has not only your undivided support, but that of their peers and family as well. If this support is strong and loving, the individual may be more apt to receive help than someone who does not have strength in their corner. Be careful not to make a big issue to the team about the individual in concern. Making an issue out of an individual's weight loss or gain can only cause more distress. As soon as there may be some concern about an athlete with an eating disorder, the person on the staff that is the closest to them must approach him or her. It is important that the athlete is not feeling threatened by the coach or staff person doing the approaching. Once the athlete is approached, there are some steps to getting the athlete to help himself or herself. It is important to note that professional help in these matters is a must. Black suggests that there are some steps that parents, a coach or a

team manager can take to assist the athlete in helping himself or herself. These are merely suggestions, and are not unchangeable:

1. The athlete may resist the request for an evaluation at first. This may be difficult to force on the athlete, yet the health risks to the athlete need to be made known to the athlete so they may see they are in danger.
2. Schedule an examination of the athlete with a doctor to assess the dangers and damage done to their body. If this is refused, then prohibit training and competition until he or she has the exam. If the exam is taken, and results are such that the athlete is compromising his or her health with their actions, prohibit training until they are able to see an eating disorder specialist. The prohibition of training should be the last resort since the athlete may already have a negative view of life, and sport participation may be the only positive in their life. This strategy is only to try to force the athlete to go to therapy and get help, not discourage them further.
3. A few weeks should pass and then the athlete needs to be approached again. The person approaching the athlete must show complete compassion and understanding for what the athlete is going through. It is here where the athlete must be shown that they have complete support for them to continue their recovery. It must also be made

known that this meeting is not a confrontation but one of support and concern.

4. Refusal to acknowledge the existence of a problem may still continue after the first few meetings. The approaching person must then make the meetings more confrontational, but not angry. If the athlete has been heard purging, tell them. If they have lost an extreme amount of weight ask how much. Ask if she has lost her menstrual cycle, if he or she is having difficulty sleeping, if he or she is irritable, depressed, tired or losing hair. If the athlete still insists that they are not at risk, then the individual closest to them must insist that they are treated. This strategy is used as a last resort since the confrontation may be more harmful to the athlete than his or her current state.

If the athlete still refuses treatment, the athlete must be prohibited from participating. Suspension is the next step, yet the very, very last resort due to the fact that the athlete may train alone, and may be in even more danger. If suspension is the case, then the athlete must be kept in contact with to monitor his or her behavior. A medical evaluation, if not done already, needs to be stressed. The family must be notified and involved in the treatment regardless of the athlete's age, but obviously if the athlete is a minor.

If an athlete continues to train on his or her own, the health risks are very great. Although the athlete may have been suffering from the eating disorder for a long time, as a coach, one must make sure that the eventual meeting with the athlete is non-threatening and is supportive. It is also important that the meeting be as non-punitive as possible and

make sure that the athlete understands that you are trying to help and not punish them for doing what he or she believed was right. Letting the athlete know his or her significance to the team is extremely important. Not allowing an athlete to participate should only be a last resort, and the athlete needs to be told that their disorder is enhancing the probability that they may become injured or sick. It is also suggested that if the athlete denies that they are having a problem with food, that the athlete be told that many individuals with disorders need outside help and that it is nothing to be ashamed of. The most important thing to remember as a coach, is that most of the victims of eating disorders have been told at one time in their lives that they are overweight. Coaches must be careful not to expect athletes to participate in a weight loss program during the season, and that safe and effective weight loss strategies may be obtained after the season has ended. The demands of the season are hard enough, so purposeful weight loss during the season could lead to illness or injuries.

Conclusions, references, and suggested reading

There are a number of ways to deal with problematic athletes. From the uncoachable athlete to the athlete experiencing disordered eating, the athlete must know that he or she has support from the coaching staff and the team. If the support and trust do not exist, the athlete in trouble may not have a chance to remedy the problem. In many instances, the athlete who is having a problem is not the most pleasant to be around, and so it may be very simple to just eliminate the player from the team and not deal with him or her. Unfortunately, there are many coaches out there who would handle the uncomfortable situation in just that manner. As a coach, you must be prepared for some uncomfortable

situations. The number one priority is the athlete involved, and then the second priority should be the welfare of the team. For example, if the athlete in question does not respond to your interventions and continues to be uncoachable, and is unable or unwilling to adhere to your rules of behavior, then the team would suffer if the athlete is kept on the squad. It is imperative that you are aware of your athletes and their mannerisms, so that you are the first to react to their behaviors, not the team. It is also important that you are the one who deals with the problems of the athletes and the team. Do not let difficult situations get so out of hand that you are too late to show the athlete involved and the team that you are in control. This expediency will not only show the athlete involved that you care, it will show the team that you are on top of things.

