# OCR A2 PE Sports Psychology Notes

**Sports Psychology - Year 13 A - Level Physical Education**

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**PHYSICAL EDUCATION H554: G453 SPORTS PSYCHOLOGY**

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<tr>
<td>30 HOURS</td>
<td><strong>3 hours</strong></td>
<td><em>Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the theories of personality: trait perspectives (the characteristics of extroversion/introversion, neuroticism/stability, Type A/Type B); social learning perspectives; interactionist approaches.</em>&lt;br&gt;<em>Explain the effects of personality profiling on the adoption of balanced, active and healthy lifestyles.</em>&lt;br&gt;<em>Evaluate critically personality profiling in sport.</em></td>
<td><em>Introduction to the social science of psychology with use of different types of evidence to form hypotheses.</em>&lt;br&gt;<em>Students to be given a variety of sports psychology research summaries to evaluate and assess how psychology can help and hinder sports behaviour.</em>&lt;br&gt;<em>Students to use questionnaires to gather evidence re personality characteristics – with peers and/or sportspeople.</em>&lt;br&gt;The use of profiling should be the basis for further discussion on links between personality and sports performance and adopting a balanced, active and healthy lifestyle.&lt;br&gt;<em>The results of the profiles are analysed by students to draw out problems such as low ecological validity or too many demand characteristics.</em>&lt;br&gt;<em>Traits related to the elite sportspeople through individual case studies.</em>&lt;br&gt;<em>Trait perspectives via readings on Eysenck and Cattell.</em>&lt;br&gt;<em>Interactionist based on Hollander. Students to draw Hollander’s model and then relate this to sports performance/behaviour.</em>&lt;br&gt;<em>Students to present their findings from their questionnaires and to make judgements about the links between personality and sports behaviours.</em>&lt;br&gt;</td>
<td><em>Advanced PE and Sport - Honeybourne, Hill and Moors.</em>&lt;br&gt;<em>OCR Advanced PE A2 – various.</em>&lt;br&gt;<em>Psychological Dynamics of Sport – D Gill.</em>&lt;br&gt;<em>Applying Psychology to Sport – Woods.</em>&lt;br&gt;<em>Personality questionnaires from: <a href="http://www.sportsconfidence.biz/SPQ_samplereport.pdf">www.sportsconfidence.biz/SPQ_samplereport.pdf</a> (includes profile of Tiger Woods)</em>&lt;br&gt;<em>Eysenck’s Personality Questionnaire:</em>&lt;br&gt;<em><a href="http://www.ddrc.org/downloads/posters07_04/UHMS_personality">www.ddrc.org/downloads/posters07_04/UHMS_personality</a></em>&lt;br&gt;<em><a href="http://www.personalitypage.com">www.personalitypage.com</a></em>&lt;br&gt;<em><a href="http://www.pponline.co.uk">www.pponline.co.uk</a></em>&lt;br&gt;<em><a href="http://www.myskillsprofile.com">www.myskillsprofile.com</a></em>&lt;br&gt;<em><a href="http://www.thesportselite.com/articles/learning.html">www.thesportselite.com/articles/learning.html</a></em></td>
<td><em>Although Hollander not specified in the spec – students should use his model as an example of trait/interactionist theory and be able to explain using practical examples.</em></td>
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## PHYSICAL EDUCATION H554: G453 SPORTS PSYCHOLOGY

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<tr>
<th>SUGGESTED TEACHING TIME</th>
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<td>2 hours</td>
<td>Individual aspects of performance that influence young people’s participation and aspirations.</td>
<td>• Describe and explain the nature of attitudes,</td>
<td>• Explore students’ own attitudes via a discussion and draw from them the factors that make up an attitude. Introduce the triadic model as a structure.</td>
<td>• Advance PE and Sport – Honeybourne, Hill and Moors.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Attitudes and their influence on performance and lifestyles.</td>
<td>• Inconsistencies and prejudice in sporting situations;</td>
<td>• Practical with students involved in a number of different practicals including dance, competitive activities and non-competitive activities – observe and record behaviours.</td>
<td>• OCR Advanced PE A2 – various.</td>
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<td>• Explain the origins of attitudes, and their influence on performance and lifestyles (including the effects of socialisation);</td>
<td>• Draw on observations from teacher or peers to explore the sources of attitudes.</td>
<td>• Motivation in Sport and Exercise – Roberts.</td>
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<td>• Describe the components of attitudes (cognitive, affective, behavioural);</td>
<td>• Introduce the concept of socialisation. Students to link behaviour / choices in sport with socialisation influences.</td>
<td>• Exercise Psychology – Willis and Campbell.</td>
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<td>• Evaluate critically attitudes (and behaviour) in sport and lifestyle choice;</td>
<td>• Use questionnaires to gather evidence re lifestyles and attitudes to sports.</td>
<td>• Attitudinal surveys related to sport:</td>
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<td>• Describe methods of changing attitudes from negative to positive to promote participation in physical activity and a balanced, active and healthy lifestyle;</td>
<td>• Students to make presentations of findings identifying factors affecting attitudes and what can be done to change attitudes to healthy lifestyles.</td>
<td>• <a href="http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/09/29134901/3">http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2006/09/29134901/3</a></td>
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<td>• Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the concept</td>
<td>• Visiting speaker from Sports Development to find out how the attitudes of target groups can be changed or enhanced. Students to make psychological links.</td>
<td>• <a href="http://www.wsf.org.uk/documents/Muslim_women_in_Sport.pdf">www.wsf.org.uk/documents/Muslim_women_in_Sport.pdf</a></td>
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<td>• Reading and note taking on cognitive dissonance theory.</td>
<td>• Relate attitudes not just to performance but also to lifestyle choice and persistence in active participation.</td>
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<td>• Students to work on individual case studies to identify strategies to change attitudes and to recognise the influence of cognitive dissonance.</td>
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<td>2 hours</td>
<td>of cognitive dissonance to change attitudes.</td>
<td>• Text reading and note taking on Atkinson and McClelland's theory of achievement motivation.</td>
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<td>Individual aspects of performance that influence young people's participation and aspirations.</td>
<td>• Atkinson and McClelland's theory of achievement motivation (need to achieve and need to avoid failure).</td>
<td>• Students to identify the characteristics of approach behaviours and avoidance behaviours.</td>
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<td>Achievement motivation and its effect on performance and on following an active and healthy lifestyle.</td>
<td>• Sport-specific achievement motivation (e.g. competitiveness).</td>
<td>• Observing video of a team game and or observing live sport – qualitative evidence gathering by students on motivational behaviours.</td>
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<td>• Link with AS work on motivation and the influences of motivation in sport.</td>
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<td>2 hours</td>
<td>Individual aspects of performance that influence young people’s participation and aspirations.</td>
<td>Discuss reasons for success and failure in physical activity.</td>
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<td>Justify the use of attributional retraining.</td>
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<td>Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of strategies for the promotion of mastery-orientation and the avoidance of learned helplessness; to raise self esteem and to develop positive behaviours towards lifetime involvement in physical activity.</td>
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<td>Evaluate critically the effects of attribution theory on performance and on sustaining a balanced, active and healthy lifestyle.</td>
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<td>Students to be involved in a brief sports competition for example a relay.</td>
<td>Students to draw and understand Weiner’s model of attribution and to use this model to place other attributions.</td>
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<td>Reasons for the outcomes (winning / losing) are then recorded.</td>
<td>Link mastery orientation and learned helplessness with attribution.</td>
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<td>Class explore whether these reasons are valid and what characterizes them.</td>
<td>Questionnaire to be given to younger pupils about the reasons for being involved in sport or otherwise. Class discussion about how the negative reasons related to learned helplessness could be changed through attributional retraining.</td>
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<td>Introduction to causal attribution and its links with motivation.</td>
<td>Visiting clinical psychologist or sports psychologist to give talk on the importance of self-esteem in developing positive and healthy behaviours.</td>
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<td>Students to view video of managers / coaches giving reasons for their team’s performances.</td>
<td>Extended examination – style question to encourage a piece of extended writing that evaluates critically the effects of attribution on performance and sustaining a healthy lifestyle.</td>
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### TOPIC OUTLINE

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| 2 hours Individual aspects of performance that influence young people's participation and aspirations. | • Describe the nature of aggression and assertion.  
• Define channeled aggression.  
• Explain the causes of aggressive behaviour.  
• Evaluate critically theories of aggression (instinct theories; frustration-aggression hypothesis; aggressive-cue hypothesis (Berkowitz); social learning theories).  
• Describe methods of eliminating aggressive tendencies of performers and explain the effects of these methods on the adoption of active and healthy lifestyles.  
• Drawing on students’ own experiences / video evidence and newspaper reports identify aggressive tendencies in sport.  
• Identify a clear definition of aggression and assertion with practical examples.  
• Students to have a list of incidents for them to recognise either aggressive or assertive behaviour.  
• Reading on causes of aggression from the texts.  
• Each student to have responsibility of presenting either a nature or a nurture theory – lead to class debate on whether aggression is learned or it is instinctive.  
• Review the main theories by grouping behaviours under each.  
• Students to draw up a self-help sheet for those in sport who cannot channel their aggressive tendencies – leading to an identification of the main strategies to control aggression.  
• Links to be made with operant conditioning from the AS course. | • http://news.bbc.co.uk/sport1/hi/academy/default.stm  
• Advanced PE and Sport - Honeybourne, Hill and Moors.  
• OCR Advanced PE A2 – various.  
• Foundations of Sport & Exercise Psychology – R Cox.  
• Collect newspaper / magazine cuttings of aggressive incidents in sport for analysis.  
• Various:  
  - www.kidsfirstsoccer.com/violence.htm  
  - www.selfhelpmagazine.com/articles/sports/violence.htm  
  - http://news.bbc.co.uk/sport1/hi/funny_old_game/1494252.stm | |
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| 3 hours | Group dynamics of performance and audience effects that influence young people’s participation, aspirations and lifestyles. | - Describe the nature of a group/team (mutual awareness, interaction, common goal).  
- Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of Steiner’s model of group performance (awareness of problems associated with productivity of a group/team).  
- Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of motivational factors (social loafing); coordination/cooperation factors (Ringlemann effect) and explain the negative influences on behaviour that cause dysfunctional behaviour and avoidance of an active and healthy lifestyle.  
- Explain the factors affecting the formation and development of a cohesive group/team. | - Students to research case studies of successful teams to identify success factors.  
- Reflection on own team experiences – what makes a good team in sport?  
- Students to observe a high level team game and note the characteristics of the teams.  
- Students to draw Steiner’s model and reflect on the faults that for barriers to optimizing team performance.  
- Link Steiner with Ringlemann research and draw from this the concept of social loafing and its causes.  
- Through reading and research students to present thoughts about negative influences on behaviour that may lead to dysfunctional behaviour. Review research that shows some link between sport and combating crime and unhealthy lifestyles.  
- Via team building exercises peers to observe behaviour in teams. For example groups have to agree a new sport type ‘game’ with appropriate equipment. This can be an experience that shows how group dynamics operate and also introduce the concept of leadership.  
- Reflection on outdoor activities in groups and how group members interacted under situations of stress.  
- Students to complete an extended type examination-style | - Advanced PE and Sport - Honeybourne, Hill and Moors.  
- OCR Advanced PE A2 – various.  
- Sports Psychology a self help guide – Bull.  
- CD Rom Switch on to Sports Psychology – Mace.  
- Case studies from the BBC Sport Academy web site:  
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<td>Explain the factors affecting participation in a group/team.</td>
<td>Team exercises with different prescribed leaders and others with emerging leaders. Students to observe / video reflect on how and why a leader emerges.</td>
<td>Advanced PE and Sport - Honeybourne, Hill and Moors</td>
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<td>Explain group and team effects on behaviour (related to balanced, active and healthy lifestyles).</td>
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<td>OCR Advanced PE A2 – various</td>
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<td>question on the formation of a group and what influences its performance.</td>
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<td>Sports Psychology a self help guide – Bull</td>
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<td>3 hours Group dynamics of performance and audience effects that influence young people’s participation, aspirations and lifestyles.</td>
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<td>Sports Psychology: Concepts and Applications – Cox</td>
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<td>Leadership and the role of a leadership</td>
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<td>Psychology in Practice – Woods</td>
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<td>Team exercises with different prescribed leaders and others with emerging leaders. Students to observe / video reflect on how and why a leader emerges.</td>
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<td>CD Rom Switch on to Sports Psychology – Mace</td>
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<td>Evaluate critically leadership theories (trait; social learning; interactionist theories);</td>
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<td>Case studies from the BBC Sport Academy web site:</td>
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<td>Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of Chelladurai’s multi-dimensional model by using examples from their own experiences in sport.</td>
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<td><a href="http://news.bbc.co.uk/sport1/hi/academy/default.stm">http://news.bbc.co.uk/sport1/hi/academy/default.stm</a></td>
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<td>Students to answer an extended examination – style question on the theories of leadership and how they relate to sports performance and also how the effects of leadership can influence lifestyle choice.</td>
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<td>30 HOURS</td>
<td>领袖在物理活动中的角色。</td>
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| leader in physical activities. | multi-dimensional model of leadership and explain the effect of leadership expectations on performance and the adoption of a balanced, active and healthy lifestyle. | Students to carry out a series of brief experiments on sports performance in isolation and with an audience and with competitive and non-competitive coactors e.g. standing broad jump for gross actions and aiming activities for complex fine actions. The effects of an audience to be experienced and reflected upon by students. | • Advanced PE and Sport - Honeybourne, Hill and Moors  
• OCR Advanced PE A2 – various  
• Sports Psychology: Concepts and Applications – Cox | Illustration of the effects of an audience on the performance of complex fine skills can be shown through card sorting into suits. A number of different conditions can be simulated for example with hostile crowd or supportive crowd – results will provide discussion points about the link between arousal / habituation and performance. |
| 3 hours Group dynamics of performance and audience effects that influence young people’s participation, aspirations and lifestyles. | • Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the positive (facilitation) and negative (inhibition) effects (audience and co-actors) on performance, participation and lifestyle;  
• Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of links with levels of arousal, and the heightening of the dominant response (Zajonc);  
• Explain causes and effects of evaluation apprehension;  
• Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of strategies to combat the effects of social | • Visiting speaker / or interviews with a sports performer who reflects on coping with an audience.  
• Make links to arousal theories from AS unit. Students to draw out arousal graphs in relation to the effects of an audience.  
• Identify other effects such as proximity and audience size.  
• Students to identify coping strategies for different types of sports performer. | | |
<p>| Social facilitation and inhibition – the | | | | |</p>
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<td>effects of an audience and other participants on performance and lifestyle behaviours.</td>
<td>inhibition in practical activities (the use of selective attention and mental rehearsal) and in following a balanced, active and healthy lifestyle.</td>
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<td>attentional control and performance. If card sorting or the like is used it is important to relate findings eventually to sports activities. Students must not use card sorting as a practical example in a written examination response.</td>
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<td>2 hours The impact of mental preparation for physical activities on the effectiveness and efficiency of performance.</td>
<td>* Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the importance and relevance of goal setting to sport (including participation, persistence and performance).</td>
<td>2 hours * Use of case study training diaries to recognise the application of goal setting in sport.</td>
<td>* Advanced PE and Sport - Honeybourne, Hill and Moors * OCR Advanced PE A2 – various * Sports Psychology a self help guide – Bull * CD Rom Switch on to Sports Psychology – Mace * Case studies from the BBC Sport Academy web site: * <a href="http://news.bbc.co.uk/sport1/hi/aca">http://news.bbc.co.uk/sport1/hi/aca</a></td>
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<td>Goal setting –</td>
<td>* Explain factors affecting the setting of goals (‘SMARTER’ principle).</td>
<td>* Students to make links with task persistence and confidence.</td>
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<td>* Evaluate critically the use of short/intermediate/long term goals and</td>
<td>* Students to construct their own goal setting for their assessed activity showing the use of short term and long term goals.</td>
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<td>* Reinforcement of SMARTER goal setting and students to collect practical examples.</td>
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<td>* Each student to present their findings and are critically analysed by others in the group as well as self-evaluation of</td>
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<td>The impact of mental preparation for physical activities on the effectiveness and efficiency of performance.</td>
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<td>Self confidence and its impact</td>
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<td>• Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of sports confidence (Vealey), and the concepts of trait sports confidence, competitiveness orientation, and state sports confidence.</td>
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<td>• Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of self-efficacy (Bandura) explaining the influence of performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and emotional</td>
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<td>• Students to draw Vealey’s model and to explain using sports examples.</td>
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<td>• Reading the Honeybourne text will give insight into Vealey’s trait sports confidence and competitiveness.</td>
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<td>• Students to reflect on their own confidence levels in different situations in and out of sport.</td>
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<td>• Students to complete self report questionnaires re self-confidence to identify factors that affect confidence and the relationship between trait and state confidence.</td>
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<td>• Students to draw Bandura’s self-efficacy model and to apply it to a sports situation.</td>
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<td>• To identify strategies to use at a local leisure centre to raise</td>
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<td>• Advanced PE and Sport - Honeybourne, Hill and Moors</td>
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<td>• Sports Psychology a self help guide – Bull</td>
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<td>• Sports Psychology: Concepts and Applications – Cox</td>
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<td>• Psychology in Practice - Woods</td>
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<td>• CD Rom Switch on to Sports Psychology – Mace</td>
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<td>• Related articles: <a href="http://www.thesportjournal.org/2003Journal/Vol6-">http://www.thesportjournal.org/2003Journal/Vol6-</a></td>
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## PHYSICAL EDUCATION H554: G453 SPORTS PSYCHOLOGY

