

Sport Psychology.

**Discuss the statement:
Psychology has a significant part to play in sporting success**

To answer the big question you will need to be able to complete the following tasks:

- 1. Evaluate the different personality theories and discuss how attitude can have an impact on performance (AO3)**
Pages 2
- 2. Explain how goal setting can have a positive impact on an athlete's performance (AO2)**
Page 14
- 3. Describe the relationship between stress, arousal and anxiety (AO1)**
Page 24
- 4. Explain why sport has no place for aggressive behaviour (AO2)**
Page 36
- 5. Outline the key components of team cohesion (AO1) and explain why leadership in a team is required for sporting success (AO2).**
Page 43
- 6. Analyse the reasons different sports people attribute for the variety of outcomes (AO3)**
Page 56

1. Personality and attitude

Question

Evaluate the different personality theories and discuss how attitude can have an impact on performance (AO3)

A. Content

- Personality
- Trait (Eysenck, Cattell) – stable and innate
- Social learning (Bandura) – learn how to act from others
- Interactionist (Lewin, Festinger) – learn from others with own traits
- The relationship between personality theories and sport
- Extrovert, introvert, stable and neurotic, Type A and Type B
- Possible impacts of personality types on sporting performance and choice of sport
- Personality profiling including: Observation; coach; Questionnaires; Cattell's 16PF, SCAT ; Interviews; Profile of mood states (POMS)
- The benefits and limitations of personality profiling
- Origins of attitudes: prejudice and stereotyping
- The components of attitudes: triadic model (cognitive, affective and behavioural)
- Changing attitudes including: negative to positive e.g. use of cognitive dissonance, persuasion.

B. Knowledge and Understanding

Introduction

Sports psychology is the study of people and their behaviours in sport. For both the athlete and coach this area is as important as physical training and performance analysis. Success is being attributed to motivation, focus and being in the zone, as well as team cohesion.

Personality

This is the unique pattern of behaviour and characteristics an athlete displays, some psychologists believe success or failure in sport is determined by personality.



“Personality is the more or less stable and enduring organisation of a person’s character, temperament, intellect and physique which determines the unique adjustment to the environment” (Eysenck).

There are a number of theories that try to explain personality and how it can influence participation and performance in sport. The main theories are:

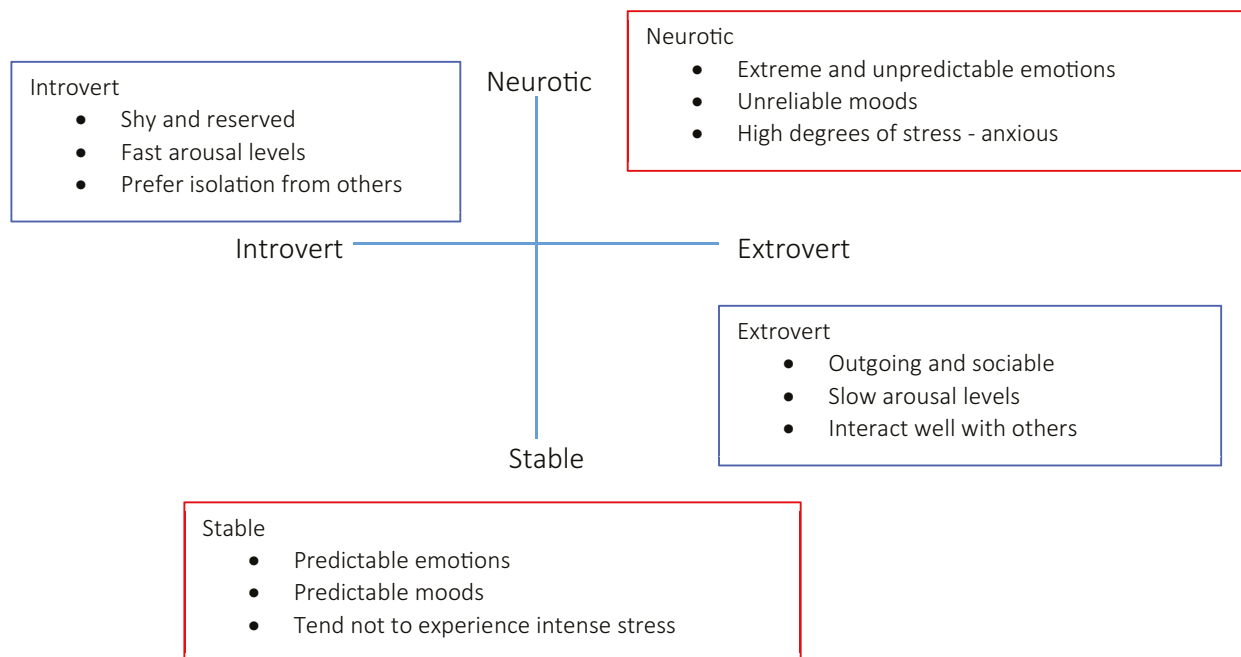
- Trait Theory – (Eysenck)
- Social Learning Theory – (Bandura)
- Interactionist Approach
- Biological Theory – (Sheldon)

Trait Theory (Eysenck)

Personality is inherent and is within the athletes genes. This theory maintains that all behaviour is innate and a person has a natural tendency to act in any given situation. These behaviours are consistent and can be measured through questionnaires (CASTELLS 16 PF). The problem with this theory is that it does not take into account adapting behaviour to the environment or that behaviour is not always predictable.

Trait theory has two main dimensions to personality:

- Introvert-extrovert dimension
- Stable-neurotic dimension



Eysenck proposed that there were 4 personality types:

6. Extrovert and stable *e.g. scrum half, hooker*
7. Extrovert and neurotic
8. Introvert and stable *e.g. winger*
9. Introvert and neurotic

Other Trait theorists propose that there are two types of personality:

Type A	Type B
Highly competitive Desire to succeed Need to be in control Prone to stress	Non-competitive Lacks desire to succeed Does not enjoy control Less prone to stress

Social learning Theory (Bandura)

Personality is learned through environmental experiences and the influence of others. It is therefore not stable but constantly changing as a result of social situations. Personality evolves through modelling and reinforcement; modelling themselves on athletes they can relate to and behaviour being positively reinforced and therefore repeated. For example, a novice sportsperson may be inspired by the positive attitude of the more experienced players in training. They then copy this behaviour and receive positive comments from the coach.

Bandura identified four main stages of observational learning:

Attention

- Learn through observation
- Certain levels of respect for the model

Retention

- Must be able to remember skill or behaviour and recall it

Motor reproduction

- Must be physically able to perform the task observed
- Time to practice

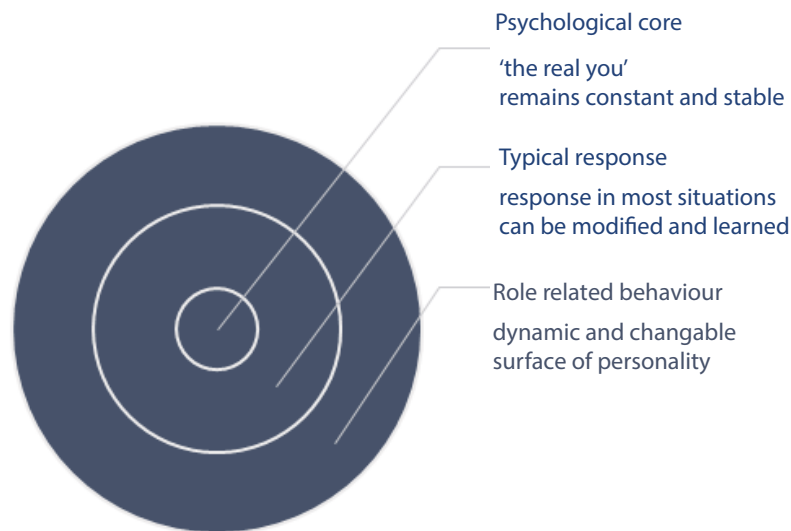
Motivational response

- Athlete needs to be motivated or they will not go through the first 3 stages
- Motivation is dependent upon reinforcement

However, this theory does not take into account genetically inherent factors and therefore offers one view into why there are individual differences in the participation and performance.

Interactionist approach

Personality is a result of inherent traits and learned experiences. It is widely agreed that it is a combination of both theories that explains behaviour. Hollander (1967) used the concentric ring theory to explain the interactionist approach.



The boundary line of each layer gets wider as you get closer to the centre of the model, which shows that each layer is harder to enter. As you move closer to the centre, your 'real' personality begins to surface. For example, you may get angry and shout during a football match when you are deliberately fouled because it is a display of gamesmanship. However, you may be quiet and shy when you meet someone for the first time because you don't want to come across the wrong way so you change according to your environment. These are your typical responses to these situations and are often a good indicator of your psychological core.

Biological Theory - Sheldon

Sheldon noted that personality was categorised into three personalities based on physical make-up. Personality was demonstrated based on physical attributes and the relationship between build and behaviour. The three categories include:

1. **Endomorph**
2. **Ectomorph**
3. **Mesomorph**

1. Endomorph

The Endomorph is physically quite 'round', and is typified as the 'barrel of fun' person.

They tend to have:

- Wide hips and narrow shoulders, (pear-shaped)
- Quite a lot of fat spread across the body

Psychologically, the endomorph is:

Sociable, fun-loving, tolerant, even-tempered, relaxed

2. Ectomorph

The Ectomorph is a form of opposite of the Endomorph. Physically, they tend to have:

- Narrow shoulders and hips
- A thin and narrow chest and abdomen
- Very little body fat

Even though they may eat as much as the endomorph, they never seem to put on weight (much to the endomorph's chagrin). Psychologically they are:

Self-conscious, introverted, inhibited, socially anxious, intense, thoughtful

3. Mesomorph

The mesomorph is somewhere between the round endomorph and the thin ectomorph.

Physically, they have the more 'desirable' body, and have:

- Broad shoulders and narrow waist (wedge-shaped)
- Muscular body
- Very little body fat

They are generally considered as 'well-proportioned'. Psychologically, they are: adventurous, courageous, assertive, competitive, risk taker, extroverted.

Personality profiling

There has been a large amount of research to try to demonstrate a relationship between personality and sporting behaviour, success and participation.

