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. Discuss how attitude can have an impact on performance (AO3)  
   Pages 2

2. Explain why sport has no place for aggressive behaviour (AO2)  
   Page 7

3. Outline the key components of team cohesion (AO1) and explain why leadership in a team is required for sporting success (AO2)  
   Page 14

4. Analyse the reasons different sports people attribute for the variety of outcomes (AO3)  
   Pages 27
1. Sport Psychology

Personality and attitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Discuss how attitude can have an impact on performance (AO3)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

A. Content

- 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.
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:
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 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

C. Overview - Personality and Attitude

- 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.
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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aggression</th>
<th>Assertion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour intended to harm</td>
<td>Behaviour that is intended but non-violent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour that is uncontrolled</td>
<td>Behaviour is controlled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside the rules</td>
<td>Within the rules</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 (NAcCh) 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External</th>
<th>Internal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Punishment</td>
<td>Stress management techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Withdraw violet players from situation</td>
<td>Withdraw self from situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis on positive role models</td>
<td>Performance goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reinforcement of non-aggressive behaviour</td>
<td>Change in attitude</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.
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
- Chelladurai’s multi-dimension model of leadership; variations of leadership style depending on: the situation, member characteristics, personality of the leader
B. Knowledge and Understanding

**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:

- **Actual productivity**
- **Potential productivity**
- **Losses due to faulty group process**

How the team performs and the outcome of the performance

- Perfect performance based on the individual skill of each team member
- Usually two areas: **Motivation faults** not everyone giving 100% **Coordination faults** Poor interaction
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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Autocratic</th>
<th>Democratic</th>
<th>Laisser-faire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task orientated</td>
<td>Personal orientated</td>
<td>Allows group to make own decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes all decisions</td>
<td>Shares decisions</td>
<td>Stand aside on all decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivated to complete task</td>
<td>Motivated by the development of inter personal</td>
<td>Members of group tend to aggressive towards one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quickly and effectively as</td>
<td>relationships within team</td>
<td>another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possible</td>
<td>Shares responsibility</td>
<td>Little group cohesion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarian style – do not</td>
<td></td>
<td>Group easily gives up and lacks direction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take into account groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opinions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does not share responsibility</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective when quick decisions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>need to be made</td>
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</table>
**Fiedler's Contingency Model**

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highly favourable situation</th>
<th>Highly unfavourable situation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leaders position is strong</td>
<td>Leaders position is weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task is simple with clear structure</td>
<td>Task is complex with vague structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warm group and leader relations</td>
<td>Hostile group and leader relations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

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 debt 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 favourable 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.
Attrition theory

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

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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stability</th>
<th>Locus of causality</th>
<th>Internal Control of performer</th>
<th>External Beyond control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fixed - don’t change</td>
<td>Stable</td>
<td>Ability</td>
<td>Task difficulty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘We were more skilful’</td>
<td>‘Opposition better standard’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unstable</td>
<td></td>
<td>Effort</td>
<td>Luck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vary with time</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘We tried hard’</td>
<td>‘Pitch didn’t suit us’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High achievers</th>
<th>Low achievers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attribute success to internal factors</td>
<td>Attribute success to external factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribute failure to external factors</td>
<td>Attribute failure to internal factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High motivation to achieve (NAch)</td>
<td>Low motivation to achieve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low motivation to avoid failure</td>
<td>High motivation to avoid failure (NAF)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success – stable and internal</td>
<td>Success – unstable and external</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goals – task orientated</td>
<td>Goals – outcome orientated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasks – challenging and competitive</td>
<td>Tasks – very difficult or very easy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance – performs well in front of evaluative audience</td>
<td>Performs poorly in front of evaluative audience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**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

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 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
# Acknowledgements

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