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<td><strong>SUGGESTED RESOURCES</strong></td>
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<td>on performance, participation in physical activity and in raising self esteem.</td>
<td>arousal. • Explain the effects self-efficacy on performance and in sustaining a balanced, active and healthy lifestyle.</td>
<td>the confidence of individuals in a traditionally non-sporting client group.</td>
<td>No3/confidence.asp • <a href="http://www.sportsconfidence.biz/">http://www.sportsconfidence.biz/</a> • <a href="http://www.psywww.com/mtsite/selfconf.html">http://www.psywww.com/mtsite/selfconf.html</a> • <a href="http://www.brianmac.demon.co.uk">www.brianmac.demon.co.uk</a></td>
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<td>The impact of mental preparation for physical activities on the effectiveness and efficiency of performance.</td>
<td>• Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of cue utilisation (Easterbrook) and explain the links with arousal; • Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of attentional styles (broad/narrow, internal/external - Nideffer).</td>
<td>• Students to do initial readings in texts. Students to assess their own attentional styles and discuss how these change depending on the situation and the position they are playing in sport. • Link cue utilisation with arousal by referring back to arousal theories and operant conditioning visited in AS course. • Students to observe part of a videoed sports team’s performance or an individual player for example a tennis player in a Wimbledon match and to identify aspects of cue utilisation that are evident. • Read and make notes on Nideffer’s attentional styles theory from the texts. • List the appropriate style by using continua for different positions in a team game of their choice. • Identify the links between internal and external attention and confidence / well-being and peak flow. • Use case study of elite runners / rowers / cyclists (found on Advanced PE and Sport - Honeybourne, Hill and Moors • OCR Advanced PE A2 – various • Exercise Psychology – Willis and Campbell • Applying Psychology to sport – Wood • Sport Motivation – Hodge (on peak performance) • Case studies from the BBC Sport Academy web site: • <a href="http://news.bbc.co.uk/sport1/hi/academy/default.stm">http://news.bbc.co.uk/sport1/hi/academy/default.stm</a></td>
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<td>BBC Sport Academy web site) and assess how she uses attention in races to maintain concentration but to ignore muscular pain.</td>
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<td>• Examination style question on the use of attentional styles and links.</td>
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## Physical Education H554: G453 Sports Psychology

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<td>POINTS TO NOTE</td>
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### 3 hours

The impact of mental preparation for physical activities on the effectiveness and efficiency of performance

- Emotional control and its impact upon performance and in sustaining a balanced, active and healthy lifestyle

#### Learning Outcomes

- Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of activation and arousal and explain their relationship with personality, ability level and complexity of task;
- Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of peak flow experience and the zone of optimum functioning theory (Hanin);
- Describe the nature, and explain influences of, anxiety; state/trait distinction;
- Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of anxiety management techniques: cognitive techniques (mental rehearsal/imagery, positive self talk, thought stopping, rational/positive thinking) and somatic techniques (progressive muscular relaxation, biofeedback relaxation);

#### Suggested Teaching and Homework Activities

- Refer to previous learning on arousal. Extend understanding by group work on applying variables to the inverted U theory such as personality, ability and types of task.
- Read in texts to prepare notes on peak flow. Students to identify their own peak flow experiences and what factors contributed.
- Visiting speaker talking about how anxiety is managed and their own peak flow experiences and how to maximize their effects.
- Completion of an anxiety questionnaire to identify the various sources of anxiety.
- Heart rate checks when shown a range of photos/images/stories that will make links between perception and anxiety.
- Discriminate between state and trait anxiety by using sports situations to analyse the type of anxiety eg a penalty in football. Seek to make relationships between the two via the SCAT test.
- Visiting yoga teacher/therapist to run a session with the students about stress management. Students to write a critique and to link to psychological theories.
- Case studies on how top athletes prepare for competition – identify their techniques and how these can be learned.
- Students to write an extended exam style answer to a question

#### Suggested Resources

- Advanced PE and Sport - Honeybourne, Hill and Moors
- OCR Advanced PE A2 – various
- Motivation in Sport and Exercise – Roberts
- Exercise Psychology – Willis and Campbell
- Stress and Performance in Sport – Jones and Hardy
- Applying Psychology to Sport – Woods
- Gold Minds– B Miller (mental preparation)
- Case studies:

#### Points to Note

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### PHYSICAL EDUCATION H554: G453 SPORTS PSYCHOLOGY

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#### TOPIC OUTLINE
- Evaluate critically anxiety management techniques in improving performance, participation in physical activity and in sustaining a balanced, active and healthy lifestyle.

#### LEARNING OUTCOMES
- that links the control of anxiety to improving performance and or to increase participation for a healthy lifestyle.
# Marks and grades

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**Personality**

What do we mean by the term Personality?
- P involves the unique sum of characteristics of an individual.
- P involves consistent behaviour patterns.
- Individuals behave in different ways, so it is important to understand them.
- Better understanding can lead to better motivational / training strategies.
- Performers will relate better to those that understand them.
- Determines how we behave.
- Global predisposition to behave in certain way - stable.

We study personality because psychologists believe they can understand and predict an individual's behaviour from the personality characteristics they possess.

What are these personality characteristics? Traits
- Determination, dedication, confidence, ruggedness, courage, control of emotions, intelligence, self-belief, exuberance, coping with pressure, conscientiousness, communication, optimism, concentration, alertness, respect for authority, loyalty, leadership skills, motivation.

"Personality is the sum total of an individual’s characteristics which makes him/her unique." *Hollander 1971 P.394.

"...the pattern of psychological and behavioural characteristics by which a person can be compared and contrasted with other people." *Bernstein 1988 P.504*

ALL ABOUT UNIQUENESS
Nature V Nurture

Are we what we are because of birth (inherited factors) or are what we are because of social process (upbringing and experiences of life)? What really shapes our Personality?

Some believe in Personality Traits others believe in Situational Factors. Most psychologists now believe that it is a combination of the two. Sport does provide an opportunity to display aspects of their personality that they would not normally display in everyday life. People’s personalities change when placed in a sporting situation.

'When attempting to explain and understand a persons behaviour we must take into account a number of factors which include his/her personality along with situational variables such as the environmental setting, competitive demand and significant others'.

Is there a Sporting Personality?

Sports psychologists often discuss if personality determines the sport that we take up? What do you think? Does a top class snooker player share the same sort of personality as an international volleyball player or world champion boxer? Research is inconclusive, but

- Successful athletes display drive, determination, leadership and self confidence.
- Successful athletes have a more positive outlook. (Morgan)
- Sport can certainly affect personality. The demands of a sport dictate particular responses. E.g. Boxers must be aggressive, snooker players need to be calm.
- Sports people do tend to show traits of extroversion, enthusiasm and aggression. (Butt)
- People in teams are more extrovert than those playing individual sports. (Davis)

Unfortunately this is very hard to prove and is very theory based. However, there are some conclusions to be drawn from the above information.
The structure of Personality

Hollander defined Personality as the sum of the characteristics that make an individual unique. He suggested that Personality has three distinct layers.
1 - The Psychological Core
2 - Typical Response (Middle Layer)
3 - Role Related Behaviour (Outer Layer)

The Psychological Core - this is the real you. This is the central component to our personality. We rarely allow others to see this. Permanent, internal, stable reactions that is hard to change. This is our attitudes and values that remain relatively consistent and that influence our typical responses. Unaffected by the environment. E.g. A strong belief about killing animals might influence our typical response about eating meat.

Typical Responses or Trait - This is the way in which we normally respond to situations, a constant trait. This is closely linked with attitudes and values from the core. E.g. If a rugby player believes that there is never an excuse for violence then he is unlikely to behave in a violent fashion. If a player believes in sportsmanship then they may well call the ball out correctly in a tennis match or admit to the ball hitting a foot in hockey.

Role Related Behaviour - This is very external and dynamic. People change their responses to situations depending upon their perception of the situation/environment. This will probably bear little resemblance to the core because of the changing influence of the environment. This then tends us to revert to learned behaviour. E.g. If the rugby player believes that there is never an excuse for violence, he still might in a particular situation use violence, such as stamping on a player in a ruck because they are impeding the game.

Sport most certainly throws up many examples of players who are very different on and off the field. Can you think of a few examples?
It is certainly suggested that the further away from the core we go then the more likely it is that our behaviour will change.
Theories of Personality

Psychoanalytic Perspective

Sigmund Freud (1856 - 1939), the father of psychoanalytic theory, saw personality as instincts driving us to behave in particular ways. These instincts are innate, they are inherited at birth from our parents and achievement of the drive leads to satisfaction. These instincts fit into opposing categories life and death instincts.

Freud suggests that our personality and behaviour are outside of our conscious control. We do things not to gain rewards but to satisfy some form of drive.

He suggests that there are 3 components to the mind: id, ego and super ego.

id - basic biological determinant in our behaviour that exist to seek pleasure, includes food, love and sex.
ego - we behave so as not to damage ourselves, control or protection measure. What we have learnt to be, the ego is seen as our self. The window through which we present ourselves. The ego can be damaging with either life or death instincts. Death instincts lead to destructive effects on performance. The ego is the part of the personality that contains rationale and logic, enabling us to distinguish between a desire and reality.
super ego - This represents the ideal self based on the image of our parents. The person that we want to be. This is dictated by moral values. However, this can lead to conflict and guilt if we do not live up to this level. “Should not retaliate” if you do it leads to a feeling of guilt.

There are limitations to the use of this theory. The unconscious aspect of the theory makes it difficult to understand what causes a certain effect and it cannot predict future behaviour. Research is based on case studies only so generalisations can be difficult to make. It also requires a psychoanalyst to fathom it out!

Interactionist Perspective

Hollander believes that Personality is only one element that influences our behaviour.

B = F (P/E)

Behaviour is a function of personality and the environment in which we live. Interaction between personality and situation determines our behaviour. This suggests that we behave in a way that is governed by our core personality (traits) but act in a way that suits the situation. This is a sensible approach. It allows us to behave differently in different situations. Our behaviour changes
depending upon where we are, who we are with and what the situation demands from us.

We behave differently playing for the county to what we would in a PE lesson.