Like physical training and biomechanical analysis is it also important to psychological profile, in order to identify strengths and improve limitations. The assessment can be achieved through:

- Interviews
- Questionnaires
- Coach observations

A combination of the above methods will help identify behaviour and personalities. The careful analysis of results could aid motivation and adherence.

Questionnaires

Castell's 16PF questionnaire (Trait Theory)

This is a test that measures normal personality (trait)

Sport Competition Anxiety Test (Martens 1977)

This test attempts to predict behaviour in a competitive situation (trait)

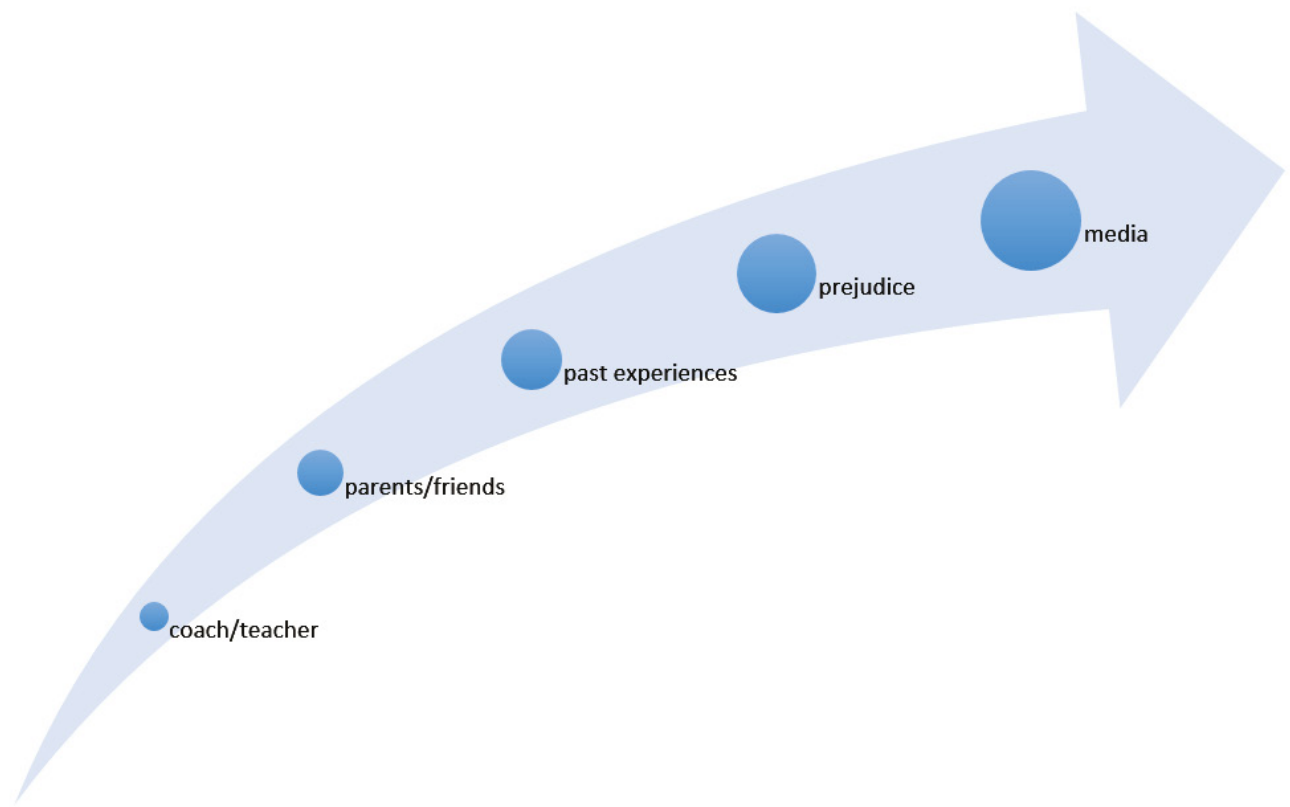
Attitude

Introduction:

Attitude is a learned behavioural predisposition, which is linked to personality. Attitudes are unstable, learned and can be changed or controlled.

Formation of Attitudes:

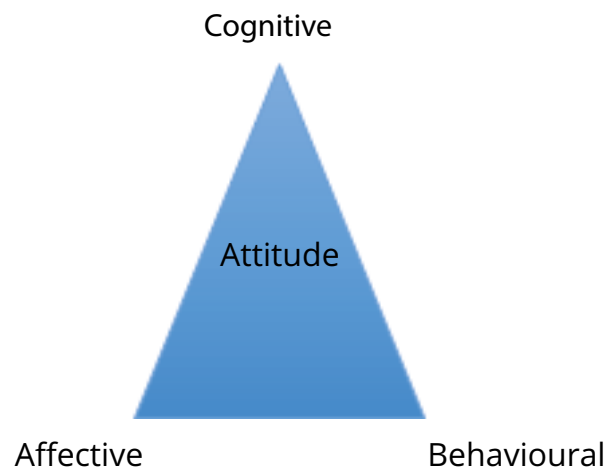
Attitudes are mainly formed through experiences. For example, an enjoyable experience in PE is likely to promote a positive attitude. The process of mixing and relating to people is known as socialisation. There are several factors that influence attitudes:



There are three components of attitude:

- **Cognitive** - Knowledge and beliefs are formed through past experiences and what we have learned from others e.g. I believe that rugby training keeps me fit.
- **Affective** - Feelings and emotions. Depend on past experiences such as satisfaction, enjoyment, fear etc. e.g. I enjoy training.
- **Behavioural** - Intended behaviour e.g. I regularly attend training.

The relationship between these three components is known as the Triadic Model of Attitude



Measuring Attitude

Attitudes can be measured directly or indirectly. When measured directly people are asked questions or respond to statements that describe **beliefs, feelings or behaviours** associated with the topic we are interested in.

Direct measurement of attitudes is done in **THREE** main ways.

- LIKERT SCALES
- SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL SCALES
- THURSTONE SCALES

Indirect measurement of attitudes is done by observing behaviour or measuring physiological changes/responses.

Cognitive Dissonance Theory (Festinger)

If a person holds two ideas that oppose and conflict each other an element of discomfort arises. Emotional conflict is called dissonance. To reduce this feeling of dissonance one of the conflicting ideas needs to be reduced, therefore changing attitude. For example, missing training won't matter as the session is only a fitness session and I'm one of the fittest in the team.

Changing Attitude

Impacting upon any one of the components can alter attitude;

- Cognitive - updating knowledge or providing a person with new information can change the **cognitive component** e.g. a coach provides evidence that a new weight training regime produces larger gains than the traditional methods the sportsperson currently uses.
- Affective - Providing a person with new and positive experiences can modify the **affective component** e.g. moving a sprinter up into a more talented training group.
- Behavioural - success and reinforcement. If a skill is simplified or if some form of guidance is used to make execution easier, the **behavioural component** of attitude can be changed e.g. a teacher spends time building the confidence of a gymnast by going through the stages of a handspring.

Persuasive Communication

It must also be remembered that that motivation, personality and all aspects of acquisition of skill have an impact on these three components.



In the coaching environment there are several factors that need to be considered before someone will change their attitude:

1. Persuader needs to be an expert, trustworthy and understand the recipient
2. Message clear, unambiguous and balanced
3. Recipient open to change, accepting and understands
4. Situation safe and non-threatening

D. Overview - Personality and Attitude

- Sports psychology is the study of people and their behaviours in sport
- **Personality** is the unique pattern of behaviour and characteristics a person/athlete displays. Some psychologists believe success or failure on the sports pitch is determined by personality
- There are a number of theories and approaches that try to explain personality and how it can influence participation and performance
- **Trait Theory (Eysenck)** - Personality is inherent and is within the athletes genes, inherited from their parents
- **Social learning Theory (Bandura)**- Personality is learned through environmental experiences and the influence of others
- **Biological Theory (Sheldon)** - Personality was categorised into three personalities based on physical make-up
- **Interactionist approach** - Personality is a result of inherent traits and learned experiences
- **Personality profiling** - There has been a large amount of research to try to demonstrate a relationship between personality and sporting behaviour, success and participation
- Attitudes are mainly formed through experiences. For example, an enjoyable experience in PE is likely to promote a positive attitude
- There are three components of attitude: Cognitive: knowledge and beliefs about the subject; Affective: positive or negative emotions and feelings toward the object; Behavioural: the intended behaviour towards the subject
- **Cognitive Dissonance Theory** (Festinger): If a person holds two ideas that oppose and conflict each other an element of discomfort arises. Emotional conflict is called dissonance
- **Persuasive Communication**, in the coaching environment there are several factors that need to be considered before someone will change their attitude: The persuader needs to be an expert; Message needs to be clear; Recipient needs to be open to change; Situation needs to be safe and non-threatening.

2. Goal setting and motivation

Question

Explain how goal setting can have a positive impact on an athlete's performance (AO2)

A. Content

- Characteristics of goal setting - SMART approach (specific, measurable, agreed, realistic, time-phased)
- Reasons for setting goals
- Types of goals: performance, outcome and process orientated
- Long, medium and short-term goals
- Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; Tangible and intangible rewards
- The different motives for involvement in exercise and sport
- Achievement motivation; links self-confidence and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977).
- The need to achieve (NAch) and the need to avoid failure (NAF)
- Competitiveness: sport-specific achievement motivation and its links with competitive trait anxiety.

B. Knowledge and Understanding

Introduction

Sports psychology is the study of people and their behaviour in sport. For both the athlete and coach this area is as important as physical training and performance analysis. Success is being attributed to motivation, focus and being in the zone, as well as team cohesion.

Goal-setting

Having goals allows participants of all abilities to stay focused, maintain motivation and help with exercise adherence. Setting goals offers athletes milestones to success and less active people the opportunities to improve their health and well-being. For example, a goal could be to compete in a 5k within the month (short-term) before planning to run a marathon the following year (long-term).

Goals:

Give direction – achieving something that is really wanted

Offer milestones to achievement

Adherence – staying on task to achieve the goal

Limitless dreams – maintaining focus and motivation

Success

Goals need to offer hope and the main strategy for setting them is to produce SMART targets. SMART targets give the goals direction and make them realistic, thus making the goals more achievable and measurable.