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Communication and team cohesion

Positive communication is a priority in successful coaching. The coach must not only communicate successfully with the players, but also with officials, parents and the team.

The coach's personality and ability to communicate is key in making a team successful. There is no real clear cut answer on which kind of personality is the best for coaching, yet this person must be able to communicate effectively with the athletes to be successful. Success in this case not only means being a winning coach, but also being effective with athletes and making it a positive experience for all involved, including the parents. Although the coach does have the last word in what happens with the team, without positive parental support, this job can be extremely difficult. The coach must not only be knowledgeable in the game itself, but must also be a mediator. It must then be

understood that positive, good communication skills must be used not only with the athletes, but with the parents.

Unfortunately, there are many coaches who feel that the authoritarian way is the most successful style of coaching. Successful coaching is seen as winning on a consistent basis and also being able to relate well to the athletes involved. It is sad that successful coaching is mostly measured by winning. It has been found that the coach who is the total authoritarian, is the type of coach who will win at all cost, and is coaching purely for his or her own ego, not the character development of the athletes. Most authoritarian coaches will act in an impersonal manner, which in most cases, does not work for the high school age athlete. On the other hand, a democratic coach will tend to let the athletes rule themselves, and will be likely be the type who would be more of a friend to the athletes than a leader. There have been coaches who have been successful leading their teams in a democratic manner, but typically this type of leadership leads to chaos. The democratic coach will not discipline his or her athletes for fear of being disliked. Although these two types of coaching styles are extreme, the point is that there needs to be a happy medium. The number one priority for a coach is to be flexible and communicative.

Encouragement and verbal reward

Along with communication comes encouragement and verbal reward. This is important because each individual needs to feel important and the athletes must feel equal. The encouragement process is important partially due to the fact that the athletes will experience the confidence the coach has in them and in turn, decrease self defeating

thoughts they experience. In the book, "Turning people on: How to be an encouraging person", by L. Losoncy, encouraging people is discussed:

Encouraging people are not afraid of their positive emotions and can express them to other people. You, as an encourager, should be aware of how vital are your reactions to the discouraged person's ideas after he 'took a risk' and told you. This is healthy and a real compliment to you. An enthusiastic, non-evaluative response to his feelings will give this person the courage to take a risk again. Your reaction to what he says may determine whether or not he pursues goals (growth) or give them up (stagnation). A comment uttered in a monotone or a neutral or disinterested facial expression can really turn off someone who is already in doubt about his or her abilities or worth. (Losoncy, 1977) (p. 45).

This demonstrates that a coach must be able to effectively encourage his or her athletes without giving the wrong message. There are numerous examples of a well-meaning coach being taken the wrong way by athletes who are unsure of him or her. Examples of well meaning coaches being taken the wrong way may include: the contents of the encouragement may be used in the wrong setting, the body language used does not match the verbal message, the athlete may not have been paying attention at the time of the message, and the messages are not consistent with what the coach is trying to relay. It may be that the coach is merely trying to encourage the athletes during a game, and instead of encouragement, his or her words are taken as punishment. For example, a coach may yell to a player after he or she has missed a shot, "You have got to be kidding, I can't believe you missed that!" Now this could be taken as "you were so close, you

always make those”, or it could be taken as, “you are really not playing well, you are terrible”. It is discouraging for a player to hear comments from the sidelines when a play is not successfully executed. It may be that the athlete is hard enough on themselves that any comment during the game may be taken as affirmation that the negative feelings that he or she is feeling are true. Unfortunately, most players are this way, so as a coach, it is difficult to give direction, with urgency, without being taken the wrong way. As a coach, there are a number of ways you may communicate with your athletes, during games, when it is important to get your point across. The most important thing is that you are able to communicate, clearly, and effectively. It is important that you are aware of how your athletes will take what you say because during a game there is no time for misunderstandings. Here are some ways to effectively communicate with your athletes during games:

1. Devise a word or set of words that can be a set of instructions in a short amount of time in games. For instance, the word could be just the team’s mascot (i.e. Seahawk). This could represent the time in a game in which the team is to play more defensively because they are winning by a narrow margin, and offense is not a priority at this time. The directions may be even more extensive as to tell the midfielders to play more of a possession game, the defenders to send the ball up field or out of bounds, and the forwards to help in the midfield with the “keep away” game. One word could be much more effective than trying to give out a number of instructions.