The most recent research suggests that personality is developed through a combination of inherited traits and what we learn from others. It is thought that the ratio is about 60:40 in favour of the inherited traits.

The Interactionist Model
A & B Types

Friedman & Rosenmann ’74 came up with 2 types of personality A & B.
A – Impatient, rapid speech, excessively competitive, intolerable and hostile.
Have a strong desire to succeed. Exhibit high levels of alertness and are easily aroused. Work at a fast pace. Find it hard to delegate. Need to be in control.
Experience high levels of stress.
B - Less competitive, less hostile, patient, easy going.
Be more relaxed. Delegate easily. Be tolerant. Allow time for jobs to be completed. Experience low levels of stress.
Type A more prone to heart disease.

Study by Hinckle et al found that 96 runners type A ran more often than type B when not motivated.

"Personality influencing behaviour"

Biological theories

Based on the premise that a person’s personality is associated with biological processes.
Sheldon 1942 Somatotypes related to personality

Ectomorph (Linearity) - tense, inhibited, introvert
Endomorph (Plumpness) - sociable, warm, complacent, affectionate, comfort-loving
Mesomorph (Muscularity) - noisy, callous, fond of physical activity, risk taker, extrovert
Eysenck backs this up. Trait theory partly based on biological processes
Introversion - Extroversion dimension
Trait theory

Suggest a person’s personality consists of a number of different personality characteristics. Trait theory has 3 basic assumptions.

1. Each person has a stable long lasting disposition to display certain behaviours, attitudes and emotions. Personality does not change over time. E.g. An aggressive person will always stay aggressive.

2. An individual’s traits predispose them to act in a certain way. The situation they are in has a minimal effect. E.g. an anxious person will be anxious irrespective of playing in a big match or speaking in front of an audience. It is suggested that people cannot help the way that they act because personality is determined at birth depending upon the characteristics inherited by a child from its parents.

3. Each person has a different set of characteristics at varying strengths resulting in a unique pattern for each person. These are all arranged in a hierarchy with the strongest at the top and the weakest at the bottom. We are most likely to display our strongest traits and least likely to display our weakest traits. This results in an endless variety of human personalities.

Example of hierarchical organisation of traits.

- List personality characteristics, which you believe, are associated with elite performers in the following sports. Boxer, Ice dancer, Mountaineering, XC runner, Footballer.
- What characteristics do elite sportsmen have in common?
- Which characteristics do you feel are unique to each sport?
1 - Eysenck said there were 2 dimensions in an individual’s personality. Each dimension is on a continuum rated 1 - 24; most people fall between the two extremes and exhibit traits of both. Later he added the 3rd dimension.

**Eysenck’s Personality dimensions**

- **Extroversion**
  - Sociable, impulsive,
  - Active, lively excitable
- **Introversion**
  - Shy, withdrawn,
  - Quiet
- **Neuroticism (Unstable)**
  - Unhappy, anxious
  - Obsessive, guilty
- **Psychoticism**
  - Aggressive, egocentric,
  - Anti social, self centred
- **Stability**
  - Even tempered, reliable
  - Calm, relaxed
- **Self Control**
  - Kind, considerate

![Diagram of Eysenck's Personality Dimensions](image-url)
According to Eysenck the trait that is most likely to be displayed is known as the personality type. Below the personality type (in the hierarchy) is a group of strong traits known as personality traits. Below the personality traits there are a group of weaker traits called general habits.

Eysenck said that a person can be located anywhere along the three dimensions. Introverts are: passive, quiet and unsociable. Extroverts are: sociable, outgoing and active. Emotional stability is characterised by being: calm, even tempered, carefree. Emotional instability is characterised by being: moody, anxious and rigid. Introverts are more easily aroused than extroverts. Introverts obey the rules, are more liable to be more restrained and prefer working alone. Extroverts prefer working in groups.

Introverted people generally have a fairly highly aroused nervous system. Extroverted people generally have an under aroused nervous system.

Therefore: Everyone has an optimum level of psychological arousal, which they seek to attain this leads to different patterns of behaviour in Intro & Extro people. Introverts lower their arousal levels and try to avoid external stimulation. E.g. follow rules, quiet life. Extroverts seek to increase their arousal levels through external stimulation and seek exciting situations and change E.g. parties, bungee jumping.

Task
What sort of behavioural responses would you expect?

a) An introverted player to exhibit
   b) An extroverted player to exhibit

a) Not seeking challenges or taking risks – performance levels consistent
   b) Excitable takes risks reacts emotionally performance level fluctuates and lacks consistency
Eysenck's personality circle: the four quadrants.

- **Extroverted**
  - Sociable
  - Outgoing
  - Talkative
  - Responsive
  - Easygoing
  - Lively
  - Carefree
  - Leadership

- **Introverted**
  - Moody
  - Anxious
  - Rigid
  - Sober
  - Pessimistic
  - Reserved
  - Unsociable
  - Quiet

- **Stable**
  - Passive
  - Careful
  - Thoughtful
  - Peaceful
  - Controlled
  - Reliable
  - Even-tempered
  - Calm

- **Unstable**
  - Touchy
  - Restless
  - Aggressive
  - Excitable
  - Changeable
  - Impulsiveness
  - Optimistic
  - Active

**Quadrants:**
- **Introverted**
- **Stable**
- **Extroverted**
- **Unstable**
According to Cattell, a hierarchy of personality traits exists with source traits at the top. These are behaviours which do not vary and are most likely to be displayed. On a lower level are surface traits which are groups of behaviour which are displayed at varying levels on intensity and regularity.

16 personality factors 1973 Questionnaire
Factor analysis in a number of observed and reported traits, he came up with 16 personality factors - Source Traits
Source Traits influence observable behaviour, he described traits that people exhibited in their observable behaviour and surface traits. E.g. friendliness would be a surface trait.

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<td>Shrewd</td>
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<tr>
<td>Self Assured</td>
<td>Apprehensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>Experimenting</td>
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<tr>
<td>Group Orientated</td>
<td>Self Sufficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undisciplined</td>
<td>Controlled</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relaxed</td>
<td>Tense</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Social Learning Theory (Bandura)

Explains behaviour in terms of the reaction to specific situations. We learn to deal with situations by observing others or by observing the results of our own behaviour on others, and by modelling our own behaviour on what we have seen.

Bandura suggested that "Behaviour is determined by the situation and we gain social approval or disapproval depending upon our responses."

More emphasis on environmental factors not inbuilt traits. It suggests that a person's interpretation of an environmental situation is crucial.

The way in which we perceive the situation. E.g. if a coach talks fair play and we believe it we will adopt it.

Bandura said that:
1 - People behave differently in different situations.
2 - Personality is learned.
3 - Personality is learned through: Socialisation, Observational Learning, Modelling, Vicarious Conditioning.

The main difference between the Social Learning Theory and the Trait Theory is the importance of the environment. SLT states that the response to a stimulus cannot be predicted, people can consciously change their response depending upon the situation.

If you got punched in a game of rugby then trait theory suggests that if you were an aggressive person then you would punch back. However, SLT suggests that the response would depend on the situation. (How hard you were hit, by whom, in what environment, and what choices you had.)

Observational Learning - This is the learning of behaviours by simply watching others. The people observed are known as models.

Modelling - Observational learning is also known as modelling. Remember that you can model both good and bad behaviour.

Vicarious Conditioning - This is the learning of emotional responses through observational learning.

Socialisation - The greatest amount of learning takes place at an early age through socialisation. This is the process by which society trains children to behave like adults. We learn the correct values and patterns of behaviour and our status and role in society. Quite obviously PE and Sport can act as part of the socialisation process. Sport is seen as developing fair play, tolerance, cooperation, teamwork, and determination.
Bandura felt that this model had 4 stages. (See later notes.)

1 - Attention Processes - What to look for in the model's performance.
2 - Retention Processes - How to remember the model's performance.
3 - Motor reproduction - How to copy the model's performance.
4 - Motivational Processes - The reasons why a person would want to copy the model's performance.

Whether or not a person decides to copy the performance of a model depends upon a number of factors. Modelling behaviour is likely if:

- The model is perceived as having high status. Models which command power or respect are more likely to be copied.
- The model's behaviour is perceived as being relevant to the subject. Same position etc.
- The model is of similar age and same sex.
- The model's behaviour is reinforced. A person seeing behaviour rewarded is more likely to copy that behaviour. Similarly, if the learner's behaviour is rewarded then that is more likely to be repeated.
**Measurement of Personality**

4 major ways:
1 - Interviews
2 - Questionnaires (Personality Inventories)
3 - Observations
4 - Physiological Measures

Task - What are the pros and cons of each one?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>Quick, cheap &amp; easy&lt;br&gt;Easy to set up&lt;br&gt;Deals with lots of information&lt;br&gt;Results comparable&lt;br&gt;Easy to replicate&lt;br&gt;Data can be analysed&lt;br&gt;Reliability is high&lt;br&gt;Can be administered in the field&lt;br&gt;1: 100 ratio</td>
<td>Misunderstanding the question&lt;br&gt;Giving a socially acceptable answer&lt;br&gt;Not always reliable&lt;br&gt;Affected by mood&lt;br&gt;People can lie&lt;br&gt;People can’t assess their own situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>True to life&lt;br&gt;In the sport setting&lt;br&gt;Provides lots of information</td>
<td>Observer bias&lt;br&gt;Subjective&lt;br&gt;Being watched causes performer to change behaviour&lt;br&gt;Hard to compare data between two people&lt;br&gt;Very time consuming&lt;br&gt;Expensive&lt;br&gt;Open to misinterpretation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physiological Measures</td>
<td>Accurate measure done during performance</td>
<td>Restrictive to performance&lt;br&gt;Being wired up causes stress&lt;br&gt;May not be done correctly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Cover the topic fully, answers not prescriptive&lt;br&gt;Can clarify the question and give more depth&lt;br&gt;Non verbal can reveal a lot&lt;br&gt;Questions can be open ended, thus leading the response&lt;br&gt;Validity is high&lt;br&gt;Can discover issues</td>
<td>Very time consuming and needs time to transcribe&lt;br&gt;Hard to compare data between two people&lt;br&gt;People might give a socially acceptable answer&lt;br&gt;Questions and answers&lt;br&gt;Reliability can be low both misunderstood&lt;br&gt;People might lie</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Questionnaires -

Eysenck Personality Inventory
- Measures 2 dimensions, neuroticism - stability, introversion - extroversion
- 24 questions, "yes" or "no"

Cattell 16 Personality factors
- 16 primary factors or primary traits are measured
- 187 statements, "yes", "occasionally" or "no"
- The test gives a score for each of the personality factors

MMPI Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory
- 550 statements which are answered with “true” or “false”
- the strength of feeling is found by using a scale
- The MMPI was designed to be used by trained psychologists and is not a sport specific test.

Personality Research in Sport

Major aim to identify factors associated with people who participate in sport and people who are particularly successful in sport.

Personality in sport is driven by three main questions:
1-Do people participate in sport because of a certain personality?
2-Can participating in sport modify your personality?
3-Are certain personalities attributes important to achieving success in sport?

1-Yes some evidence suggests this. Hardman '73 certain traits associated with sports participation, High intelligence, assertiveness, enthusiasm, low shyness, tension.
Vealy '92 suggests no clear pattern between athletes and non-athletes
Reason-How people define attributes, sport is so varied.
Ogilvie suggests that successful athletes display drive, determination, leadership and self confidence.

2-Does sport play a positive or negative role in society?
Webb '69 Winning most important thing more than fair play, negative. Boxing makes you aggressive. In general research suggests that participating in sport have a limited effect on individual’s personality.

"Many factors influence and individuals personality for example, genetics, family, friends and significant life events. While the experiences that an individual has through sport can help to shape their personality there are also many other important influences."

3-1971 McNair Profile of Mood States POMS
Questionnaire of a person's mood states, 6 mood states get measured.
Tension, Anger, Fatigue, Depression, Vigour, Confusion.
Morgan 1978 successful athletes show a unique mood profile before competing compared with non-athletes.
Profile plotted called Iceberg Profile
Positive mood state lies above the norm for the population.
Terry 1985 POMS is limited to closed skills only of short duration.

POMS may be influenced by how an opponent reacts, we have no control over this, long duration event allows for a change in POMS. Moods may fluctuate over time.

An individual performance in competition is influenced by many factors. The Athletes own ability, opponent’s ability, luck and match officials. Therefore, it is very difficult to accurately predict a personality formula to be a successful athlete.

SUMMARY

- An individuals personality consists of many different characteristics
- A number of theories exist which aim to explain how we acquire personality. They now suggest it is a mixture of hereditary and environmental factors.
- Personality can be assessed through observation, interviews, questionnaires and physiological measurements.
- There is no clear evidence to state why people take part in specific sports.
- No clear evidence to state that a particular sport will affect your personality.
- Research has failed to show that particular personality attributes can reliable be used to predict success in sport.
PERSONALITY PROFILING

“A system which classifies an individual into a particular personality type”

Q. How might personality profiling help a coach?

Q. There are serious limitations to personality profiling in sport. Can you explain the limitation to the key word?

PROOF

EVIDENCE

SUBJECTIVITY

INVALIDITY

MODIFICATION

RELIABILITY

STEREOTYPING

Q. Explain the three personality approaches, which one do you believe to be most effective, and which do you believe to be least effective?
PERSONALITY

THE SUM TOTAL OF INDIVIDUAL
CHARACTERISTICS WHICH MAKES A PERSON UNIQUE
KNOWLEDGE & UNDERSTANDING OF TRAIT,
INTERACTIONIST & SOCIAL LEARNING PERSPECTIVE

TRAIT - BEHAVIOURS INHERITED FROM PARENTS,
INNATE & GENETICALLY PROGRAMMED. THEY ARE
STABLE ENDURING & CONSISTENT
BEHAVIOUR IS THE FUNCTION OF PERSONALITY
B=F(P)
EYSENCK & CATTELL: PERSONALITY TYPES,
GIRDANO: NARROW BAND THEORY (TYPE A, TYPE B)

I USED TO BE THE BEST
FOOTBALLER, SO WILL YOU BE!