To make the athletes goals achievable, targets need to be SMART: specific, measurable, agreed, realistic and time phased targets.

- **S**pecific – to the needs of the individual goal
- **M**easurable – clear progress and direction
- **A**greed – discussed and shared
- **R**ealistic- achievable to maintain motivation
- **T**imed – target that gives a milestone

Practical Application

- Goal setting should start with identification of a person's long-term goal e.g. to represent their country in the next world championships which are to be held in 12 months' time, or to achieve a rating of 3.1 in tennis.
- This can then be broken down into an intermediate/medium-term goal (e.g. to play in sufficient competitions that give opportunities to play against players with better ratings), and short-term goals (e.g. to improve the second serve as that is an area of weakness) all of which lead to the achievement of the long term goal.
- Targets/goals must be reviewed regularly.

Duration of each cycle of Goal Setting

The duration of the cycles is very much dependent on the sport, and the competition the athlete is training for. The following timescales reflect this.

A microcycle is usually between 1 to 14 days Short Term goals

A mesocycle is usually between 2 weeks to 6 months Medium Term Goals

A macrocycle is usually between 1 to 4 years Long Term Goals

Mental preparation

To be able to perform optimally athletes need to be physically fit, technically sound and mentally in tune. The need to stay focused and manage emotions is vital to being successful.

'Getting into the zone' requires the athlete to be mentally in the right place. It requires the 4 C's.

Confidence – self-belief in own ability. Having confidence allows the performer to focus on essential tasks. For example, a 5000m runner is confident that they have completed enough training to win their race.

Control – control of the emotions (arousal and anxiety). This is the ability of the performer to remain in control of their emotions when put under pressure. For example, a 5000m runner needs to remain in control when they find themselves 'boxed in' with one lap remaining in order for them to win the race.

Concentration - focused attention. If a performer concentrates on the situation at hand, they become absorbed in the competition, directing their attention to the right cues to perform well. For example, a 5000m runner would need to concentrate on the number of laps they have left and where the opposing threats are ensuring that they accelerate at the right time to win the race.

Commitment - motivation and adherence. For example, a 5000m runner is committed to long training sessions.

Assessing and controlling the 4C's can positively benefit psychological mind-set and optimize your performance. The following strategies can help to improve the 4C'S:

- set clear performance goals
- practice imagery and visualizations
- provide positive feedback and praise
- use positive self-talk
- practice relaxation techniques.

Imagery and mental rehearsal

Imagery and mental rehearsal can help athlete's motivation to succeed; they offer visualisation techniques imagining successful performances. The performers can picture skills and techniques in their mind before and during performance. For example, a triple jumper may imagine themselves performing a perfect jump in their mind. They may repeat key words associated with a successful execution of the jump using self-talk.

Motivation

Motivation can be defined as the drive to take part and persist in an activity, it is a significant factor related to sports adherence. There are two main types of motivation:

- Intrinsic internal factors enjoyment
- Extrinsic external factors rewards

Intrinsic motivation

Participating in an activity for personal enjoyment without receiving an external reward for the activity itself. Taking part in sport for the 'feel good factor' is intrinsic motivation, a sense of **accomplishment**. Also intrinsic motivation can be a development of **knowledge** and desire to improve as well as an adrenaline rush (**stimulation**).

Extrinsic motivation

Participating in an activity due to an external influence, this can be in the form of tangible (physical reward – money, trophy) or intangible (non-physical – praise or coach gratification) rewards. For the athlete to stay motivated rewards need to be used effectively.

It is important that extrinsic motivation is used to increase intrinsic motivation by offering information for improvement. If extrinsic motivator is used as a control mechanism (large sums of money), it has a detrimental effect on intrinsic motivation.

Research has shown that there are **4 main motives** as to why people participate in sport and exercise. These are:

- physical well-being
- psychological well-being
- improvement of performance
- assertive achievement i.e. accomplishing personal challenges and gaining status.

Achievement motivation

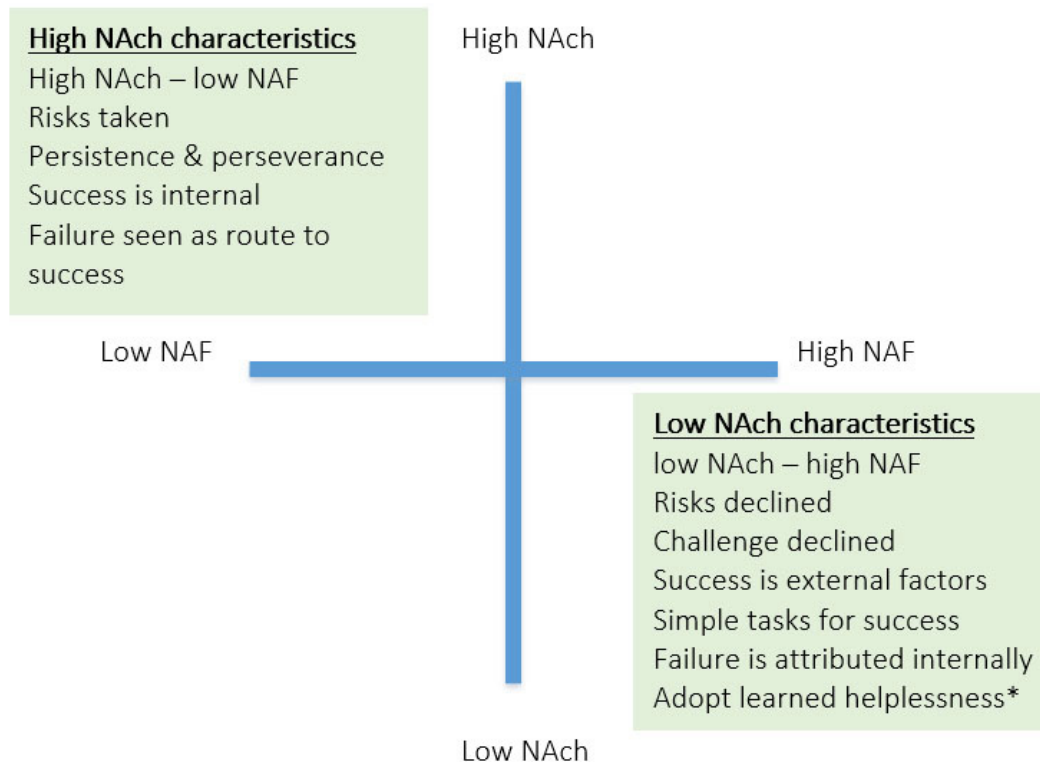
Achievement motivation is the concept that personality is linked to competitiveness, it centres on the extent to which an individual is motivated to attain success. There seems to be several types of goals against which success can be judged:

- Mastery or Task Goal – self-improvement **Performance goals** e.g. PB in athletics
- Ego or Ability Goals – comparison with rivals **Outcome goals** e.g. winning the match
- Social Goals – social reinforcement e.g. approval by team mates, parents or coaches



Achievement motivation can be expressed as, the personality trait that is activated by any given situation. The situation comprise of the probability of success and the intrinsic value of success. Atkinson and McClelland (1976) stated that in any challenging situation, everyone would have both a '**need to achieve**' (NAch) and a '**need to avoid failure**' (NAF). Whichever feeling is the stronger will determine whether the task is accepted or declined.

The achievement motivation personality traits can be seen below:



**Learned helplessness is the belief that failure is inevitable and the individual has no control over the outcome.*

Research has shown that if the chance of success is 50/50 and the incentive value is high NACH, personality traits are demonstrated. In contrast performers with low NACH will experience greater anxiety and experience learned helplessness.

Practical Application

In sporting situations achievement motivation theory helps to explain performers' behaviour. For example why some people will take chances in the bid to succeed, while others will 'play safe' to avoid failure.

SPORTING EXAMPLES

NAF behaviour – a goal shooter who only attempts shots that are close to the post in netball.

NACH behaviour – a tennis player who attempts to serve an 'ace' on their second serve

when they are a break point down.

A coach wants an athlete with high NACH and low NAF. They can increase NACH behaviour by:

- using positive reinforcement to increase feelings of pride and satisfaction
- setting tasks that have a choice of difficulty so that everyone can achieve
- trying not to put low achievers into situations where defeat is inevitable
- choosing tasks that everyone can achieve, but that are still sufficiently challenging
- focusing any negative feedback on effort rather than ability
- gradually increasing task difficulty as self-esteem improves.

Competitiveness – sports specific achievement motivation

Competitiveness means the motivation to achieve in sport. Research suggests that athletes favour performance goals and non-athletes outcome goals (Sport Orientation Questionnaire SOQ). It is important to identify the link between competitiveness, confidence and goal setting.

Self-confidence

Self-confidence is defined as a person's belief that they have the ability to meet the demands of the sport/activity. High NACH personality traits offer a self-belief and coaches can influence athletes perceptions positively. Research regularly shows the most consistent difference between elite and less successful athletes is a greater self-confidence.

Bandura called situation specific self-confidence, **self-efficacy**

Self-confidence – general and stable personality trait

Self-efficacy – specific to situation and variable

Self-efficacy will determine the choice of activity, level of effort and degree of persistence. High self-efficacy athletes are more likely to pursue challenging goals, cope with pain, and persevere through setbacks.

Self-efficacy can be developed and changed through four major types of information:

Performance accomplishments <i>Strategies to improve self-efficacy</i>	Success in previous experience – in difficult tasks and early success Dependable information – facts and achievement independently is better Best effect on improving self-efficacy <i>Tasks should be appropriate with a high probability of success</i>
Vicarious experiences <i>Strategies to improve self-efficacy</i>	Or modelling – learn by watching successful performance of difficult task. This can reduce anxiety as it demonstrates a task can be completed Demonstration is very important <i>Modelling with peers not experts</i>
Verbal persuasion <i>Strategies to improve self-efficacy</i>	Encourage performers self-efficacy Effects are less than performance accomplishment and vicarious experiences Forms of feedback, team talks, encouragement <i>Feedback – consistent, accurate, specific, realistic, progressive</i>
Emotional arousal <i>Strategies to improve self-efficacy</i>	How you interpret arousal. If you feel somatic changes it might reduce self-efficacy and confidence Performers with less confidence will be hindered by arousal <i>Anxiety reducing techniques should therefore increase self-efficacy</i> <i>Most difficult to change arousal levels. Knowledge and information about activity and feelings</i>

Effective **goal setting** can increase self-efficacy as long as the goals are SMART and they must be individual. Also **routines** ensure individuals achieve control over arousal; these routines are sometimes linked to **mental rehearsal**, recalling performance accomplishments.