2. If the player with whom you need to interact is still on the field, you may either just pull them aside while they are still on the field, and you, on the sideline, and give them short instructions. If it is the whole team with whom you need to communicate, you may use your short meeting with one player to relay the message. This may be a situation where you are winning by a large margin and want to tone down the scoring. That specific player may then relay the message to a player who can relay the message to others. It may be that you are trying to tell your team to stop going forward as much, and a possession game is more appropriate. This type of communication may not be yelled, since it would be considered unsporting behavior to yell out something that may be painfully obvious to the other team. (“Hey we are killing this team, don’t score anymore”).
3. If you find that some of your instructions have either backfired or you do not seem to be getting your point across, you can make a quick substitution to let the player know what you would like to see done differently. This may also be a good time to let another player get a chance, and also find out what the player who was just taken off the field was thinking and feeling.

It is clear that the miscommunication of the coach and the athlete is not always the coach’s fault. The ability to communicate effectively lies in both the communicator and the listener. If a person is not able to listen and effectively hear what is being said, then that person is at fault for not being able to listen just as much as the speaker is at fault for poor communication. It is said that some people can listen, but do not hear, and this may

be the case with some athletes. Unfortunately, many potential benefits of sports for adolescents can be crushed by the well meaning, misunderstood coach. Yet it is at that pre-adolescent and adolescent levels of athletics that the coach is the most important. The coach must, in effect, become similar to a third parent. But, unfortunately for the young athletes, many coaches do not realize the psyche of their athletes and coach only to their own egos. This becomes a problem when the coaches at the youth levels typically are acting on their own fantasies spawned by their viewing of the professional athletic scene.

The parents. The parents of the athlete are crucial factors in an athlete's sport experience. Along with the coach, the parents have the ability to make their child's sport experience a positive one or a negative one. This experience at the adolescent age may be the deciding factor in whether or not the athlete continues competing or quits altogether. Yet, although parents may seem supportive and committed to helping their child have a positive experience, they may have ulterior motives in their actions. Many parents have an unrealistic view of their child's skill level, which may very well conflict with the coach's view. The parent involved may also be putting undue pressure on the child to perform better or to become more vocal about his or her playing time. The coach must make it known to the parents and the athlete that he or she is there for the maximization of the athlete's potential. This type of communication must first start with the athlete, and the coach must take the time to let the athlete know that they are there for them. The coach must then also let the athlete know that they understand that there may be some pressure at home about his or her participation in sport, and that her or she is

there for them if they would like to talk about it. It may very well be that the athlete is expected to participate at a high level to eventually earn a college scholarship to follow in the footsteps of a parent, or to help out financially. In many cases, the athlete is then put under increasing pressure to get more game time, to increase statistics or to perform above their abilities, so that college coaches will notice. A coach, in this case, must try to be understanding of all parties involved, yet not get so involved that a side is taken. The most important thing in this situation must be the coach's decision about how much playing time the athlete will get and how the parents are handled. Making all parties involved may be difficult for you as the coach, but it is the nature of the beast.

Having individual meetings with each athlete is the best way to ease the minds of overzealous parents and athletes who are caught in the middle. These meetings should be done at the beginning of the season so that any unanswered questions may be addressed. The meetings should be done on an individual basis and completely confidentially. The reason for the individual meetings could be to show the athlete that they have the undivided support of the coach or coaches. Dr. Thomas Tutko, a world renowned sport psychologist, suggests that there are a number of things that you, as the coach, may do after meeting with the athlete to ease the mind of the parents.

1. The coach may send out a letter to each parent, introducing themselves, and stating their philosophy of coaching, and coaching plan for the season. This should also be the time to invite the parents to respond. This would show that the coach or coaches have open minds to communication with them.

2. Calling the parents may also show that the coach or coaches are concerned teachers.
3. The coach or coaches may also set up a group meeting with the parents and the athletes to discuss the team's goals for the season, along with coaching philosophies shared by the coaching staff. It is here that the parents may also get to know each other so the environment is not so unknown. This is good in the high school setting since there may be some freshmen on the team. This may also help the overzealous parent to focus on the team and not themselves.

Tutko also suggests some strategies that parents may use in ensuring that their child has a positive sport experience. These strategies may be given to the parents by the coach at the group meeting for parents who are new to the sport scene.