PERSONALITY PROFILING: USED
BY PSYCHOLOGISTS TO
IDENTIFY TRAITS THAT SUIT
SPORTS, AND LIFELONG
PARTICIPATION.
QUESTIONNAIRES, INTERVIEWS
& CATTELL-LPIF TEST
ALTHOUGH IT LACKS PROOF &
EVIDENCE, IT IS SUBJECTIVE
AND CAN RESULT IN
STEREOTYPING

SOCIAL LEARNING - ALL BEHAVIOUR IS
LEARNED FROM THE ENVIRONMENT AND
SIGNIFICANT OTHERS.
BEHAVIOUR IS THE FUNCTION OF
ENVIRONMENT (B=F(E))
BANDURA - IMITATION & REINFORCEMENT

INTERACTIONIST - THREE LEVELS
INTERACT TOGETHER TO FORM
PERSONALITY.
- PERSONALITY
- TYPICAL RESPONSE
- ROLE-RELATED BEHAVIOUR
BEHAVIOUR IS THE FUNCTION OF
PERSONALITY & THE ENVIRONMENT
(B=F(P&E))
HOLLANDER - COMBINATION OF TRAIT &
SOCIAL LEARNING
Personality Exam Questions

Qu 1
(a) In the past, managers / coaches and captains have been described as being "born to the job". Discuss and evaluate this theory in relation to modern psychological theories. (4 marks)

(b) The interactionist approach to the study of personality includes many social learning theories and emphasises the influence of the situation in determining a person's behaviour.

(i) Describe the main features of the Interactional approach. (2 marks)

(ii) Briefly discuss the major problems in their implementation and value of personality tests in sport. (3 marks)

Answer
Qu 1
(a) Eysenck and Cattell - personality due to innate, stable characteristics - trait theory.
Suggests that personality is unchanging in all situations, but now more widely accepted that environment affects behaviour.

(b) (i) Behaviour is a function of our personality and the environment

(ii) Testing personality is difficult. Three methods are available, all of which have limitations. Questionnaire respondents may not give truthful answers, and questionnaires may lack validity. Interviews may be misinterpreted and lack reliability. Observations may involve misinterpretations and also have low reliability.
Describe theories related to personality and how they affect sports performance. Evaluate critically personality profiling in sport.

1. Define the term personality? (2mks)
2. Outline the 'Trait' approach? (2mks)
3. What are the disadvantages of the Trait theory? (4mks)
4. What is the 'Social Learning' theory, explain using two examples from sport? (4mks)
5. List 6 ways in which a coach might use personality theory to help an athlete during training and competition? (4mks)
6. How can personality be related to personal choice and performance in sport? (4mks)
7. What is the 'Interactionist' theory? Explain how this could be useful for a coach? (4mks)
8. Type A and Type B personalities form part of the trait approach, give two characteristics of Type A and two characteristics of Type B personalities (4mks)
9. Of all the Personality theories you have studied, which one do you believe to be most effective, and which do you believe to be least effective? Explain your answer? (6mks)

Explain the different ways in which personality can be measured, giving disadvantages and advantages for them (6mks)
Are Top Athletes Born or Made?

• By Mauro van de Looij

Have you ever seen the television series Made (MTV)? On this show one person wants to change his or her life and often wants to be ‘made’ the person of his or her dreams. Remember the girls wanting to be made popstars and the guys sport jocks? Whether you liked the show or not, it was a great format to help people become what they wanted to be. Now, let me ask you a question: do you think it is possible to be made in accordance with your dreams? Do you think top athletes are born or made?

More often than not you hear people credit quality to talent. For example, a football commentator may enthusiastically shout out loud: “What a goal! This kid is amazingly talented!” Exactly what does talented mean? Does the commentator mean the player has incredible innate abilities which make him such a good striker? I reckon he does. Is he, then, right about attributing this player’s quality to born characteristics? I believe he is not. Honestly, I reckon him - and his colleagues - to be way off with such an attribution.
Allow me to clarify myself on this one. First of all, I believe your quality as a top athlete to consist of three aspects: innate abilities (talent), ability + motivation to learn & practice time. Innate abilities are of course the gifts you got from your parents (height for example). Ability + motivation to learn are necessary for developing, without it you will not develop (your talent). Practice time is the amount of time spent practicing, the more time you spend the higher your quality will be.

Secondly there is a lot of research that has found effort, practice and learning to be more important than talent (e.g. Jowett, & Spray, 2013). In order to make my belief more credible I will discuss two examples that perfectly endorse my view that it takes more, a lot more, than sole talent to become an athlete of world class status. I bring to you Cristiano Ronaldo and Lionel Messi – considered by many the best football players on the planet at this very moment. A lot of people speak about their giftedness and talent for football. Is that truly all it took them to become world class on the pitch? For my master's research (about GrowthMindset and Goal Orientations in Football) I took a look in their history and development. As it turns out both Ronaldo and Messi have walked a similar path to become the quality players we know now. Heads up: it took them more than just talent!

When they were young they both enjoyed football greatly and had a very strong desire to become a professional football player. Therefore they have been playing football a lot during their younger years starting from around the age of 5. When about 12 years of age Ronaldo and Messi left their families for a place in a European Youth Football Academy (Ronaldo – Sporting Lisbon, Messi – FC Barcelona). Besides the shared dream they are also characterized for (and still have) their discipline to make the football dream come true. As opposed to loads of young boys who share the same dream, Ronaldo and Messi showed the discipline necessary in making this dream reality. The discipline consists of training, practicing and learning. Throughout the teenage years they cared about and were busy with only one thing: the ball.

Were Messi and Ronaldo nothing special when they were young then? Of course they possessed qualities at a young age, otherwise they would not have been given the chance at an European Youth Football Academy. How did they develop then? According to youth coaches Messi had something special at a young age, though he had a growth hormone deficit meaning he was delayed in his growth. Within FC Barcelona controversy existed about Messi and his opportunity to become a professional football player. Eventually they took chances and were the only club willing and able to pay for the medical bills. Messi was offered the opportunity to make his dream come true at La Masia. To make it clear: even at that stage FC Barcelona were all but certain whether Messi could reach the professional football level. Imagine for a second that FC Barcelona had not given Messi that chance, we probably would have never heard of him because he would
not have had the opportunity to develop and improve his qualities (and deal with his medical setback). So Messi had to come a long way. Ronaldo stated his mom could have never guessed him to become such a great football player when he was young. This means it has never been a fact that Ronaldo would become one based upon his talent. For both Messi and Ronaldo nobody knew for sure they would be a professional football player in the future. Then what has been the key for Messi and Ronaldo? Practice! According to Ericsson (2006) – who is a psychologist – we need 10,000 hours of deliberate practice to become an expert in that field. If you have a dream, make sure you will reach that amount of hours to make it become reality. Now taken this into account, I reckon Ronaldo and Messi have passed this amount of hours easily by now and may even have in their early twenties already. Could that be a reason for them winning the Ballon d’Or (Ronaldo – 2008, Messi – 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012)?

According to former teammates Ronaldo was always the first and the last person on the trainings ground. Goalkeeper van der Sar: “After training he was always practicing his free kick. If he needed a goalkeeper, to him I was the only option. If I asked him whether another goalkeeper could defend the goal during his free kick training he replied ‘I only want to train with the best so I can become the best’. Now that got me motivated alright.” Former manager Sir Alex Ferguson: “Ronaldo’s discipline was fantastic. I always saw him to be first and last on the pitch. Besides he wouldn’t give 100%, he gave 120%! Every time again.” Ruud van Nistelrooij who played alongside Ronaldo up front at Man United says: “He is so complete. He trained and still trains every aspect of the game to become the best he can be. Heading, free kicks, two feetedness, corner kicks, everything he practices. He is always training.” Teammate Gerard Pique at FC Barcelona about Lionel Messi: “Aside from all the talent he’s got, it’s true that Messi learnt a lot at Barcelona. I don’t know if Messi would be what he is today if he had left the club.”

Well, what has been key in becoming world class players for Ronaldo and Messi? Practice, right! And let me ask you again, do you believe top athletes are born or made? I reckon you will say it is possible to be made a top athlete. Then why, you might ask, do ‘we’ attribute quality to talent? How come the commentator shouts out ‘what an amazing talented player’? Good question!

The answer, I think, lies in the so called fundamental attribution error-phenomenon. Did you ever go for lunch and experienced the waiter or waitress to be unfriendly to you? What attribution did or would you make for this waiter’s odd behavior? Probably you say this waiter is not a nice guy at all, he might even be a schmuck and not fit for the job like the way he is (not) serving you. This attribution is perfectly understandable as our minds have not got the time, energy or interest to take all circumstances that could influence someone’s behavior into account. However maybe the waiter had a bad day – he got dumped by his girlfriend, he failed for his driving license or has been bothered by other
customers all day long – and consequently could not be friendly to you. If you think about such a scenario then can you understand the waiter's behavior (better)? In essence the waiter's example is exactly what we do regarding athletes. We forget to look to the history and development of top athletes. Don't get me wrong I understand attributing behavior (quality on the pitch) to the person (talent) perfectly, but to say the very least it hardly ever is the correct attribution to make.

Therefore try to take circumstances into account for you may be less frustrated. As for sports, imagine young children playing a nice game of football. If they believe talent is all it takes to become a professional football player, your chances of becoming one are less than 1% or so for there's always a person out there who's more talented than you are. Therefore you might lose interest, don't try as hard as you could and may even quit playing. Now, if we all start believing and expressing it took likes as Ronaldo, Messi, Federer, Nadal, Tiger Woods many hours of practice, effort and learning to become such great athletes maybe our kids will learn to appreciate the value of working hard. Maybe they will add the discipline necessary for their dream to come true. And what is more beautiful than our dreams coming true?

I would like to conclude stating top athletes are made and never born. However if you happen to find a baby doing all the tricks our top athletes do nowadays, I am more than interested in hearing more about this little genius. To underline that it takes effort more than talent, I have to confess I have rewritten this article a few times before it went public for you to read. To me, practice does make perfect!

Mauro van de Looij

Sports & Achievement Psychologist and
Child Psychologist

If you want to know more, have a question or a remark feel free to contact me through: maurovandelooij@hotmail.com


http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iHkHTpuGaD8 (CNN Documentary about Cristiano Ronaldo)

http://www.dailymotion.com/video/xpas6i_messi-belgeseli-ingilizce_sport (ITV Documentary about Lionel Messi)
Attitudes

Attitudes = enduring opinions about objects and/or situations - predispose individuals to certain behaviours.
Attitudes can be positive – encouraging involvement, or negative – discouraging involvement.
Baron and Byrne (1977) attitudes are "relatively enduring organisations of feelings, beliefs and behaviour tendencies toward other persons, groups, ideas or objects".
Attitudes can effect behaviour positively or negatively.
Predispositions that can affect behaviour towards an attitude object.

Example: a basketball player who plays against American players may have the attitude of seemingly not trying very hard because he/she may hold the belief that American players cannot be beaten.

Different elements which make up attitudes:

The Triadic Model:

Three components of attitudes -
- cognitive - concerned with beliefs
- affective (emotional) - refers to evaluation - reflects values.
- behavioural - refers to behaviour.

COGNITIVE - The belief aspect.
Example: you have a positive attitude to sport because you believe that it is good for you.

AFFECTIVE - The emotional aspect.
Example: you have a positive attitude to sport because you enjoy sport.

BEHAVIOURAL - The way in which we act towards an attitude object.
Example: you have a positive attitude to sport because you regularly participate.

FORMATION of ATTITUDES

Summary of attitudes:
- learned through experience.
- predispose people to respond in certain way.
- consistent.
- behaviour reflects evaluative component.

Beliefs → Attitudes → Intentions → Behaviour

Values

Attitudes and Behaviour
Low relationship between attitude and behaviour.
Fishbein (1975) - consider specific attitude to predict specific behaviours.
Factors other than attitudes affect behaviour. Best predictor of behaviour = behavioural intention.
Fishbein’s model proposes that:
- Specific attitudes towards behavioural act are considered to predict behaviour.
- Attitudes towards behaviour predict behavioural intentions.
- Behavioural intentions predict actual behaviour.

Changing Attitudes
Forcing person to act in way contrary to his attitude - may exert influence to change attitude.

1. PERSUASION
   From someone of high status, with a relevant message.

   Example: a high status coach improves the motivational attitude of a gymnast because he/she shows confidence in the ability of the gymnast.

2. COGNITIVE DISSONANCE
   The changing of one aspect of the triadic model will cause dissonance. And the person involved will seek to change the other elements.

   Example: if the positive health benefits of exercise were emphasised, this may change beliefs, which in turn may well change behaviour.

Attitude change more effective if:
   • Freedom of choice.
   • Persuader = high status model.
   • Action follows communication.
   • Quality message.
   • Two sided argument.

Last two = persuasive communication - aimed at cognitive components of attitudes - causes cognitive dissonance.

People like to be consistent across components of attitudes. If two elements are in conflict - dissonance (disharmony) created.

How to reduce dissonance:

1. Change one of the elements - become more consistent in attitude.

2. Reduce importance of one of the elements.

Summary of why people hold positive or negative attitudes towards Physical Education and Sport:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive attitude</th>
<th>Negative attitude</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exercise is important for health.</td>
<td>Exercise is harmful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy the competition</td>
<td>Fear failure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity is a social norm</td>
<td>Low status activity amongst friends/family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excited by challenge</td>
<td>Fear of the unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Expression</td>
<td>Gender race constraints</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Measuring Attitudes

By questionnaire, self-reports, behavioural observations or physiological measures. Questionnaires popular -

1. Observation
2. Physiological tests

3. Attitude scales (questionnaires)
   This is the most popular but may be inaccurate.
   - Thurstone scales
   - Likert scales
   - Osgood’s Semantic Differential

PREJUDICE - This is a pre-judgement of a person or group or situation.