C. Overview Goal setting and motivation

- Successful sportspeople set goals to help them to focus attention and maintain motivation
- Goals: Give direction; Offer milestones; Adherence; Limitless dreams; Success
- SMART target give the goals direction and makes them realistic. This makes the goals more achievable and measurable
- Imagery and mental rehearsal can help athlete's motivation to succeed; they offer visualisation techniques imaging successful performances
- Taking part in sport for the 'feel good factor' is intrinsic motivation, a sense of **accomplishment**
- Participating in an activity due to an external influence, this can be in the form of tangible (physical reward – money, trophy) or intangible (non-physical – praise or coach gratification) rewards
- Achievement motivation is the concept that personality is linked to competitiveness, it centres on the extent to which an individual is motivated to attain success
- Atkinson and McClelland (1976) stated that in any challenging situation, everyone would have both a '**need to achieve**' (NACH) and a '**need to avoid failure**' (NAF).
- Learned helplessness is the belief that failure is inevitable and the individual has no control over outcome
- **Self-confidence** is defined as a person's belief that they have the ability to meet the demands of the sport/activity
- Bandura called situation specific self-confidence, **self-efficacy**
- Self-efficacy – specific to situation and variable
- Effective goal setting can increase self-efficacy as long as the goals are SMART and they must be individual

3. Stress, arousal and anxiety

Question

Describe the relationship between stress, arousal and anxiety (AO1)

A. Content

- Definitions of and relationship between stress, arousal and anxiety
- Theories of arousal : Drive theory, inverted-U and catastrophe theories
- The different motives for involvement in exercise and sport
- Zone of optimal functioning (ZOF) and peak flow experiences
- Arousal and personality: the effect of the audience
- Trait and state anxiety
- Somatic techniques; bio feedback, breathing and relaxation
- Cognitive techniques; such as goal setting, use of imagery and self-talk
- Physiological; monitoring heart rate, breathing rate, muscle response, sweating and hormonal levels
- Psychological; Sport competition anxiety test (SCAT) and the competitive state anxiety inventory (CSAI-2)
- Observational; behaviours.

B. Knowledge and Understanding

Introduction

Sports psychology is the study of people and their behaviours in sport. For both the athlete and coach this area is as important as physical training and performance analysis. Success is being attributed to motivation, focus and being in the zone, as well as team cohesion.

Stress

This is a stimulus resulting in a positive or negative response to a specific situation. It produces both physiological and psychological symptoms. According to Rainer Martens, psychological stress has robbed more athletes of physical energy, victory and enjoyment in sport than probably any other factor.

“a pattern of negative physiological states and psychological responses occurring in situations where people perceive threats to their well being, which they may be unable to meet” Lazarus (1984)

Stress can therefore be explained as two forms:

- **Eustress** – this is positive and gives a feeling of fulfilment and arousal. It can increase focus, attention and skill level. Some athletes actively seek and need stressful situations.
- **Distress** - this is a negative form of stress and in extreme cases causes anxiety and apprehension. It tends to be detrimental to sporting performance.

Effects of stress on performance

Depending upon the athlete's level of ability, level of competition or personality stress can have a big impact on performance. If the athlete perceives the demand as a challenge (Eustress) or as a threat (Distress) the result will be an increase in motivation

and performance compared with an increase in worry and a reduction in performance respectively. For example, in a netball match the score may be tied with ten seconds remaining. The goal shooter has just been awarded a penalty shot. She has been given a demand placed upon her which she perceives as either positive or negative. If the goal shooter views this as positive, she will see this as a challenge which will then in turn motivate her to succeed in her performance. However, if she perceives the demand as negative or too great, her levels of distress will increase, reducing the chance of the shot being scored.

Causes of stress

Athletes will respond differently in the same situation, here are some of the main causes of stress:

Internal – *illness, sleep, Type A personality*

External – *environment, other people, occupational*

Anxiety

This is a negative emotional state associated with stress, feelings of worry, nervousness and apprehension. The causes of anxiety are largely the same as those associated with stress. There are two main types of anxiety:

- **Trait anxiety** – this is the personality core, and consistent worry/behaviour regardless of situation
- **State anxiety** – this is changeable and varies depending upon the situation. For example, if you get nervous before a dance production but not a team game, you are showing state anxiety in relation to dance. It is a temporary mood state and it comprises of two types:
 - **Cognitive state anxiety** – amount of worry
 - **Somatic state anxiety** – is the physiological changes due to perception

Effects of anxiety on sporting performance

When an athlete experiences worry and negative thoughts (cognitive state anxiety) it causes decision making to become poor and concentration levels to drop, increasing the number of errors. For example, missing a vital tackle in football in the last five minutes of the match, which then leads to a goal being scored. This can be monitored by the increase in somatic state anxiety responses, which include an increase in heart rate, sweating and blood pressure. Some of these symptoms of anxiety are beneficial to sporting performance, but if the athlete perceives them as happening because they are unable to meet the demands of the activity they further increase cognitive state anxiety.

Arousal

Arousal is referred to as a psychological state of alertness and anticipation that prepares the body for action. Individual athletes have different levels of arousal and it is either negative or positive but neutral. For example, when a boxer enters the ring for the first time they need to be aroused and want to perform. Under-arousal may cause them to become too relaxed and not motivated to perform. Levels of arousal start to increase and as a result there is an increase in their performance until it reaches an optimum level. During the fight the boxer starts to make mistakes and performance starts to decrease. This causes more mistakes to be made. Too much arousal has caused their performance to decrease.

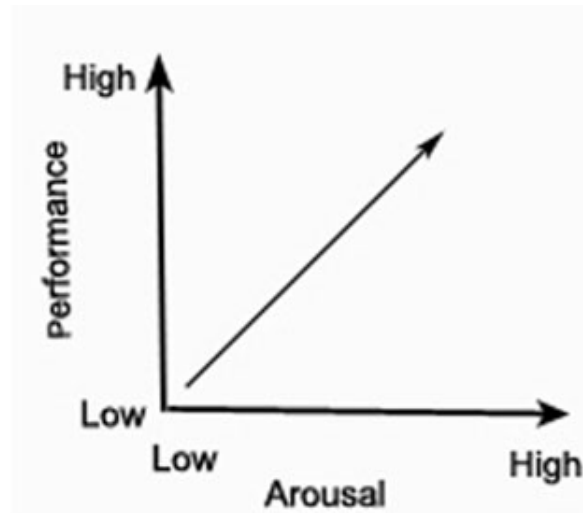
Theories of Arousal

Sporting performance and its relationship with arousal can be demonstrated by several theories:

- Drive Theory
- Inverted U hypothesis
- Catastrophe Theory
- Zone of Optimal Functioning (ZOF) Theory

Drive Theory

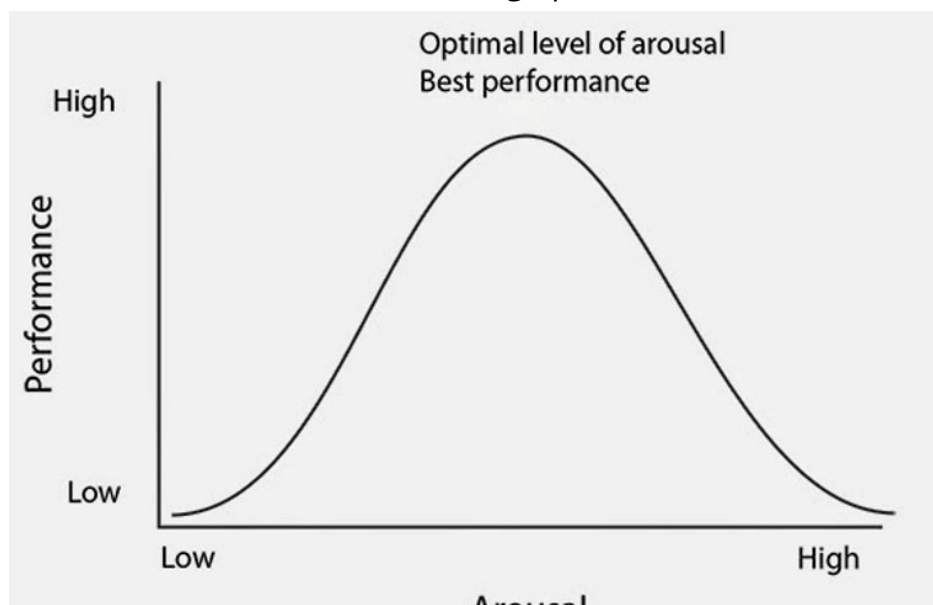
This is a linear relationship between arousal and performance, as arousal increases so does the performance.



However evidence suggests that this theory is only relevant up to a point, after which an athlete can be over aroused and performance decreases.

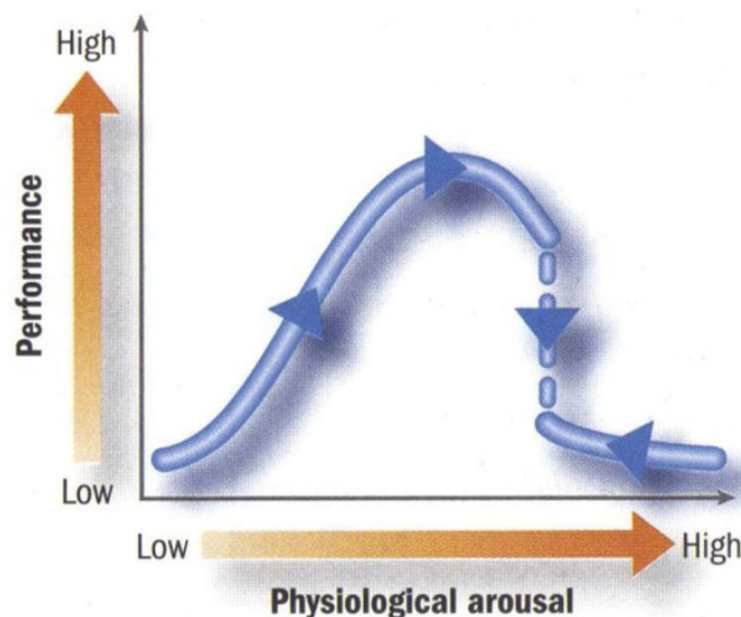
Inverted U hypothesis

This theory states that there is an optimal level of arousal (which will differ from sport to sport and athlete to athlete). Performance levels will be at their highest at the optimal point of arousal. If arousal is too low or too high performance will be lower.