1. Have a positive attitude. This may be conveyed to the child as "I care for you and I care for you as an athlete so I want you to do well, and I am supporting you no matter what." This will enable the child to play freely without pressure from home.
2. After each contest, ask the athlete if they had fun, and if they enjoyed themselves. Listen for the most enjoyable times so that they may be asked about it in the future.
3. Compliment the athlete after each contest on some part of the game that they participate in. Ignore mistakes.

4. In times of failure, point out positives in their behavior. Remind them of the enthusiasm and how much fun the game really is. Try not to get caught up in the pain of losing and emphasize the good points of the game.
5. Let the athlete know that you, as a parent, are part of their support system, and that you will be there for them in whatever they decide to do during the season.
6. Avoid critical and negative behavior. This will not only restrict the athletes, but will limit their creativity. This negativity may then be carried over into their play and cause problems for them and the team. Although most parents do not see themselves being negative, they will admit that they thought it was in the best interest of the child. Parents must be able to self-assess their behaviors by keeping track of their interactions with their children, avoid comparisons with other athletes, and never discuss their child's performance publicly. A parent may also use an outside source (i.e. another parent or friend) to observe them so they may make checks on their behavior.
7. Avoid pressure. Since the child athlete will become the center of attention for the family, and their performance will be under a microscope, undue pressure from the parents is unnecessary. The child athlete may create their own pressure without the pressure from the family. It is not necessary for the parents to talk of importance of the games, to draw attention to themselves at the games, or put emphasis on wins and losses. Many parents do not realize that they are drawing attention to themselves by what they are saying. Many

parents will yell out directions to the players, when this may not be the game plan or part of the athlete's job during that particular game. It is important that the cheering is just that, cheering. Yelling, for instance, " Good job, nice kick", or "Good run, nice idea" to a child is way more productive than, " Get back, cover your mark", or "Don't shoot it at the goalie". So many times, the players are just as hard on themselves than the fans ever could be. Being negative only puts more pressure on the athlete and the team to perform well. The number one priority here is that the child is aware that their parents are supportive in a positive way for the child. The most important thing here is that the parent is a positive role model and a positive guide for their future in sport.

Team cohesion

Team cohesion is a phenomenon that most teams would love to have, yet not all do. Team cohesion can be defined as a process in which a group stays together, and remains together to pursue and achieve goals and objectives. It is a well known fact that individuals who work together, as opposed to separately, accomplish more. For example, on any given team there may be numerous members who are able to score points, yet the coach may ask some of these individuals to assume different responsibilities for the good of the team. This aspect of team play creates "team players" and allows the team to accomplish more. Since there are, typically, many types of personalities on any given team, total cohesion within such a group may be difficult to achieve. For the team to meet the total potential of success, there must be cohesiveness. For this to be achieved,

not all players must be friends off the field, yet they must be able to effectively work together during games to succeed. It has been stated that there is no “I” in the word “team”, and that team is an acronym for, “Together Everyone Accomplishes More”. It also has been found that as the number of team members increases, the team cohesion decreases. It is suggested then, that coaches who want to maintain team cohesion must limit constant turnover of the team members, and to keep the number of athletes on each team, according to the sport, relatively small. This also means that continuing to add players to the roster is not advised either. For instance, the team may start training prior to the beginning of school. For the athletes who have given up summer time vacation for training, it is a bonding experience. The athletes who have shown up early, would then have to endure extra training together. This experience of training, and experiencing “pain and the burn” of fitness together tends to bond individuals together. These athletes will have spent more time together, in difficult times (i.e. hard physical work) and will have gotten to know each other. To allow more players to join in after this phenomenon has taken place would destroy the cohesion already built by the existing players. This is also a delicate subject in dealing with injured athletes. Although the team has bonded with the now injured one not allowing him or her to be a part of the team (i.e. attending roadtrips on the team bus) once he or she is injured, is detrimental to that athlete’s confidence and need to feel a part of the group. It must be made clear that everyone is a part of the team, and being injured is no exception. Emotional support may very well be just as important as physical support for both the players who is injured and the team. It

is also very beneficial for the recovery of the injured person, to know that his or her injury does not mean that he or she is not part of the team anymore.