- Judgement based on small amount of experience and inadequate information.
- Some judgements based on information that is incorrect but is passed on to reinforce stereotypes and therefore prejudice.
- Example: gender prejudice in sport when a woman tries to join a golf club and finds difficulty in gaining full membership, whereas a man of similar ability is accepted.
Attitudes Exam Questions

Qu 1
(a) ‘Elite games players usually have a good attitude to their sport’. What do you understand by the term attitude and how could an athlete’s attitude be measured? (2 marks)
(b) Explain how a person’s commitment to competitive sport may be affected by their attitudes, and suggest ways that a coach could help a performer improve their attitudes towards involvement with a team. (4 marks)

Answers
Qu 1
(a) Subjective evaluation by individual of someone. Measured by questionnaire
(b) Positive attitude will tend to promote commitment, through emphasising the success elements of involvement with team. Use could be made of goal-setting and extrinsic motivation, or by assigning appropriate role/responsibility within team. Attitudes may be changed through use of cognitive dissonance.

1. What do we mean by the term attitude? [1]
2. Explain how attitudes in sport can be formed? [6]
3. What do we mean by the term prejudice and how does it manifest itself in sport? [4]
4. Use practical examples to describe the components of a positive attitude towards training and performance. What influences a positive attitude to training and performance?

If you wished to change a young person’s negative attitude to sport into a positive one, what strategies would you employ? Use psychological theory to back up your answer.

Observing behavior is one method of measuring attitudes, what are the advantages and disadvantages of such a method? [20]

The following is a typical statement from a young person who has given up sport and leads an unhealthy lifestyle.

"I think sport is boring. I am no good at it, I don’t enjoy it and I can think of better things to do on a Saturday afternoon."

Using attitudinal theories, evaluate critically the reasons why this young person does not take part in sport.
ATTITUDE

A LEARNED EMOTIONAL & BEHAVIOURAL RESPONSE TO A STIMULUS OR SITUATION, THEY ARE ENDURING BUT UNSTABLE – MENDICK

EXPERIENCES – EITHER PLEASANT OR UNPLEASANT ATTITUDE OF OTHERS AROUND US – SOCIALISATION, FREE GROUPS & CULTURE

THREE COMPONENTS OF THE TRIADIC MODEL FOR ATTITUDE FORMATION

COGNITIVE – WHAT YOU BELIEVE TO BE TRUE (MAY NOT ACTUALLY BE TRUE!)

AFFECTIVE – YOUR FEELINGS OR EMOTIONAL RESPONSE

BEHAVIOURAL – YOUR INTENDED BEHAVIOUR DEPENDANT ON YOUR ATTITUDE

COGNITIVE DISSONANCE: Festinger – CREATE EMOTIONAL CONFLICT BY CHANGING ONE ELEMENT OF THE MODEL. GET THEM TO THINK DIFFERENTLY, ACT DIFFERENTLY AND THEY WILL FEEL DIFFERENT

PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION: CHANGING ATTITUDES BY PERSUASION

PERSUADER: SIGNIFICANT OTHER
MESSAGE: CLEAR, CONCISE & EFFECTIVE
RECIPIENT: INDIVIDUAL OPEN TO CHANGE
SITUATION: MORE PERSUADERS, THE MORE POWERFUL THE MESSAGE

POSITIVE ATTITUDE DOESN’T MEAN POSITIVE BEHAVIOUR, SOCIAL AND SITUATIONAL FACTORS CAN STAND IN THE WAY. BEHAVIOURAL INTENT IS A COMMITMENT, POSITIVE ATTITUDE IS REINFORCED BY OTHERS RESULTING IN POSITIVE COGNITIVE, AFFECTIVE & BEHAVIOURAL ACTIONS

THIS PROGRAMME WILL IMPROVE YOUR FITNESS & LIFESTYLE

47
A further facet of personality found in sport is the degree of competitiveness shown by a performer. The degree to which a person accepts the prospect of a challenge in sport is called Achievement Motivation. Just like other aspects of personality, motivation can be instinctive, in that some people always want to compete, whatever. It can be nurtured through experience, in that we can be competitive and confident in sports that we have become good at; and it depends on the situation.

E.g., In a cup final with the score at 1 - 1, a penalty is awarded and one player refuses to take the penalty because he may miss and consequently lose self-esteem. He has the motive to avoid failure. Another player welcomes the chance to go for glory and is driven by the motive to achieve success. He will gain self-esteem if he scores.

The different levels of motivation to achieve are clearly visible in a group of children.

Task: State the characteristics of children who show different levels of motivation.

Achievement Motivation is usually defined as: "Approach and avoidance behaviours in situations where some form of evaluation takes place". Sports participation is often a clear example of creating situations where evaluation is high.

Atkinson and McClelland Theory - They believed that there were two characteristics of the individual that are related to achievement behaviour:

1 - The motive to avoid failure (Naf) is the factor which causes a person to try hard in order to avoid shame and humiliation.
   - avoids challenges, often gives up, afraid of failure, does not want feedback, avoids risks, blames failure on something other than themselves, give up after failure.
   - E.g., a climber who takes the easiest possible route to ensure success.
2 - The motive to achieve (Nach) is the factor which causes a person to strive in order to gain pride or satisfaction.
   - likes a challenge, likes feedback, not afraid of failure, high task persistence, completes task quickly and effectively, wants to get the task done, takes a risk, takes personal responsibility for their actions, try harder after failure.
   - E.g., a climber who will take the hardest route possible to gain the maximum satisfaction.

High achievers have high nach and low naf. They concentrate on success and do not worry about failure.

Low achievers have low nach and high naf. They worry about how they will feel if they fail.

The theory also states that achievement motivation is also influenced by perceptions of:
1 - the probability of succeeding on the task.
2 - the importance of the task.
3 - self-efficacy and confidence.
4 - experience.
5 - personality
6 - motivation

The achievement motivated child will seek challenging but realistic situations. Whereas children not highly motivated to succeed will be attracted to very easy tasks or very difficult tasks where no loss of self-esteem will occur in failure. (Weiner 1980)

It is also felt that the chances of success depend upon who you are competing against and the task difficulty. Also the incentive value of that success.

As a coach you should ensure that your team to maintain the motives to succeed by:
   - allow early success
   - raise self-efficacy
   - attribute success internally and failure externally
   - use rewards and reinforcement
   - promote intrinsic motivation with personal goals
   - show successful, attainable role models
   - re-define failure
   - control arousal

Two parts to our personality - a need to achieve (Nach) and a need to avoid failure (Naf).
Some people have a greater need to achieve than others - *Nach*-type personalities - they seek-out competitive situations, they have 'approach behaviours'.

Some people seem intent on avoiding competitive situations because they have a need/urge to avoid failure - *Naf*-type personalities, and have what is known as 'avoidance behaviours'.

These behaviours are more likely to occur when person in a situation where others are making judgements about their performance (an evaluative situation) - sport regularly involves this, and therefore thought that sport is more attractive to Nach-type personalities.

Suggestion that it is way different people interpret success that determines motivation.

Some see success as only occurring if they have beaten somebody else. Victory is everything, and a demonstration of superiority is all-important. Such individual's are said to be *ego-oriented*.

Others see success as being predominantly internal, due to own efforts and abilities, so that they don’t mind losing as long as they have gained a personal best. Such people as said to be "*task-oriented*".

Knowledge of type of motive a person has (questionnaire), can be beneficial in determining what type of motivational strategy should be adopted by a coach.

For example, if a performer's motives are essentially ego-oriented, then he/she should be set goals/targets that allow for comparison with others to be achieved.

Whereas, if the performer’s motives are task-oriented, then goals need to be set related to personal performance criteria.
Achievement Motivation Questions

Qu 1.
(a) The concept of achievement motivation has often been put forward to explain individual responses to competitive sport.

(i) Using examples from sport, explain what is meant by the terms 'need to achieve' and 'need to avoid failure'.

(ii) Identify a motivational strategy that you may use to ensure that a performer adopts the need to achieve approach.

Answers

(a) (i) Need to achieve personality types seek out competitive situation so that they can demonstrate their superiority over others. Need to avoid failure personality types will tend to avoid competition at all costs unless they feel they have absolutely no chance of winning.

(ii) The coach should arrange for situations to be found where success is virtually inevitable and guaranteed.
ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION LINKS PERSONALITY WITH COMPETITIVENESS - THE MOTIVATION TO ACHIEVE SUCCESS IN SPORT. IS IT NATURE, A PRODUCT OF LEARNING OR INTERACTIONIST.

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION VS. NEED TO ACHIEVE (NACH) VS. NEED TO AVOID FAILURE (NAF)

IN ORDER TO SUCCEED YOUR DESIRE SHOULD OUTWEIGH FEAR

BEHAVIOUR RESPONSE IS BEST PREDICTED WHEN THERE IS A 50/50 CHANCE OF SUCCESS. NACH PERFORMERS ACCEPT CHALLENGES, PERSIST WHEN FAIL & EXPECT TO SUCCEED. NAF PERFORMERS EXPERIENCE ANXIETY, REJECT CHALLENGES & BELIEVE FAILURE IS INEVITABLE.

MOTIVATION, CONFIDENCE AND ATTRIBUTION ARE ALL LINKED

SUCCESS

A DRAWBACK TO ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION IS SUCCESS CAN BE INTERPRETED IN DIFFERENT WAYS - EITHER WINNING AN EVENT / COMPETITION (ego orientated - ability and comparison to others) OR BY BEATING PERSONAL BEST / IMPROVING PERFORMANCE (task orientated - effort and comparison to self) GENERALLY ATHLETES FAVOUR TASK GOALS, WHEN NON-ATHLETES PREFER EGO GOALS.

The characteristics of high and low achievement motivation personality traits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High NACH personality characteristics</th>
<th>Low NACH personality characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High need to achieve</td>
<td>Low need to achieve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low need to avoid failure</td>
<td>High need to avoid failure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approach behaviour is adopted</td>
<td>Avoidance behaviour is adopted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge is accepted</td>
<td>Challenge is rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risks are undertaken</td>
<td>Risks are declined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shows persistence and perseverance when task is difficult</td>
<td>Curtails effort when task is difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success tends to be attributed to internal factors</td>
<td>Success tends to be attributed to external factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failure tends to be attributed to external factors</td>
<td>Failure is seen as a route to success</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failure is seen as a route to success</td>
<td>Aspire to mastery orientation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Achievement Motivation**

Whilst watching younger students work in PE identify the following:

5 characteristics of approach behaviours, those who are highly motivated:

The motive to achieve (Nach)

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<tr>
<td>4</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

5 characteristics of avoidance behaviours, those who show low levels of motivation:

The motive to avoid failure (Naf)

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<td>4</td>
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<td>5</td>
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Is what you are seeing part of our personality make up or is it something that can be learnt and developed?
Attribution Theory

Attribution theory is concerned with the reasons (attributions) performers give to their success or failure, winning or losing. The perceived causes of events or behaviour.

*Global* attributions "I'm no good at sport"

*Specific* attributions "I'm no good at tennis"

Attribution theory is linked to achievement motivation - individuals make attributions about successes and failures in achievement situations, and these attributions affect achievement motivation and behaviour.

Weiner suggested that high achievers and low achievers attribute success and failure to different reasons. Consequently, to become a high achiever the performer must think like a high achiever, the performer must make attributions like a high achiever.

High achievers attribute success to internal factors and failure to unstable factors - behaviour affected by pursuing more achievement situations, because in these situations - rewarded, through increase in pride.

High achievers attribute failure to unstable factors - encouraging them to try harder.

Low achievers attribute success externally - feel little pride in performing well and attribute failure to internal and stable factors.

Weiner came up with 4 main attributions based upon 2 dimensions.

```
  Ability     Locus of causality
    ↓           ↓
  Effort       Stability
    ↓           ↓
  Luck         Task Difficulty
```

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6WIVL_SgmN4
Attribution Theory 1
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7Rtc2CpZpxs
Attribution Theory 2
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Yfyy_CB0OX0
Attributional Retraining
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-24WK6pfmZU
*Ability* - "I’m not very good at tennis", or "our team had too strong a middle for them".

*Effort* - "we were really psyched-up to go all-out for that game", or "I tried as hard as I possibly could".

*Task Difficulty* - "they were the league leaders", "the moves we tried were just too complicated".

*Luck attributions* - "we got all the breaks", or, "they had the ref. on their side".

Weiner developed this by constructing the following model, which incorporated the locus of causality and stability.

Locus of causality - whether attribution is internal or external to performer

Tendency to attribute success internally and failure externally - self-serving bias - feel better about winning if due to own fitness, rather than thinking that you won because the ref was on your side.

Stability dimension - whether attribution is stable and unlikely to change over time, or unstable and changeable. Stability relates to our expectations for future success and failure - stable leads us to expect same outcomes again, whereas unstable leads us to expect different outcomes next time.

The Model (Weiner)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STABILITY</th>
<th>LOCUS OF CAUSALITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STABLE</td>
<td>INTERNAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNSTABLE</td>
<td>EXTERNAL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**A sports-specific model of attribution**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOCUS OF CAUSALITY</th>
<th>INTERNAL</th>
<th>EXTERNAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>STABLE</strong></td>
<td>PLAYING ABILITY</td>
<td>TASK DIFFICULTY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PERSONALITY</td>
<td>LEADERSHIP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CHARACTERISTICS</td>
<td>QUALITY OF OPPONENT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TRAINING</td>
<td>COACHING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FITNESS</td>
<td>EQUIPMENT</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PLAYING SURFACE</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>(CONSISTENT)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>STABILITY</strong></td>
<td>EFFORT</td>
<td>LUCK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>UNSTABLE</strong></td>
<td>PRACTICE</td>
<td>TAK DIFFICULTY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UNSTABLE</td>
<td>TEAMWORK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ABILITIES</td>
<td>OFFICIALS</td>
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<td></td>
<td>CONCENTRATION</td>
<td>PLAYING CONDITIONS</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>COMMUNICATION</td>
<td>WEATHER</td>
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<td></td>
<td>SELF-EFFICACY</td>
<td>PLAYING SURFACE</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AROUSAL LEVEL</td>
<td>(VARIABLE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>QUALITY OF OPPONENT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The locus of causality dimension or internal / external dimension refers to whether the performance outcome could be caused by factors under the control of the performer (ability & effort), or caused by factors beyond the control of the performer (difficulty & luck).