Catastrophe Theory

This theory differs from the inverted U hypothesis by linking arousal and anxiety. If the athlete is experiencing high levels of **cognitive state anxiety** as arousal rises towards the athlete's threshold, the athlete experiences a dramatic drop in performance. This theory does also rely on the need for both arousal and cognitive anxiety to achieve optimal performance.



Zone of Optimal Functioning (ZOF) (Hanin)

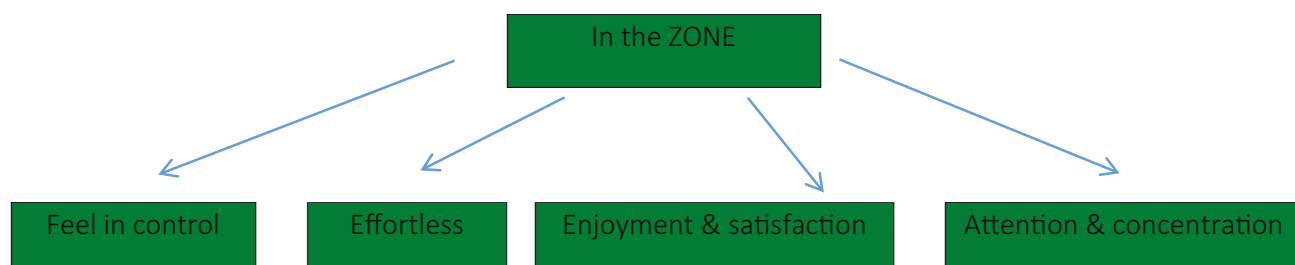
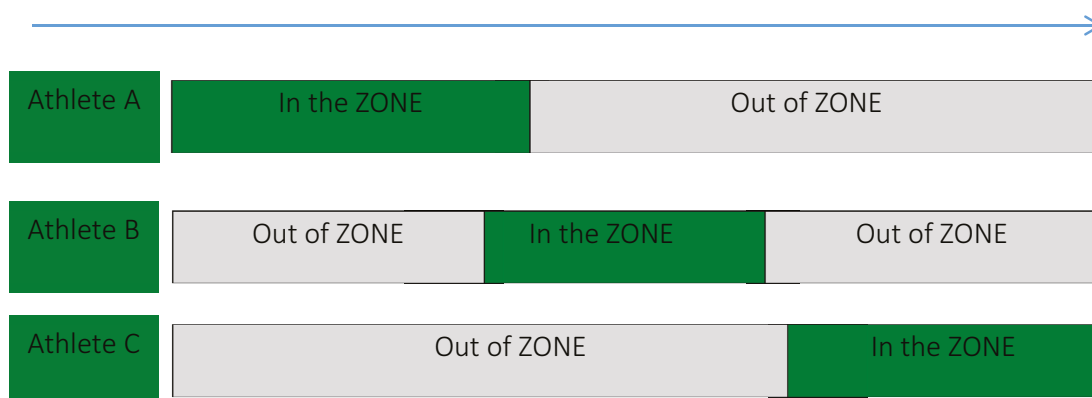
The relationship of stress, anxiety and arousal all impact upon motivation and the improvement of performance up to a point. However optimal performance has many other variables that impact upon arousal and the individual:

Personality	Task	Stage of learning
Extroverts perform well when aroused	Simple/Gross performed better in high arousal levels	Autonomous stage perform better in high arousal levels
Introverts perform best at low levels of arousal	Complex/Fine performed better in low arousal levels	Cognitive and associative stages perform better in low arousal levels

Unlike the inverted U hypothesis ZOF states that individuals perform optimally at different arousal levels depending upon the above factors, therefore not all athletes optimal performance is at the top of the inverted U.



Increased level of arousal



	Personality	Task type	Stage of Learning
Athlete A Low Zone of functioning (low arousal)	INTROVERT	SIMPLE / GROSS SKILLS, E.G. SHOT PUT	COGNITIVE/ ASSOCIATE PHASE
Athlete C High Zone of functioning (high arousal)	EXTROVERT	COMPLEX / FINE SKILLS, E.G. SPIN BOWLING	AUTONOMOUS

Effects of arousal on sporting performance

If the performer perceives arousal levels to be positive it will have a positive impact on performance (getting in the zone). However if the changes are viewed as negative it will increase both somatic and cognitive state anxiety. **Choking** occurs in high-pressure situations and this heightened state causes extreme nerves and performance catastrophe.

Controlling stress, arousal and anxiety

Cognitive anxiety management

Cognitive anxiety is the psychological thoughts, nerves and worry that a performer has about their lack of ability to complete the task.

Progressive muscular relaxation is a technique used to remove tension in the muscles. This technique allows the athlete to contract relaxation and tension within the muscles. It also combines the control of breathing helping with the symptoms of somatic state anxiety. There are many different types of this biofeedback control.

Imagery allows athletes to increase/decrease arousal/ anxiety levels by visualising aspects of previous positive performances. If psyching up is required the athlete focuses on performances that required high levels of energy and feelings of heightened arousal. If anxiety and stress need to be reduced the athlete focuses on the feelings of well-being

and positivity.

Self-talk focuses on the performer convincing themselves that they are good enough to perform and play well, most sportspersons will have used it e.g. 'Come on you can do it!'. We are all prone to negative thoughts from time to time. For an athlete this is especially true when put under pressure. For example, a high jumper thinking that they can't make the jump on their final attempt. Athletes can be intercepting these negative thoughts and refocusing on positive productive ideas.

Self-confidence

Sports psychologists, coaches and athletes work hard to build up confidence in the sportsperson. The techniques already discussed will aid and support the athlete's self-confidence. It is important to develop the feeling of worth and success and focus on successful performances.

Somatic anxiety management

Somatic anxiety is the physiological response to a situation, where the performer feel that they may not cope

Biofeedback

This involves monitoring the physiological changes that take place in the body as anxiety increases. Monitoring changes in heart rate, temperature, sweating (skin pH levels) can reflect with the onset of anxiety. It is believed that observing these changes can help a performer to control and therefore reduce anxiety.

Progressive muscular relaxation

This method requires the athlete to create tension simultaneously in all muscle groups. Each group is then slowly relaxed in turn.

Measuring Anxiety

The measurements of anxiety tend to be through questionnaires, these include:

Marten's Sport Competitive Anxiety Test (SCAT – 1977), this measures emotional and physiological responses to stress in a competitive situation

Speilberger's State Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI 1970), this measures emotional and physiological responses in general and specific situations

Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 (CSAI -1990), measuring emotional responses in competitive situations

Other methods for measuring anxiety include observation. Usually the coach can observe tiggers to stress for the athlete or changes in behaviour, however this method tends to be very subjective.

C. Overview -Stress, arousal and anxiety

- **Stress** is a stimulus resulting in a positive or negative response to a specific situation. It produces both physiological and psychological symptoms
- Stress has two forms: **Eustress** – this is positive and gives a feeling of fulfilment and arousal. **Distress** - this is a negative form of stress and in extreme cases causes anxiety and apprehension
- Depending upon the athlete's level of ability, level of competition or personality stress can have a big impact on performance
- **Anxiety** is a negative emotional state associated with stress, feelings of worry, nervousness and apprehension
- There are two main types of anxiety: **Trait anxiety** – this is the personality core, **State anxiety** – this is changeable and varies depending upon the situation
- There are two types of state anxiety: **Cognitive state anxiety** – amount of worry, **Somatic state anxiety** – is the physiological changes due to perception
- **Arousal** is referred to as a psychological state of alertness and anticipation that prepares the body for action
- Sporting performance and its relationship with arousal can be demonstrated by several theories: Drive Theory, Inverted U hypothesis, Catastrophe Theory, Zone of Optimal Functioning (ZOF) Theory
- If the performer perceives arousal levels to be positive it will have a positive impact on performance (getting in the zone). However if the changes are viewed as negative it will increase both somatic and cognitive state anxiety
- Cognitive anxiety management includes: Progressive muscular relaxation is a technique used to remove tension in the muscles; Imagery allows athletes to increase/decrease arousal/ anxiety levels by visualising aspects of previous positive performances; Self-talk focuses on the performer convincing themselves that they are good enough to perform and play well
- Somatic anxiety management include: Biofeedback this involves monitoring the physiological changes that take place in the body as anxiety increases;

Progressive muscular relaxation requires the athlete to create tension simultaneously in all muscle groups

- The measurements of anxiety tend to be through questionnaires, these include: Marten's Sport Competitive Anxiety Test (SCAT – 1977); Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 (CSAI -1990); Observation, usually the coach can observe triggers to stress for the athlete or changes in behaviour, however this method tends to be very subjective.

4. Aggression and social facilitation

Question

Explain why sport has no place for aggressive behaviour (AO2)

A. Content

- Definitions of aggression and assertion
- The factors that may cause increases in aggressive acts (e.g. poor officiating, temperature, partisan crowd)
- Types of aggression; hostile and instrumental aggression and assertive behaviour
- Theories of aggression; instinct theory and catharsis; frustration-aggression hypothesis; cue arousal and social learning theory
- Underdeveloped moral reasoning – players with low moral reasoning are more likely to demonstrate aggression
- Strategies for controlling aggression, both from the perspective of an individual and an organisation; set punishments, coaches emphasising the need of fair play and the correct code of conduct
- Social facilitation: Positive and negative effects of the presence of an audience on performance
- Theories of social facilitation: drive theory, evaluation apprehension theory, distraction conflict theory, self- presentation theory
- Home field advantage

B. Knowledge and Understanding

Introduction:

There are many factors that contribute towards aggressive behaviour, and it is important to identify the contributors, in order to be assertive and channel behaviour under the confines of the laws of the game.