It is said that the morale and cohesion of a team is dependent on the coach. This may be true, yet it is the players and how they relate to each other that are the deciding factors as to whether there is cohesion on the team or not. Building team morale and cohesiveness is an important, but not easy, task. Mel Lorback, women's soccer coach at West Chester State University, believes that the proper development of team cohesion begin with each individual which then affects the group. This cooperation among the individual players then manifests itself into group motivation, mass emotional commitment, and spiritual cohesion. Lorback believes that there are levels that each player must achieve before the optimal cohesiveness can take place. These levels are: identification, incorporation and emotional commitment. Identification means that the player must be able to identify with the team. Incorporation means that each player must add admired aspects of other team members to their own behavior. And, finally, emotional commitment relates to each individual player actually becoming what they had hoped to be for the season, and being able to add positive aspects to the group.

Conclusions, references, and suggested reading

There are different coaching styles available to coaches. Whether you are authoritarian, militaristic type, the democratic type or a combination of both, whichever you prefer, you must have your own style. With each style comes different ways to communicate with the athletes and parents of the athletes. Communication with the athletes on your team and the parents of those athletes is extremely important at the high

school level. This communication needs to happen from the beginning of the season, all the way through the end. Although it is ultimately important to be able to effectively communicate with the athletes, gaining the parents' trust and open communication can prove to be a valuable tool. Not only will you have a great relationship with your players, you will also have the backing of the parents. It is amazing how quickly good news travels among parents on a sideline.

Encouragement and verbal reward are also very important in letting your athletes know that you believe in them and their abilities. It is all too common to hear a coach, or parent yell out unhelpful messages during games. Unfortunately, many times, the messages yelled have not had a lot of thought put into them, and can be more harmful than helpful. Make sure that you give directions, helpful cues, or encouragement to your athletes, not anger, or discouraging statements. If you truly are unhappy, save it for a more private setting, like the sideline, than for all to hear. Remember, an athlete will be harder on himself or herself, than you could ever be. Your disappointment from the sideline only adds to the frustration. Think before you speak.

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APPENDIX B

February 4, 1998

Evaluator X
1234 Main Street.
Cupertino, CA 95014

Dear Evaluator X,

Thank you so much for taking the time to read my manual. I know that you are very busy and this means a lot to me.

Basically, what you need to do is read the manual, complete the questionnaire, and then send the questionnaire back to me in the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided. You may keep the manual; I do not need it back. Hopefully, the manual will be helpful to you in the future.

For reasons of anonymity, please do not put your name on the questionnaire.

The turn around time for this is two weeks.

Thank you,

Lisa

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE MANUAL:

“So, you are the new soccer coach: A psychological approach to coaching”

Please circle which group best describes you:

High school coach

College coach

Sport psychologist

Please answer the following questions as directly as possible. Circle the number that best describes your answer. You are encouraged to write comments in the space provided below. If more room is needed for comments, please use the back of the sheet.

After reviewing the manual:

- 1. Do you think that the manual clearly shows the importance of coaches using sport psychology techniques?**

**strongly
agree**

1

agree

2

undecided

3

disagree

4

**strongly
disagree**

5

Comments:

- 2. Do you think that the manual meets the goal of educating the new soccer coach?**

**strongly
agree**

1

agree

2

undecided

3

disagree

4

**strongly
disagree**

5

Comments:

3. Do you think the material in the manual adequately covers the topics of:

A. Coaching females?

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Comments:

B. Goal setting and motivation?

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Comments:

C. Competition anxiety?

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Comments:

D. Coping techniques for competition anxious athletes?

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Comments:**E. Problematic athletes?**

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Comments:**F. Communication?**

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Comments:

G. Team cohesion?

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Comments:**4. Do you believe the manual can be helpful to all coaches?**

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Comments:**5. Do you believe the illustrations are understandable?**

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Comments:

6. Do you think the writing style of the manual is understandable for coaches?

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5

Comments:

7. Do you think the length of the manual should be:

Shortened	kept as is	lengthened
1	2	3

Comments:

8. Is there any further information or comments that you believe would be helpful to include in the manual in terms of topics covered?

Thank you so much for your time and efforts! Your comments and answers are greatly appreciated. Lisa

APPENDIX D

Subject: thesis stuff
Date: Mon, 16 Mar 1998 19:57:40 +0000
From: Lisa Best SOCCER11@pacbell.net
Organization: Pacific Bell Internet Services
To:

Just a reminder if you have not sent your evaluation back to get it in as soon as possible. Since all of the responses are anonymous, I am sending this little note to everyone. If you have sent your response in, thank you so much.

I am really excited to get this done and move forward. Thank you so much for your time.

Lisa Best
San Jose State University Graduate Student

IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)

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