The stability dimension or stable / unstable dimension refers to whether the performance outcome is fixed and unchanging or can vary over time. Ability and task difficulty are stable and fixed during the period of performance. Effort and luck may change from performance to performance and within the performance.
The main points.

- Individuals often make internal attributions for success and external attributions for failure. We like to feel that we are responsible for success but that failure was due to factors beyond our control.
- The stability dimension in this theory is usually seen to be related to future expectations. If we attribute success or failure to stable factors, then next time we compete we will expect the same result.
- High and low achievers attribute success and failure to different factors.
- High achievers tend to attribute success to internal factors and failure to unstable factors.
- Low achievers tend to attribute success to external factors and failure to stable factors.
- Girls tend to have attributions consistent with those of low achievers. Boys tend to have higher expectations of success.

Learned Helplessness

Learned helplessness is the problem caused by continually attributing failure to internal and stable reasons that cannot be changed. We blame our failure on lack of ability and think that it is out of our control because we will never be able to change the situation. This is often evident in people with low self-esteem. It tends to spread. "I am no good at shooting in netball" - "I am no good at netball" - "I am no good at sport".

Performers with learned helplessness think that:
- failure is inevitable
- what they do makes little difference to the outcome
- success might be due to luck and not repeatable

Learned helplessness can be both global and specific. It can be based on lack of success, low confidence or a bad experience such as an injury. It occurs when reasons for failure are given as stable, internal and uncontrollable. A performer with this may well give up.

One way of overcoming learned helplessness is to promote a change in the attribution process. This is known as attributional retraining. Low achievers need this. Set goals at the correct level and guarantee some success.

This is all about the re-assessment of the reasons for failure. It is a move away from internal and stable reasons for losing and the promotion of changeable and external reasons instead.
Characteristics of self helplessness

- It can be specific to one activity or general to all
- Performer is usually outcome orientated
- It usually results from previous bad experiences
- Attributions to uncontrollable stable factors
- Perceptions of low ability (feels incompetent)
- Rarely tries new skills
- Experience initial failure in new skills confirms perceptions
- Feelings of embarrassment
- Future effort is limited (why bother? I'm no good)

The coach might:
- look at a change in tactics or blame the use of poor equipment for failure - "change your racket"
- use a positive approach - "you missed the ball because your head was not over it but you will get it next time"
- avoid citing lack of ability as a reason for failure
- make the reasons for losing less personal - "its not that you are no good,
- its is just a change in your technique

Coaches can make sure their performers have the motives to succeed by:
- encouraging them to take responsibility for performance
- attributing success internally and failure externally
- allow initial success
- use positive feedback and positive reinforcement or rewards
- explain early failure
- make the activity fun and enjoyable

So in summary it is very important to attribute a successful performance to internal and stable factors. "We won because we are good players and we showed good effort". Positive outcomes that are perceived to be internal contribute to feelings of satisfaction and pride. Therefore, performers are motivated to repeat the performance.

An unsuccessful performance that is attributed to internal and stable factors will decrease motivation and self-efficacy. "We lost because we are not good enough and we are not fit enough". Because we cannot change this very quickly the performers that have a negative expectation for the next competitive situation. Therefore, we should attribute the failure to external and unstable factors. "We lost because of our lack of effort and the surface never helped". The reasons for failure can be changed thus protecting the performer's motivation and self-efficacy.
The attribution process (Carron, 1981)

Albert Carron developed the attribution process model to help us to understand how our attribution of an outcome will influence our emotions and motivation to take part in the activity in the future.

Self - Motivation

This is the intrinsic (or inner form) of motivation that drives us on even if no extrinsic reward is available. It is about enjoyment, satisfaction, pride, feeling/looking good, being the best, proving others wrong and mastering the task.

Self - Motivation Inventory

It is important that both the athlete and coach are aware of what motivates the performer. Coaches can set appropriate goals that will motivate rather than demotivate the performer.

Extrinsic motivators can enhance motivation for a while but eventually lose value. They can actually decrease motivation because we get used to them even when they may not be available. Then we do not want to perform the desired behaviour.
Attribution Theory Questions

Qu 1
(a) Some elite performers will tend to blame things outside of their control when asked to explain the reasons why they failed to win. Use your knowledge of attribution theory to explain why this tends to be the case.
(4 marks)

(b) Those who repeatedly fail at sport can at various times experience learned helplessness. What is learned helplessness and what role do attributions play in its development?
(5 marks)

Answers
(a) There is a tendency to attribute failure externally, because it makes us feel better about ourselves if defeat is beyond our control. Also people tend to only be responsible for positive events rather than negative. This is known as self-serving bias. Such external attributions tend to reduce intensity of emotional reactions, but also depends on the importance of event.

(b) Learned helplessness is a strong reaction to failure, which leads to 'giving up' in face of repeated failure even if success is possible. Attributions lead to development of learned helplessness, because it is thoughts concerning failure that affect subsequent efforts to change. Attributing failure to lack of ability is particularly damaging;
question 1
a) Diagram 528 partly illustrates Weiner’s model of attribution. Explain the term attribution by using a sporting situation.

b) Explain the terms locus of causality and stability when applied to attribution theory.

c) Redraw the model and place on it relevant attributions for each of the four boxes.

d) What attributions would you encourage if your team were playing well but often losing?

question 2
a) Many young people claim to be hopeless at gymnastics. Suggest three reasons why these youngsters might have a negative attitude to gymnastics.

b) What is meant by learned helplessness (LH) and how is it caused?

c) How would you attempt to attract beginners to a gymnastics class, and then change any negative attitudes?
ATRIBUTION THEORY IDENTIFIES THE REASONS WE SUCCEED OR FAIL. WEINER 1970 LOOKED AT STABLE & UNSTABLE, INTERNAL OR EXTERNAL FACTORS THAT AFFECT OUR ACHIEVEMENTS.

1. LOCUS OF CAUSALITY - INTERNAL OR ENVIRONMENTAL ATTRIBUTES, CAN YOU CONTROL THESE FACTORS, APPLY MORE EFFORT OR IS IT JUST DOWN TO THE OTHER TEAM BEING BETTER?

2. STABILITY - IS PERMANENT OR CAN BE CHANGED? ABILITY REMAINS CONSTANT, BUT PERCEIVED LUCK CHANGES IN EACH PERFORMANCE

* Attributional Retraining - Needed to change failure into success, change to internal unstable attributes, and gain control over performance.

If we always believe we can do better, we will always believe we can succeed. Success is therefore internal & unstable - you can always work harder to improve your performance.

**Weiner's Model**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Constant</th>
<th>Variable</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>Talent</td>
<td>Effort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External</td>
<td>Task</td>
<td>Luck</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mastery Orientation - Focus on learning new skills and being the best, if anyone else wins it was lucky.

There is only one. I am a legend.

Attribution Bias - Perseverance belief that success & failure attributions never change.

Learned Helplessness - The fear of lacking control, low ability, repeated failure, avoidance.

Inch by inch you learn that you are in control.
Aggression

Aggression Theory
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SIegxaw0s7w

Types of Aggression
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=URcsOU8xWKE

Is a strong but fair tackle aggressive?
Is it aggressive to shout at the referee?
What about throwing your racket to the ground after a bad line call?
Are some soccer fans’ chants aggressive?

"Key scrum-half Mark Robinson faces a probable ban of six to eight weeks after being shown the red card for stamping on the head of former England hooker Mark Regan."

"The France international was cited for allegedly tripping Wasps centre Stuart Abbott with his foot during the match which Biarritz won 18-15."

"Aggression is any form of behaviour directed toward the goal of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment." Gould et al 1983.

The intention to harm, this can be physical or mental. "Trash talking" or "Sledging" to opponents in an attempt to distract them, to increase anxiety or to reduce their confidence is aggressive behaviour because there is an attempt to cause mental harm.

Assertiveness is the use of legitimate force, energy and effort to achieve the purpose, with no intent to cause harm. This is within the rules. If injury results, this is of course very regrettable but the act is not aggressive because there was no intent to injure. Give examples of this.

Hostile aggression is an act in which the main purpose is to hurt or harm the other person purely for the satisfaction gained form inflicting hurt. This form of aggression is against the rules. Give examples of this.

Instrumental (channelled) is an act that also intends to cause harm but in which the main aim is not to cause suffering but to achieve dominance or a point/goal. Give examples of this.

Violence is a severe form of aggression.

Confusion does exist when commentators or reporters refer to aggressive behaviour when in fact it is assertive behaviour.
"any form of behaviour directed toward the goal of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment."

Aggression = behaviour - not an attitude, an emotion or a motive. Thinking negative thoughts/wanting to hurt somebody is not aggression. Anger is not aggression.

Secondly, aggression is directed or intentional behaviour. Accidental harm is not aggression, but acts that intend to injure others = aggression. Intent difficult to interpret - referee.

Thirdly, aggression involves harm or injury - physical or psychological.

The fourth criterion - aggression involves living beings.

**Aggression** - intent to harm - outside the rules of the activity.

**Assertion** - behaviour that does not break rules and no intention to harm.

Two forms of aggression:

- **Hostile** or reactive aggression - usually involves anger - has harm as primary aim.

- **Instrumental aggression** - behaviour that has intent to hurt in order to achieve money, praise or victory.

Aggression:
- Is behavioural so wishing harm on someone is not aggression neither is anger unless it is put into action.
- Is intent to cause harm so accidentally causing injury or harm or intentionally causing mere discomfort is included in the definition?
- Can be physical or verbal or psychological, it includes words if they are intended to embarrass or hurt but it seems to rule out eyeballing an opponent.
- Is directed at other living things including animals so it does not include smashing your racket to the ground.
**Aggression Theories**

**Instinct Theory** - This suggests that aggression is a natural instinct, it is innate. Freud believes that we are born with a self-destructive force to be aggressive. Lorenz suggests that humans have the same aggressive instinct as animals - to defend territory and fight for survival. It is also felt that aggression builds up in people and has to be released and expressed. Sport is most certainly seen as a way of letting off steam and as an acceptable outlet for such tendencies. Sport acts as a cathartic release. Instinct theorists see aggression in sport as healthy. It should be controlled but of course if it was not released in sport it would have to come out somewhere! However, this theory lacks support due to the fact that humans can use reasoning and logic to control their emotions. It does not consider the importance of the environment and situational factors. It assumes sport allows players to be aggressive. However, the rules do make this difficult. It also suggests that playing sport can lead to a more peaceful society! Large sporting nations also go to war. The idea of "letting off steam".

**Trait and Social Learning Theories** - Trait theorists suggest that we have an aggressive trait that is naturally higher in some people than in others. This is related to Bandura's Observational Learning and suggests that people copy the behaviour of successful performers. "Significant others". This behaviour can be both good and bad! Aggression is learnt. Sport can teach both aggressive and non-aggressive acts, depending upon rewards and punishments. When used effectively sport is one of the best ways to teach attitudes valued by society. Fair play, cooperation, dealing with winning and losing etc. Bandura explained this through his Bobo dolls experiment. Parents were seen to be aggressive with dolls when being observed by their children. When the children were then left alone with the dolls they were also aggressive towards them. The children modelled their behaviour on their parents. If the children's
behaviour was reinforced positively then it was more likely to be repeated. Think about David Beckham being sent off for kicking Simeone in the World Cup. Beckham’s role model at United as a young lad was Cantona who had been banned for 9 months for kicking a Crystal Palace supporter. Bandura might suggest that this is all linked!

**Frustration - Aggression Hypothesis**

This is the most widely held theory. Sport is naturally frustrating because of its idea about one person or team winning and the other losing. Dollard (1939) suggested that aggression comes about via frustrating circumstances because you are unable to achieve your goal. However, aggression does not always follow frustration.

*Can you think of some examples to back this up?*

Berkowitz (1996) recognised the limitations of the frustration - aggression hypothesis and suggested that when a goal is blocked, frustration increases, as does the likelihood of aggressive behaviour through increasing anger and arousal. However, this does not always lead to an aggressive act. He suggests that if socially learnt cues lead us to think that aggression is an appropriate response then aggression will follow. If the socially learnt cues are inappropriate then aggression will not necessarily follow.

*E.g., In Ice Hockey aggression is often given positive reinforcement, so it is likely to be repeated. In Basketball aggressive behaviour is punished even though the player may feel the same amount of frustration as the Ice Hockey player. So essentially a lot of it comes down to the nature of the game.*

However, this does not explain why people do not get aggressive even when the game is frustrating.

![Diagram of Frustration - Aggression Model]

**DRIVE TO A GOAL**

**OBSTACLE TO A GOAL**

**FRUSTRATION**

**AGGRESSION**

**SUCCESS**

**PUNISHMENT**

**CATHARSIS**
What causes aggression and how to eliminate it?

**Causes**
When arousal levels are higher than normal, such as competing in a cup game, then the likelihood of aggressive behaviour increases. Aggression is also more likely when a player is:

- losing
- perceiving unfair officiating
- embarrassed, injured or in pain
- playing below capabilities
- reacting to something perceived as deliberate
- playing away from home
- performing in front of others
- encouraged by the coach to be aggressive
- highly motivated
- angry towards an opponent
- low levels of moral reasoning
- high temperatures
- large score difference
- low league standing
- late in the game
- reputation of the opposition
- retaliation
- provocation
- external influences are brought to the game
- expectation of significant others

\[\text{PLAYER AGGRESSION} \rightarrow \text{POOR OR BIASED OFFICIALS} \]

\[\text{SPECTATOR AGGRESSION} \leftarrow \text{ALCOHOL}\]

\[\text{ADULT MALE CROWD} \rightarrow \text{RACIAL OR NATIONAL ABUSE}\]
Eliminating aggressive behaviour

Based on the theories we can create a list of interventions to control arousal and frustration, to punish aggressive actions and to reinforce non-aggressive behaviour.