Aggression:

Aggressive behaviour tends to be the consequence of one or more contributors; some of the antecedents are listed below:

- Nature of the game
- Crowd – (social facilitation)
- Frustration – poor performance, referee decisions
- Score
- Past experiences
- Level of competition – stakes
- High arousal levels
- Rewards

'Any behaviour that is intended to harm another individual by physical or verbal means' (Bull).

Difference between aggression and assertion:

Aggression	Assertion
Behaviour intended to harm	Behaviour that is intended but non-violent
Behaviour that is uncontrolled	Behaviour is controlled
Outside the rules	Within the rules



Aggression can be classified into three forms:

Hostile (or reactive)

- aim: harm or inflict injury
- outside the rules of the game
- involves anger
- no place in sport

Instrumental (or channelled)

- aim: execution of skill, there is an intention to harm
- within rules of the game
- no anger evident
- present in sporting situations

Assertive behaviour

- aim: execution of skill
- Strictly within rules and spirit of the game
- robust but functional
- no intention to harm

Theories of aggression:

Instinct (trait perspective)

- developed by Lorenz
- aggression is genetically inherited
- trait of violence lies within everyone
- aggressive energy constantly builds up and needs to be released

Social learning

- Bandura 1966
- aggression is not biologically based
- nurtured through environmental forces
- learned by watching and replicating role models
- expected mode of behaviour

Frustration- Aggression hypothesis

- interactionist perspective
- frustration develops when goal-directed behaviour (NACH) is blocked
- instinctive to fulfil the need to release frustration
- instinct - aggression is the goal
- aggression = successful = catharsis
- aggression = unsuccessful = more frustration

Aggression Cue Hypothesis

- frustration leads to an increase in arousal - may result in aggression
- cues - violent acts being witnessed
- nature of game will trigger aggression if arousal is high
- best players ability to control frustration and arousal

Methods to control aggression:

Aggression and aggressive behaviour can be controlled externally as well as using internal strategies

External	Internal
Punishment	Stress management techniques
Withdraw violent players from situation	Withdraw self from situation
Emphasis on positive role models	Performance goals
Reinforcement of non-aggressive behaviour	Change in attitude

Other Factors that have an impact on aggression, arousal and performance:

Social Facilitation:

The presence of an audience will have an impact on arousal levels and will affect performance. Sometimes the positive effect is called social facilitation and the negative social inhibition. However we will consider the presence of the audience as social facilitation.

Drive Theory – the presence of others (audience) increases arousal and competitive drive. It causes a release of energy and an increase in the speed of performance.

Evaluation Apprehension Theory – in some circumstances the audience can have a calming effect. The increase in arousal is only when the performer perceives the audience to be assessing their performance.

Distraction/Conflict Theory – individuals can only attend a limited number of environmental cues. Spectators demand the same amount of attention as other players, resulting in the competition for attention space.

Home Field Advantage – large supportive home crowds have a positive effect on performance. Crowds get close to the action, increasing audience influence. This is known as 'proximity effect'.

E.g. the roof closed at the Millennium Stadium (Principality)

Strategies to overcome social inhibition

- Practice selective attention focusing on most appropriate cues
- Mental rehearsal, imagery - block out audience
- Skills are autonomous and need little attention
- Zone of optional functioning awareness (ZOF)
- Appropriate use of attribution

C. Overview - Aggression and Social Facilitation

- Aggressive behaviour tends to be the consequence of one or more contributors: Nature of the game; Crowd; Frustration; Past experiences; Level of competition; Rewards
- Assertion is behaviour that is intended but non-violent, controlled and within the rules
- Aggression can be classified into three forms; Hostile (or reactive) aim: harm or inflict injury; Instrumental (or channelled) aim: execution of skill, there is an intention to harm; Assertive behaviour aim: execution of skill.
- Instinct Theory (Trait perspective); aggression is genetically inherited, trait of violence lies within everyone, aggressive energy constantly builds up and needs to be release
- Social learning Theory Bandura 1966: aggression is not biologically based, nurtured through environmental forces, learned by watching and replicating role models
- Frustration-Aggression hypothesis: Interactionist perspective, frustration develops when goal-directed behaviour (NAch) is blocked, instinctive to fulfil the need to release frustration, aggression = successful = catharsis, aggression = unsuccessful = more frustration
- Social Facilitation is the presence of an audience having an impact on arousal levels and affecting performance
- Home field Advantage – large supportive home crowds have a positive effect on performance for the home team.

5. Group dynamics and leadership

Question

Outline the key components of team cohesion (AO1) and explain why leadership in a team is required for sporting success (AO2)

A. Content

- Formation of groups including: Forming, storming, norming and performing
- Interaction, interdependence, interpersonal relationships, identical norms/goals/values, identity and independence
- The nature of a group/team in terms of mutual awareness, common goal and interaction e.g. a cohesive team is one where all members have a collective identity and who are motivated to work together. Team motives can vary – members can be socially motivated or task motivated
- Task and social cohesion, group cohesion and group productivity
- How groups become cohesive teams with strategies for facilitating this process
- Issues relating to group size: the Ringlemann effect and social loafing
- Theories of leadership including: Great man theory; Fiedler's contingency theory; Prescribed and emergent leaders
- Leadership styles including: Autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire
- Chelladurali's multi-dimension model of leadership; variations of leadership style depending on: the situation, member characteristics, personality of the leader

B. Knowledge and Understanding

Group dynamics and leadership

Introduction:

There must be interaction between individuals in order for them to be classified as a group. Teams need an interpersonal attraction and a collective identity – the members of the group must perceive themselves to be a distinct unit. The group must have shared goals, targets, norms and values, and be prepared to achieve these goals collectively.



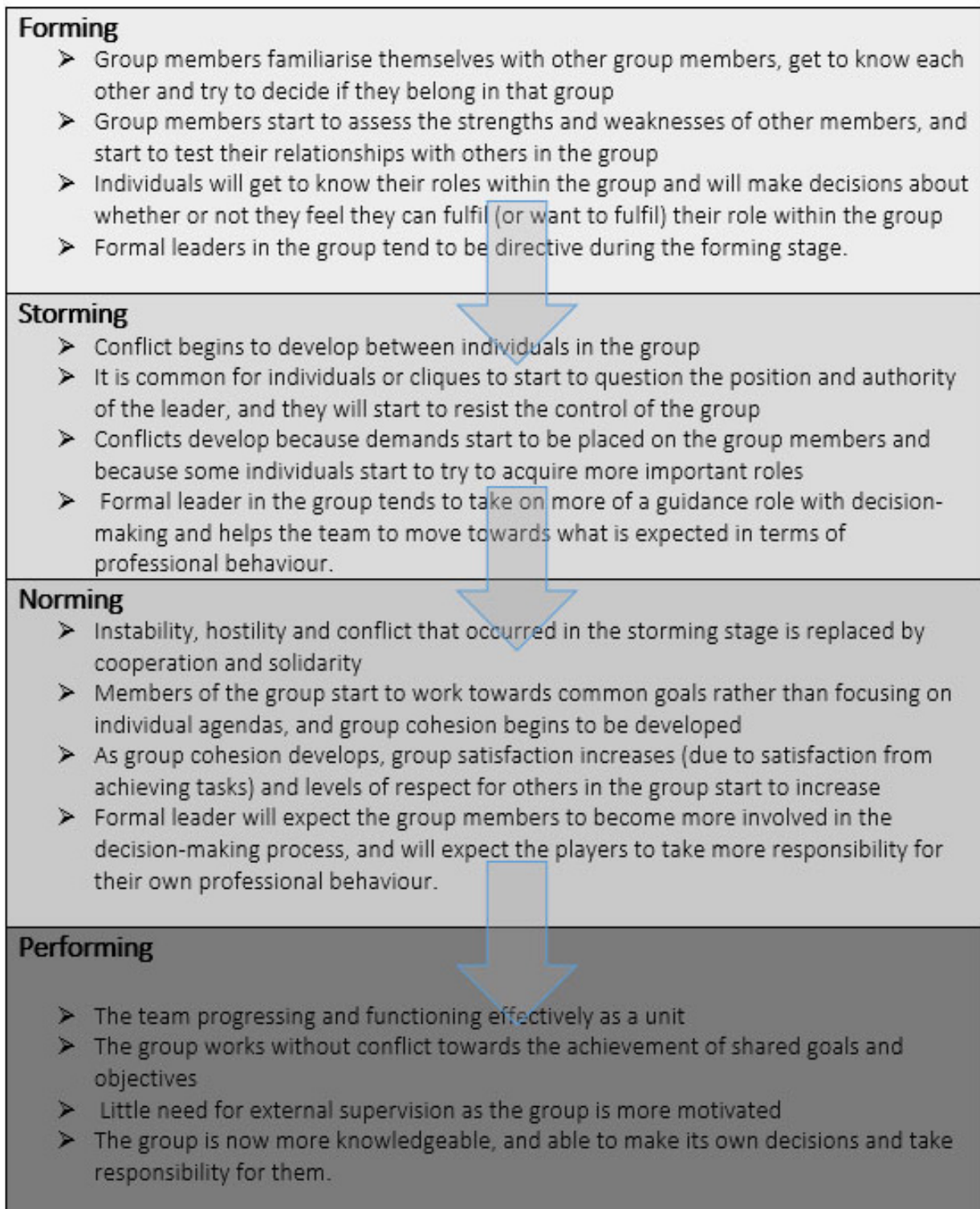
Stages of group development:

All of these characteristics are common in teams, but there are some key differences between a group and a team. The main difference relates to the pursuit of shared goals and objectives within a team.

For a group of people to become a team, they must go through four developmental stages (Tuckman, 1965):

- Forming
- Storming
- Norming
- Performing.

All groups go through all stages, but the time they spend at each stage and the order in which they go through the stages may vary.



Once a team has progressed through the four stages, it does not mean that they will not revert back to an earlier stage. If key members leave, the team may revert back to the storming stage as others begin to vie for position within the team.

Group cohesion is the extent a group pursues a common goal together

Cohesion can be sub divided into:

Task cohesion - the way team members work together to successfully complete the task.

It is necessary for interactive sports i.e. sports that demand high levels of co-operation e.g. team sports such as netball and rugby.

Social cohesion - personal relationships within a group, enjoying social interaction. For example, recreational badminton players get on well with each other and enjoy playing the game regardless of whether they win or lose.

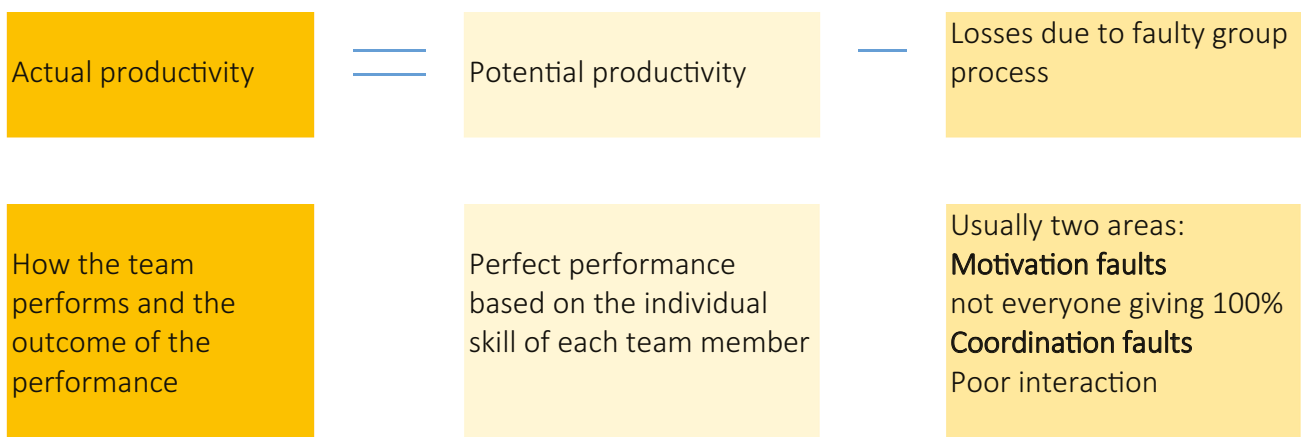
Both these types of group cohesion influence performance; however task cohesion is closely linked to successful performance.

Group effectiveness

Sports groups which interact will have **THREE** common characteristics:

- A collective identity
- A sense of shared purpose
- A clear structure for communication.

Steiner describes group effectiveness as:



Ringelmann effect is whereby as the group size increases, individual productivity decreases, this is linked to motivation fault and is associated with athletes 'hiding' in large groups and not being accountable for their own performance. Therefore, a basketball team is more likely to operate together successfully than a rugby team.

Social Loafing

This refers to a group member not giving 100% effort in a team/group situation; this is generally due to a loss of motivation. Individuals that display social loafing often lack confidence, are afraid of failure and tend to be highly anxious. It is often the case that players who display social loafing do not feel they can make a useful contribution to overall team performance, which can be why they don't want to participate.

How to Avoid Social Loafing:

- value individual contributions
- use notational analysis to monitor individual's contributions to a performance
- positive reinforcement of good performances
- giving individuals specific roles and responsibilities
- foster good team spirit through valuing everyone's contributions
- improve team spirit/cohesion through social activities
- emphasise group goals.

Factors affecting cohesion *e.g. national identity of Welsh rugby*

Carron's (1982) states that there are four factors that affect team cohesion:

1. Environmental factors – groups that are closer in terms of location, interact and form relationships better (smaller groups more effective).

2. Personal factors – individual characteristics important for group cohesion. Players from similar backgrounds tend to have similar attitudes, commitment and opinions and therefore likely to be cohesive.

3. Leadership factors – leadership style, behaviour needs to be compatible with athlete's personalities.

4. Team factors – length of time a team is together, allowing them to experience success and failure together. The creation of ownership and decision-making is likely to be productive and cohesive.

If cohesion is achieved the team and individuals can experience both success in team outcome goals and individual performance goals. It is not necessarily the case that high levels of cohesion achieve higher levels of performance, however for sports that are interactive (team games) it is important.

How to Increase Cohesion:

- establish common goals within group
- ensure shared experiences, team bonding exercises
- use rewards
- create a desire for success
- encourage democratic leadership involving athletes in the decision making process
- keep team together and give time for cohesion to develop
- ensuring that a coach has an understanding of personalities within the group
- coaches/leaders remain positive towards players

Leadership

The best leaders can match their styles, behaviours and qualities to different situations.

The following qualities will contribute to making a good leader:

Vision - know the direction of travel

Communicate - open and honest feedback

Decision maker - confidence to tactics and team selection

Passion - love what they do and are committed

Patience - gives athletes time

Experience - knowledge and understanding

Persistence - focus to achieve goals

Perseverance - determination to succeed

A good leader needs to give the people they work with the responsibility and capabilities to make decisions, and support them in the decisions they make.

Leaders are either prescribed or emergent.

- **Prescribed leaders** are those who are appointed by some form of higher authority. For example, team managers appointed by governing body.
- **Emergent leaders** are those who achieve leadership status by gaining the respect and support of the group. These leaders generally achieve their status through showing specific leadership skills or being particularly skilful at their sport. For example, a team picking a captain based on their leadership qualities demonstrated whilst playing/training.

Theories of leadership

These theories tend to debate the concept, whether a leader is born or made. There are three main theories:

1. Trait theory

This is often referred to as the '**Great man theory**'. It suggests that leaders are born with the traits and qualities needed to be a leader. It suggests that leadership is innate and a good leader will be good in any situation (19th Century Public School sport ethos). It is now generally accepted that there is no definitive set of traits that characterise a good leader except, 'the ability to lead what is in front of you'.

2. Social learning theory

It argues that a good leader is made, not born, and that anyone can be taught to be a good leader. Social learning theory, and says people can learn to be good leaders by observing the behaviours of other good leaders in a variety of situations, reproducing those behaviours in similar situations and then continuing them if they are reinforced.

3. Interactional theory

Trait and social learning theories place emphasis on the personal qualities of a coach. The interactional theory considers other factors that could affect the effectiveness of leadership, mainly the interaction between the individual and their situation.

Two main types of leader are identified through the interactional theory:

- **Relationship-orientated leaders** are focused on developing relationships with individuals in the group. They work hard to maintain communication with members; always helping to maintain levels of social interaction between members and themselves; and develop respect and trust with others; more effective with experienced, highly skilled athletes.
- **Task-orientated leaders** are more concerned with meeting goals and objectives. They create plans; decide on priorities; assign members to task; and ensure

members stay on task, with the focus of increasing group productivity; more effective with less experienced, less skilled performers who need constant instruction and feedback.

There is a balance to be made between these two leaders in the interactional theory.

Styles of leadership

Autocratic

- Task orientated
- Makes all decisions
- Motivated to complete task quickly and effectively as possible
- Authoritarian style – do not take into account groups opinions
- Does not share responsibility
- Effective when quick decisions need to be made

Democratic

- Personal orientated
- Shares decisions
- Motivated by the development of inter personal relationships within team
- Shares responsibility within the group
- Effective in coactive sports

Laissez-faire

- Allows group to make own decisions
- Stand aside on all decisions
- Members of group tend to aggressive towards one another
- Little group cohesion
- Group easily gives up and lacks direction

Fiedler's Contingency Model

According to Fiedler the correct style of leadership is dependent on the favourable of the situation.

Highly favourable situation	Highly unfavourable situation
Leaders position is strong	Leaders position is weak
Task is simple with clear structure	Task is complex with vague structure
Warm group and leader realtions	Hostile group and leader relations

AUTOCRATIC LEADERS are more effective in both the MOST FAVOURABLE and the LEAST FVOURABLE situations.

DEMOCRATIC LEADERS are more effective in MODERATELY FAVOURABLE situations.

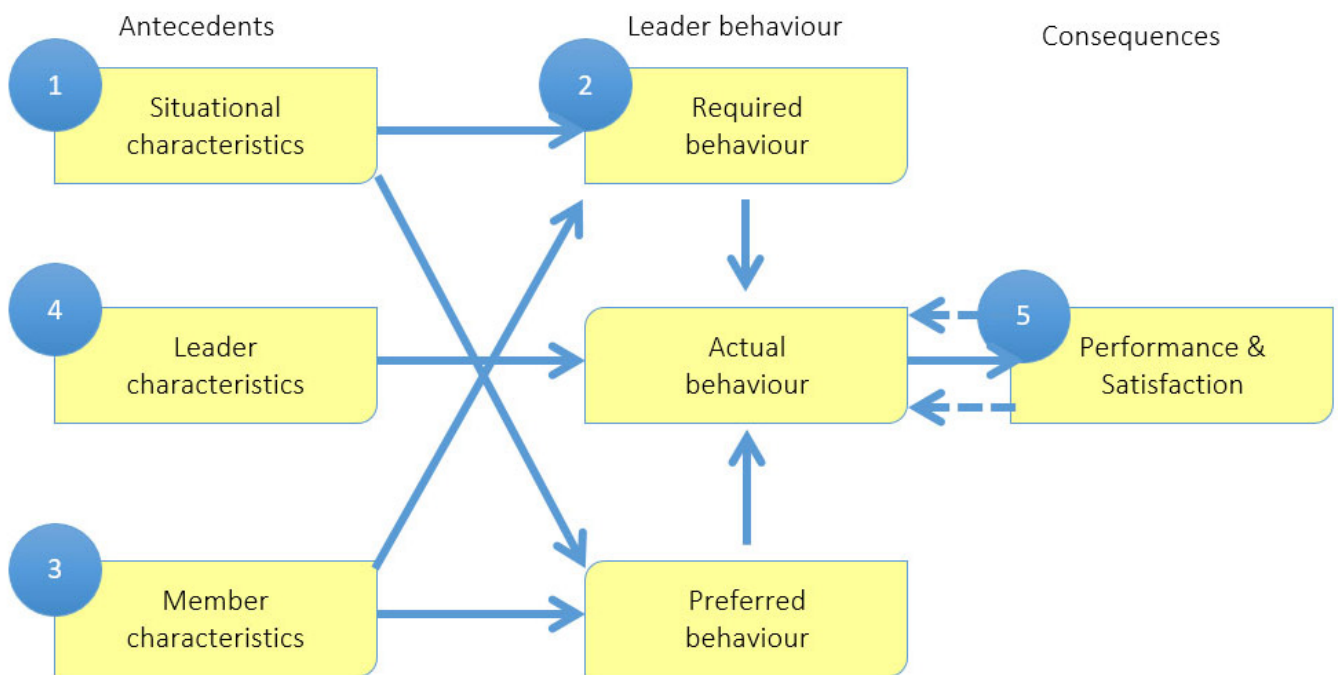
Chelladurai's multi-dimension model of leadership

The multi-dimensional model says the team's performance and satisfaction with the leader will be highest if the leader's required behaviours, preferred behaviours and actual behaviours all agree.