- fair-play awards
- reinforcing positive role models in the media
- society highlighting non-aggressive role models
- reduce the publicity given to aggressive behaviour
- severe punishments given for aggressive behaviour
- involve the law courts in aggressive behaviour
- using sport psychologists for support and guidance
- professional officiating
- coaches differentiating between aggression and assertion
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Individuals</th>
<th>Coaches</th>
<th>Referees</th>
<th>Governing Bodies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Punish aggressive play</td>
<td>Peer pressure to discourage aggression</td>
<td>Substitute aggressive players</td>
<td>Warn aggressive players/yellow card</td>
<td>Ban aggressive players</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reinforce assertive play</td>
<td>'Well done' comments from teammates</td>
<td>Mention contribution of non-aggressive play in team talks</td>
<td>Encourage assertive behaviour through rapport</td>
<td>Promote fair play awards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce levels of arousal</td>
<td>Use of cognitive arousal-reducing techniques</td>
<td>Teach somatic arousal-reducing techniques</td>
<td>Remove players from arousing situations and calm them down</td>
<td>Educate players and coaches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoid aggressive situations</td>
<td>Mark another player</td>
<td>Play another team</td>
<td>Send off aggressive players</td>
<td>Ban aggressive players</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications for Practice

- Recognise when aggression is most likely to occur - when individuals are frustrated and aroused.
- Control aggression via stress or emotion management training.
- Keep winning in perspective.
- Distinguish between aggression and assertive or intense play.
- Teach non-violent conflict resolution skills.
- Teach appropriate behaviour.

Control spectator aggression.

1 - Develop strict alcohol control policies
2 - Immediately penalise spectators for aggressive acts.
3 - Hire officials who do not tolerate aggression.
4 - Inform coaches that aggression will not be tolerated
5 - Work with the media not to glorify aggressive acts.
Rickard Theory

INSTINCT THEORY (AMOUNT)  FRUSTRATION - AGGRESSION THEORY (TRIGGER)

AGGRESSION

SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY (TYPE)
Aggression Questions

Qu 1. Competitive sport takes place when athletes are highly aroused.

(a) Using examples from sport distinguish between assertion and aggression. 

(2 marks)

(b) What actions could a coach take to help a player control their aggression during a match?

(4 marks)

Answers

(a) Aggression is intention to harm, outside of the rules, whereas assertion is intention to harm, but within the rules.

(b) The coach could substitute the aggressive player, get them to play in a different part of the pitch, thus avoiding the opponent who may be causing the aggression. They could reinforce assertive play and punish aggressive play. Highlight the benefits of assertive play while highlighting the problems of aggressive play.

1. You will have played in a team game and you may have had some players in your team who have been aggressive. They may have displayed aggression frequently and this would probably have been detrimental to your team’s performance.
(a) What does the term aggression mean when related to sports psychology? Explain the possible causes of aggressive behaviour in these team players. (4mks)

(b) Briefly discuss the view that aggression is learned rather than an instinctive response? (4mks)

(c) What strategies could be employed by these players to control their aggressive tendencies (3mks)

2 (a) Define the terms aggression and assertion in relation to sports performance (4mks)

(b) Explain how competitive game situations can create aggression, referring to the appropriate theory in social psychology. (4mks)

(c) Describe the social learning theory of aggression, using examples from sport to illustrate your answer. (8mks)

(d) What can a referee do to control aggression in sporting competitions? (4mks)

3. It has been suggested that aggression in sport is the result of frustration, as shown by the simple model

(a) Name the theory represented by this idea. (1mk)

(b) What are the similarities and differences between assertive and aggressive behaviours in sport? (5mks)

(d) State two methods, each with a relevant example, that a games coach might use to control aggression in players. (4mks)

4. With particular reference to football crowds, give an account of how and why violent behaviour can occur. (20mks)
AGGRESSION

AGGRESSION - OUTSIDE THE RULES OF THE GAME, WITH THE INTENT TO HARM

I SAID SIT DOWN!

ASSERTION - ROBUST PLAY DIRECTED TOWARDS SKILL COMPLETION, NOT HARM

MAJOR CAUSES OF AGGRESSION

INSTINCT - FREUD SUGGESTED AGGRESSION IS INNATE, EVERYONE IS VIOLENT

SOCIAL LEARNING - BANDURA SUGGESTED IT IS NURTURED BY ENVIRONMENTAL INFLUENCES

FRUSTRATION AGGRESSION - DOLLARD SAID AGGRESSION TRIGGERED BY BEING UNSUCCESSFUL (INTERACTIONIST)

AGGRESSIVE CUB HYPOTHESIS - BERKOWITZ CLAIMED FRUSTRATION BUILDS IN US ALL, RELEASED BY ONE MOMENT IN A GAME.

HOSTILE AGGRESSION - DELIBERATE BREAKING OF RULES IN A GAME

CHANNELLED AGGRESSION - NON HOSTILE SELF PROTECTIVE MASTERY BEHAVIOUR

BETTER PLAYERS CAN CONTROL AGGRESSION, AND THIS IS A MAJOR FACTOR IN OPTIMISING PERFORMANCE, AGGRESSION INHIBITS CONCENTRATION & TEAM COHESION
I was on a recent train journey and I needed something to read so I picked up a copy of *New Scientist* (1 June 2013). Several of the articles took my eye with immediate links to sport psychology. The one that really took my eye was from *Ecology* around intimidation and how predators influence the behaviours of their prey. This got me thinking (I was visiting a different part of the library, see my previous blog post on this in sport psychology).

Intimidation plays an important part in sport and how athletes develop, use
and respond to intimidation can be the difference between winning or losing a contest.

Some players and teams in sport are able to intimidate their competition and their environment and as a result change their opponents' behaviour. They create a landscape of fear to coin an ecology term (Laundre in Yong, 2013). They create an environment where all they seem to do to win is show up. They are the top predators. They have that eye of invincibility, they are able to intimidate their opponents causing them to change their behaviour.

Think of the greats in sport. Immediately athletes like Usain Bolt, Michael Jordan, Lionel Messi and Roger Federer spring to mind. Due to their past experiences their opponents of these greats have a mental map of risk (Yong, 2013) when they compete against them. They have developed strategies to minimise the impact of these 'predators', their behaviour changes. They are playing to not to lose (survive in Ecology!) as opposed to playing to win. Their behaviour has been changed because of the fear caused by the intimidation. The predators have already won!

In Ecology an example of this are wolves and elk. The mere presence of the wolves changes the behaviour of the elk, they spend more time looking out for the wolves than grazing. They are playing not to lose (become a wolves dinner!). In sport the consequences are not that serious but when you become an elk you
have shifted your focus away from you and what you can control, you have become the prey, you have become intimidated. In team sports this can be seen when home teams dominate opponents at their home grounds, they intimidate the away team into losing, they change the visiting teams behaviour as they control their environment. The greats mentioned above and the great teams have that much influence that they can change the environment, just like the wolves in the New Scientist research who changed the behaviour of the elk which then had a knock on effects for other animals. These greats, these top predators, change the sport that they compete in. Other athletes have to devise strategies to first survive and then move to become a predator.

These strategies change the game, change the sport.

In sport you can 'Create a Landscape of Fear' by remaining focused on the things you can control. Focus on your strengths, play to your strengths and make your opponents change their behaviour, make them become an elk! Think in the present, the past has gone and the future hasn’t happened yet. Use positive and strong reference points where you have been the predator and refer back to the hard work you have done in training. Make sure you work hard!

If you feel yourself slipping into a landscape of fear recognise the slip, acknowledge that your opponent has done this and then put a stop to this. Have a quick release that will put a stop to the intimidation. Then refocus on your strengths, refocus on 3 simple things that are within your control that if you did would increase you chances of winning.

Become a Wolf not an Elk!

Please check out my other blogs
(http://www.pinnacleperformance.co.uk/blog.php)

Reference: Yong, E. (2013) Scared to Death. New Scientist, 2919(June 1), pg. 36 -39
AGGRESSION

A player's aggressiveness when competing is often ascribed to their atti
dude.

Aggression in sport is defined as:
* Behaviour that harms another human being
* Behaviour that is intentional
* Behaviour that is outside the laws or rules of the game

Hostile aggression: the intention to harm outside of the rules, often in response to another player or the situation. Aim is to hurt or injure.

Instrumental aggression: aggression that intends to harm as a means to another goal, e.g., a hard tackle to make the opponent fear you or be winded out of the game. The primary motivation is to put them out of the game.

In sport, a constructive use of what seems to be aggressive behaviour is labelled assertive behaviour.

Channelled aggression is another positive form of aggression. When a performer can divert feelings of aggression into positives - work harder, strive for more accuracy.

Causes of aggression:

It is hard to identify exactly what are the causes of aggression as we are dealing with human beings with different personalities, backgrounds, and motivations in what are often rapidly changing situations.

Many theories have tried to explain why aggression occurs.

AQA Examiner’s tip:

You must stick to the definition given at the top of the page. You will not gain marks for applying your own subjective judgement.

To gain the higher marks in the examination, you must be able to refer to the subtypes of aggression: hostile, instrumental, and channelled.

Higher Marks
AGGRESSION THEORIES

INSTINCT THEORY - AGGRESSION IS INHERITED, NOT LEARNED. FREUD BELIEVED AGGRESSIVE IMPULSES BUILD UP WITHIN & IF NOT RELEASED CAN BE DIRECTED INWARDS, WHICH WOULD BE PSYCHOLOGICALLY DAMAGING. THUS ONE NEEDS TO RELEASE DESTRUCTIVE ENERGY & THIS CAN OCCUR THROUGH LEGAL ACTS - SPORT, ADVENTURE ETC. OR IN ILLEGAL WAYS - CRIMINAL ACTIVITY/ VIOLENCE. FREUD BELIEVES IN CATHARSIS (THE RELEASE OF PENT-UP EMOTIONS OR FEELINGS OF AGGRESSION THROUGH HARMLESS CHANNELS, SUCH AS THE PHYSICAL & EMOTIONAL ACTIVITY OF SPORT.

CRITICISMS: NO BIOLOGICAL BASIS FOR AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOUR HAS BEEN FOUND. SOCIETIES DON'T SHOW SIMILAR LEVELS OF AGGRESSION. AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOUR IS NOT JUST HOSTILE OR REACTIVE, THERE ARE TIMES WHEN IT IS PRE-PLANNED (INSTRUMENTAL). SOCIAL LEARNING HAS A CONTROLLING EFFECT ON PEOPLE & SOCIAL STUDIES SHOW AGGRESSION CAN BE LEARNED.

THE FRUSTRATION-AGGRESSION HYPOTHESIS
DOUGLAS ET AL. (1957) STATED THAT AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOUR ALWAYS PRESUPPOSES THE EXISTENCE OF FRUSTRATION AND THAT THE EXISTENCE OF FRUSTRATION LEADS TO SOME FORM OF AGGRESSION. E.G. BEING PREVENTED FROM ACHIEVING A GOAL LEADS US TO FEEL FRUSTRATED. LEVELS OF FRUSTRATION ARE INCREASED IF IT IS UNEXPECTED OR OCCURS WHEN WE ARE NEARER TO OUR GOAL. THE HYPOTHESIS STATES THAT OF AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOUR OCCURS IT WILL HAVE A CATHARTIC EFFECT, REDUCING THE LEVEL OF FRUSTRATION AND THEREFORE AGGRESSION.

CRITICISMS: NOT ALL INDIVIDUALS WHO EXPERIENCE FRUSTRATION EXHIBIT AGGRESSIVE RESPONSES. INDIVIDUALS WHO BECOME AGGRESSIVE WHEN FRUSTRATED DO NOT ALWAYS DO SO ON EVERY OCCASION; THEY WILL FIND ALTERNATIVE WAYS TO DEAL WITH THEIR FRUSTRATION. INDIVIDUALS DISPLAY AGGRESSION EVEN WHEN THERE IS NO OBVIOUS OBSTACLE. THERE IS ALSO NO CLEAR RESEARCH TO SUGGEST THE CATHARTIC EFFECT, AGGRESSIVE ACTS CAN SOMETIMES INCREASE LEVELS OF AGGRESSION.

AGGRESSIVE CUE (CUE AROUSAL) THEORY

THIS WAS DEVELOPED IN RESPONSE TO CRITICISMS OF THE FRUSTRATION-AGGRESSION HYPOTHESIS. BERKOWITZ (1944) STATED THAT DESPITE OBSTACLES LEADING TO FRUSTRATION, AROUSAL & ANGER; THIS DOES NOT ALWAYS LEAD TO AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOUR BUT ONLY PREDISPOSES THE INDIVIDUAL TO AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOUR. FOR IT TO OCCUR, SOCIAL- LEARNED CUES OR CERTAIN STIMULI MUST BE PRESENT WITHIN THE ENVIRONMENT. STIMULI THAT CAN ACT AS A TRIGGER FOR AGGRESSION MIGHT BE AGGRESSIVE-RELATED OBJECTS - GUNS, BATS, BOXING GLOVES; ACTIVITIES - SPORTS - RUGBY, BOXING; ACT PEOPLE - SPECIFIC LEAGUE; ACT PLACES - PITCH WHERE AN AGGRESSIVE INCIDENT HAD PREVIOUSLY OCCURRED.