1. This means that if the leader is required to act in a certain way in a certain situation and does so, and the group like the way the leader has acted, the group or team are more likely to be happy with their leader and higher levels of performance are likely to occur.
2. The behaviour required by the leader at the time is generally determined by the situation the leader is in and should conform to the norms of the group.
3. The people within the group or team mainly determine the preferred behaviour. Their preferences are generally determined by factors such as personality of the athletes, experience of the athletes, skill/ability of athletes and non-sport related aspects like age and gender.

4. The actual behaviour is determined by the characteristics of the leader, the situational factors and the preferences of the group.
5. Chelladurai believed that the effectiveness of the group could be judged on:
 - The degree of success accomplished during a task
 - The extent to which the group experienced satisfaction while being led to the goal.

See diagram below:



C. Overview Group dynamics and leadership

- Groups need to have Interaction, interdependence, interpersonal relationships, identical norms/goals/values, identity and independence
- For a group of people to become a team, they must go through four developmental stages: Forming; Storming; Norming; Performing
- Group cohesion is the extent a group pursues a common goal together, cohesion can be sub divided into: Task cohesion the way team members work together to successfully complete the task; Social cohesion which is the personal relationships within group, enjoying social interaction
- Sports groups which interact will have THREE common characteristics: collective identity; sense of shared purpose; clear structure for communication
- Ringelmann effect is whereby as the group size increases, individual productivity decreases, this is linked to motivation fault and is associated with athletes 'hiding' in large groups and not being accountable for their own performance.
- Social Loafing refers to a group member not giving 100% effort in a team/group situation; this is generally due to a loss of motivation
- Four factors that affect team cohesion: Environmental factors – groups that are closer in terms of location; Personal factors – individual characteristics important for group cohesion; Leadership factors – leadership style, behaviour needs to be compatible with athlete's personalities; Team factors – length of time a team is together, allowing them to experience success and failure together
- The best leaders can match their styles, behaviours and qualities to different situations. The following qualities will contribute to making a good leader: Vision, Communicate, Decision maker
- Leaders are either prescribed or emergent: Prescribed leaders are those who are appointed by some form of higher authority; Emergent leaders are those who achieve leadership status by gaining the respect and support of the group
- Theories of leadership debate the concept, whether a leader is born or made. There are three main theories: Trait theory often referred to as the 'Great man

theory'. It suggests that leaders are born with the traits and qualities needed to be a leader; Social learning theory argues that a good leader is made, not born, and that anyone can be taught to be a good leader; Interactional theory considers other factors that could affect the effectiveness of leadership, mainly the interaction between the individual and their situation

- Two main types of leader are identified through the interactional theory: Relationship-orientated leaders are focused on developing relationships with individuals in the group; Task-orientated leaders are more concerned with meeting goals and objectives
- Styles of leadership: Autocratic (authoritarian style, task orientated); Democratic (shares responsibility within the group); Laisser-faire (allows group to make own decisions)
- Fiedler's Contingency Model
- According to Fiedler the correct style of leadership is dependent on the favourability of the situation. AUTOCRATIC LEADERS are more effective in both the MOST FAVOURABLE and the LEAST FAVOURABLE situations. DEMOCRATIC LEADERS are more effective in MODERATELY FAVOURABLE situations.
- Chelladurai's multi-dimension model of leadership:
- The multi-dimensional model says the team's performance and satisfaction with the leader will be highest if the leader's required behaviours, preferred behaviours and actual behaviours all agree
- Chelladurai believed that the effectiveness of the group could be judged on: The degree of success accomplished during a task; The extent to which the group experienced satisfaction while being led to the goal.

6. Attribution theory and self-efficacy

Question

Analyse the reasons different sports people attribute for the variety of outcomes (AO3)

A. Content

- Attribution theory: internal/external and stable/unstable reasons given for outcomes
- Why different reasons are given for outcomes by team members
- The reasons should be given within the context of Weiner's model
- Learned helplessness
- Strategies to overcome learned helplessness; attributional retraining
- Self-efficacy; self-efficacy and its derivation from past performance, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion and arousal
- Self-confidence.

B. Knowledge and Understanding

Attribution Theory

Introduction:

Attribution theory looks at the common reasons coaches and players give for their success or failure in sport. Attributions are important because of the way in which they affect motivation, which in turn affects future performances. For example, a tennis player who isn't performing well may attribute their poor performance to many factors such as poor technique or lack of practice. If they attribute it to poor technique, they may ask their coach to help them to improve.



Attribution Theory (Weiner):

Coaches and players tend to put the success or failure into four classifications, or combinations of them, ability, task difficulty, effort and luck. The diagram below explains Weiner's Attribution Model:

		Locus of causality	
		Internal Control of performer	External Beyond control
Stability	Stable Fixed – don't change	Ability 'We were more skilful'	Task difficulty 'Opposition better standard'
	Unstable Vary with time	Effort 'We tried hard'	Luck 'Pitch didn't suit us'

The athlete only has control over effort; the coach can alter task difficulty and have an impact upon ability. These aspects can be controlled and therefore attributing failure to them can avoid learned helplessness.

High achievers	Low achievers
Attribute success to internal factors	Attribute success to external factors
Attribute failure to external factors	Attribute failure to internal factors
High motivation to achieve (NAch)	Low motivation to achieve
Low motivation to avoid failure	High motivation to avoid failure (NAF)
Success – stable and internal	Success – unstable and external
Goals – task orientated	Goals – outcome orientated

Tasks – challenging and competitive	Tasks – very difficult or very easy
Performance – performs well in front of evaluative audience	Performs poorly in front of evaluative audience

Learned Helplessness

The belief that over time one has no control over the events and therefore failure is inevitable, causing feelings of hopelessness. For example, a gymnast hasn't been able to make a stuck landing in their vault in the last three competitions. They enter the next competition expecting the same. This attitude is reflected in the performance and the gymnast has lost the competition before they step onto the floor. In this situation the coach needs to break the cycle and help the gymnast develop self-confidence.

Self-confidence

Self-confidence is defined as a person's belief that they have the ability to meet the demands of the sport/activity. High NACH personality traits offer a self-belief and coaches can influence athletes' perceptions positively. Research regularly shows the most consistent difference between elite and less successful athletes is a greater self-confidence.

Bandura called situation specific self-confidence, **self-efficacy**

Self-confidence – general and stable personality trait

Self-efficacy – specific to situation and variable

Self-efficacy will determine the choice of activity, level of effort and degree of persistence. High self-efficacy athletes are more likely to pursue challenging goals, cope with pain, and persevere through setbacks.

Self-efficacy can be developed and changed through four major types of information:

Performance accomplishments <i>Strategies to improve self-efficacy</i>	Success in previous experience – in difficult tasks and early success Dependable information – facts and achievement independently is better Best effect on improving self-efficacy <i>Tasks should be appropriate with a high probability of success</i>
Vicarious experiences <i>Strategies to improve self-efficacy</i>	Or modelling – learn by watching successful performance of difficult task. This can reduce anxiety as it demonstrates a task can be completed Demonstration is very important <i>Modelling with peers not experts</i>
Verbal persuasion <i>Strategies to improve self-efficacy</i>	Modelling – learn by watching successful performances of difficult tasks. This can reduce anxiety as it demonstrates a task can be completed Demonstration of a task is extremely important <i>Modelling with peers not experts</i>
Emotional arousal <i>Strategies to improve self-efficacy</i>	How you interpret arousal. Somatic changes might reduce self-efficacy and confidence Performers with less confidence will be hindered by arousal Anxiety reducing techniques should therefore increase self-efficacy <i>Most difficult to change arousal levels. Knowledge and information about activity and feelings</i>

Effective **goal setting** can increase self-efficacy as long as the goals are SMART and they must be individual. Also **routines** ensure individuals achieve control over arousal; these routines are sometimes linked to **mental rehearsal**, recalling performance accomplishments.

C.Overview - Attribution theory, self-efficacy and confidence

- Attribution theory looks at the common reasons coaches and players give for their success or failure in sport
- Attributions are important because of the way in which they affect motivation, which in turn affects future performances
- Attribution theory (Weiner): Coaches and players tend to put the success or failure into four classifications, or combinations of them, ability, task difficulty, effort and luck
- The athlete only has control over effort; the coach can alter task difficulty and have an impact upon ability. These aspects can be controlled and therefore attributing failure to them can avoid learned helplessness
- Learned Helplessness – is the belief that over time one has no control over the events and therefore failure is inevitable
- Self-confidence is defined as a person's belief that they have the ability to meet the demands of the sport/activity
- Self-efficacy – self-confidence specific to situation and variable. High self-efficacy athletes are more likely to pursue challenging goals, cope with pain, and persevere through setbacks
- Self-efficacy can be developed and change through four major types of information: Performance accomplishments; Vicarious experiences; Verbal persuasion; Emotional arousal
- Strategies to improve self-efficacy: tasks should be appropriate with a high probability of success; modelling with peers not experts; feedback – consistent, accurate, specific, realistic, progressive; change arousal levels. Knowledge and information about activity and feelings.

Acknowledgements

Page	Image description	Acknowledgements
COVER	Taekwondo	Wikimedia Creative Commons. http://bit.ly/2cKmsxo
Page 3	Mo Farah	Michael Steele / Staff / Getty Images
Page 12	Judy Murray	Tony Marshall / Stringer / Getty Images
Page 19	Usain Bolt	Paul Gilham / Staff / Getty Images
Page 30	Leigh Halfpenny	Stu Forster / Getty Images
Page 37	Viper pod	David Rogers / Staff / Getty Images
Page 44	Scrummage	Hamish Blair / Getty Images
Page 56	Federer	Julian Finney / Getty Images