IT WAS ALSO FOUND THAT ENVIRONMENTAL CONDITIONS COULD ACT AS STRESSORS AND BECOME CUES E.G. HIGH TEMPERATURES. BERKOWITZ’S WORK SHOWED INDIVIDUALS CAN LEARN TO BE AGGRESSIVE IN PARTICULAR SITUATIONS.
AGGRESSION THEORIES

SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY OF AGGRESSION

This theory suggests that learning in social situations influences individuals towards or away from aggressive responses. We learn by observing others when those others are receiving reinforcement for their behaviour; for the observer, the reinforcement is vicarious (experienced at second hand).

So if we observe a significant other (role model), we may learn to copy them. If we then imitate behaviour and get praise/reward, we are likely to repeat it.

DEINDIVIDUATION THEORY

This suggests individuals will, in certain stations, act differently when in a crowd than they might as an individual.

The larger the group/crowd, the more likely it is that individuals will act as the crowd does rather than in accordance with their own beliefs and values.

This is relevant to football crowds and football hooliganism where individuals may not take responsibility for their own actions.
Groups and Teams

Groups are interactive, have interpersonal attraction, and communication and a sense of collective identity.

Groups have roles and norms (expected behaviours).

Formal roles - captain, penalty taker, goalkeeper - have specific performance roles and expectations within team.

Informal roles evolve from interactions among group members - the 'hard man', the experienced player who is the informal tactical advisor, the player who is expected to show flashes of brilliance.

Stages in group formation

- Forming - getting to know role
- Storming - rebellion
- Norming - co-operative stage
- Performing - working together

Competition - "a situation in which rewards are distributed unequally among participants",

Co-operation is "a situation in which the goals of the participants are mutually inter-dependent"

Both competitive and co-operative behaviours are similar - both involve striving toward some "social end" by two or more people.

Intragroup co-operation - within group - working towards common goals
Intragroup competition - two performers from same team trying to outdo each other.

Intergroup competition - game between two basketball teams
Intergroup co-operation - two groups worked together towards a common goal that led to no comparison between the groups - not typical of sport.

Carron - co-operation superior to competition for increased communication, attentiveness, increased friendliness, friendship development and favourable perceptions of group - produces - improved cohesiveness and feelings of closeness.
It is important that the coach can bring talented individuals together to produce a successful team. We have heard statements like 'they are a team of individuals.'

Talented players do not always ensure team success, Steiner (1972) suggested that a successful team was more than the sum of its parts (individual talents).

\[
\text{Actual productivity} = \text{potential productivity} - \text{losses due to faulty group process}
\]

Potential productivity = quantity/quality of the group's resources relevant to task

Resources relevant to the task include:
- Individuals motor, physical and perceptual abilities
- Individuals skill's level
- Groups skill levels, knowledge and experience
- Individual/groups physical, psychological resources
- Cognitive resources

Socially identified resources relevant to the task include: age, education, religion, occupation, race, gender and socialism.

According to Steiner's model, individual ability and skill level is probably the major influence on potential success, thus the team with the best individuals has the greater potential for success, but does not always hold true.

Coaches job is to minimize the losses so that:
Actual productivity = potential productivity

Problems with the group process

Very often the underdogs can outshine the top team due to process faults, these can be of two types either:
- Co-ordination losses: team work/strategies break down, game plans or a teams shape not working effectively
- Motivational losses: individual or group loss of confidence, maybe reliance on top player.

When working together as a pair or a group it is important that players can complement each other, in order that intricate tactical manoeuvres can be carried out effectively.

It is also necessary to rely on each other to do their own job i.e. forwards letting midfield do their job.
Motivational and co-ordination factors affecting the productivity

Steiner

actual productivity = potential productivity - losses due to faulty group processes

Potential productivity - team's best possible performance given its resources (ability) and the task demands = rules and requirements imposed by task

Actual performance - limited due to faulty processes - two major categories for these process losses - co-ordination losses and motivation losses.

Co-ordination losses - poor strategies or bad timing

Motivational losses - not giving best efforts.

Interactive sports - games - more susceptible to co-ordination losses

Ringlemann effect - 'social loafing' - individuals work harder on a task, than when working as part of team - reduction of individual effort when working as a team.

Causes of social loafing:

- The athlete may believe that their team mates are less motivated than themselves
- The athlete may feel that working hard doesn’t bring that much recognition since they are going to get "lost in the crowd" anyway
- The athlete may feel that they don’t really have to try hard since their team-mates will make up for them
- The athletes may feel that they can hide in the crowd and avoid the negative consequences of not trying too hard

Cures of social loafing:

- Encourage team to offer social support. Use team building tasks
- Increase identifiability of individual performances, both in practices and the actual game - e.g. assist in basketball
- Highlight individual performances
- Determine specific situations where loafing may occur - use of video - enable players to
  
  *economise efforts without loafing*
- Clarify individual's roles. Conduct individual meetings to discuss loafing - discover reasons and respond
- Select individuals who have the best interactive skills
Group size

The size of the group is also thought to affect productivity in terms of coordination and motivation. Too many talented individuals can lead to duplication of roles, confusion and lack of effort can result.

A group size has a direct correlation with group effectiveness. As group size increases there is a decline in individual effort and eventual productivity. This phenomenon was first noted by Ringlemann.

He first noted this effect with tug of war, when the teams got bigger the individual effort dropped. One person 100%, 2 people 93%, 3 people 85%, down to 49% of potential with eight people.

Ingham (1974) concluded that this effect first noted by Ringlemann and originally attributed to poor coordination was actually more related to decreased motivation.

Social Loafing

Social loafing is the name given to losses in actual group productivity as a result of reduced motivation.

Research by Latane et al. (1979) suggests that performers are motivated to work hard in groups but save their best performances for when they are under close scrutiny, when it personally benefits them more (allocation strategies).

The minimizing strategy proposes that performers are motivated to give as much or as little effort to ‘get by’ and achieve the task.

Group activities and team games provide the opportunity to ‘loaf’, with some believing they aren’t getting the recognition. Some performers also don’t want to be suckers doing other peoples jobs so ‘loaf’.

Strategies for reducing social loafing

1  Identify situations where social loafing may occur.
2  Identify individual contribution, not just group outcomes.
3  Individuals should know their role, it should be evaluated regularly with feedback given.
4  Intrinsic motivation should mainly be used.
5  Ensure players know what others’ roles are
6  Video evidence/analysis, ensure fitness is good.
7  Variety in training, develop team cohesion.
Cohesion

Does group cohesion create a successful team or is the initial success of the team that creates the cohesion. There is certainly a positive correlation between success and cohesion.

Success leads to greater feelings of satisfaction and thus cohesion.

Cohesion is now defined as a dynamic process which is shown by the tendency of a group to stay together to achieve certain objectives, targets or goals.

Individuals are seen as being motivated to stay together as a group by either:
1) The attractiveness of the group, i.e. the person wants involvement in the group and values membership; or
2) The benefits they can gain from it.

Early research suggested that cohesion was more important for interactive games like basketball, soccer, netball etc. where the specialized skills are brought together for the good of the whole. In contrast team cohesion was seen as less vital for coactive teams such as rowing, swimming and relay.

Later research developed these two basic assessments of cohesion into task and social cohesion.

**Task cohesion** - how well the team works together or the 'desire to win'

**Social cohesion** - how much the team members like each other and interact socially.

In order to be successful do teams need to have both task and social cohesion?
Is one more effective than the other in developing success?

Carron (1982) proposed a conceptual model on the variables that could affect group cohesion.

- **Situational/environmental elements** eg. group, size, age, contracts, geography.
- **Personal elements** eg. similar/dissimilar, gender, motivational reasons, i.e. task affiliation, self
- **Team elements** eg. desire for success, shared team experiences (winning or losing)
- **Leadership elements** eg. decision making style adopted, participative style helps create cohesion.

These four categories were seen as affecting both ‘task’ and ‘social’ cohesion in relation to either the group or the individual. Thus whilst the team’s objectives may be the same for all, the individual motives for joining and maintaining the group may well be different.
Research has suggested that there appears to be a more positive relationship between task cohesion and performance than between social cohesion and performance.

Teams at high levels can put aside their negative personal feelings for the greater good of the team effort.

Maybe individuals believe it is essential for success and thus work hard to ensure it happens especially in interactive team sports.

**Cohesion** - "the total field of forces which act on members to remain in a group".

Two major forces acting on members to remain in group - **attractiveness** of a group - individual’s desire for inter-personal interactions with other group members and desire to be involved in group activities.

Also **means control** - refers to benefits that a member gets from being associated with group.

**Task cohesion** reflects degree to which members work together to achieve common goals.

**Social cohesion** reflects degree to which members in a team like each other and enjoy each others company - inter-personal attraction.

**Sociogram** - measure social cohesion - shows affiliation and attraction within group - identifies:

- the presence or absence of cliques
- members perceptions of group closeness
- friendship choices within the group
- the degree to which participants similarly perceive interpersonal feelings
- socialisation of individual group members
- extent of group attraction

**Barriers to cohesion**

- A clash of personalities
- A conflict of task or social roles
- A breakdown in communication
- Members struggling for power
- Frequent turnover of members
- Disagreement on group goals and objectives
Reducing barriers to cohesion

- Explaining individual roles in team success
- Developing pride within sub-units
- Setting challenging team goals;
- Encouraging team identity
- Avoiding the formation of cliques
- Avoiding excessive turnover of players;

- Getting to know team-mates;
- Helping team-mates whenever possible;
- Giving positive reinforcement to team-mates;

Cohesion = success?

Confusing – task demand – more interactive – more cohesion increases performance –

Circular relationship between cohesion and performance - performance success leading to increased cohesion, which in turn leads to increased performance.

The relationship between task cohesion and performance is more positive than that between social cohesion and performance.

The Words of Ka Mate

Ka mate! Ka mate! Ka ora! Ka ora! I die! I die! I live! I live!

Ka mate! Ka mate! Ka ora! Ka ora! I die! I die! I live! I live!

Tenei te tangata puhuru huru This is the hairy man

Nana nei i tiki mai Who fetched the Sun

Whakawhiti te ra And caused it to shine again

A upa ... ne! ka upa ... ne! One upward step! Another upward step!

A upane kaupane whiti te ra! An upward step, another.. the Sun shines!!

Hi !!!
A group is a collection of people who interact and share common goals.

**COHESION**

This is how successful the group is at sticking together and moving towards the same goals.

Cohesion is more likely if those in the group have the same reasons for being group members.

Example: a cohesive hockey team involves players who all share the same goal (winning the league).

**GROUP FAULTS**

Co-ordinational losses, (losses due to lack of tactical awareness of other team members).

Motivational Losses - Individuals may not share the same motives.

Example: some may have social motives, some have performance motives.

This may lead to social loafing.

**SOCIAL LOAFING (RINGELMANN EFFECT)**

Loss of identity, leading to lack of motivation for team performance.

The 'social loafer' may 'hide' in the game. An individual's achievements are not recognised by others.

Example: a netballer does not seem to move into space to get herself available for a pass.
Avoid Social Loafing by:
1) Giving individual praise/feedback.
2) Reinforce the efforts of individuals.

**GROUP PERFORMANCE (STEINER'S MODEL)**

Actual performance = Potential performance - Group faults.

Example: A volleyball team played poorly, although the team involved some of the top players in the country.

The main faults which got in the way of achievement were motivational problems, quite simply the team members were not trying hard enough.

**CARRON'S ANTECEDENTS**

These are pre-requisites for group cohesion:

Motives for individuals to join a group (Individual Orientation).
- Interpersonal attraction
- Group goals
- Social interaction
- Group activities
- Rewards for being part of a group.

Motives of the group (Group Orientation).
- Group as a separate identity
- Individual behaves differently in a group because of responses to different stimuli
- Desire for group success
- Desire to avoid group failure.
GROUP DYNAMICS - THE RELATIONSHIPS THAT EXIST BETWEEN PEOPLE WHO WORK TOGETHER

GROUP COHESION - TEAM WORKING TOGETHER, UNITED IN THE PURSUIT OF GOALS

MCGRATH (1989) SUGGESTED INTERACTION AND MUTUAL AWARENESS IS NEEDED IN A GROUP

WE ARE MUTUALLY AWARE AND INTERACTING

GROUP PERFORMANCE SUGGESTED THE ACTUAL PRODUCTIVITY OF A GROUP AMOUNTS TO IT POTENTIAL MINUS IT'S FAULTY PROCESSES.

THINGS THAT GO WRONG IN A TEAM.

BREAKDOWN IN COMMUNICATION. WHO'S MARKING INIESTA?

COORDINATION LOSSES - RINGLEMEN EFFECT IDENTIFIES LOSS AS A RESULT OF POOR POSITIONING OR ILL TIMING - LARGER THE TEAM LARGER THE EFFECT

MOTIVATIONAL LOSSES - SOCIAL LOAFING IDENTIFIES IDENTIFIES THAT WITHDRAW EFFORT OR 'COAST', RESULTING IN DYSFUNCTIONAL BEHAVIOUR & LACK OF COHESION
TEAM COHESION

CORRECT COHESION ENABLES GROUP EFFICIENT INTERACTION TO ACHIEVE THEIR GOAL.
TASK COHESION IMPORTANT IN TEAM SPORTS, WHERE INTERACTION AND COMMUNICATION IS IMPORTANT.
SOCIAL COHESION IMPORTANT IN CO-ACTIVE SPORTS LIKE TRACK & FIELD, WHERE GROUP RELATIONSHIP, SUPPORT AND FRIENDSHIP IS KEY. GOLD RUSH!

FOUR FACTORS AFFECTING TEAM COHESION:
- SITUATIONAL - TIME AVAILABLE, SIZE OF GROUP AND PAST EXPERIENCES
- INDIVIDUAL - MOTIVATION & ATTITUDE
- LEADERSHIP - STYLE & RELATIONSHIP
- TEAM - SHARED GOALS, COMMUNICATION AND SHARED SUCCESS TOGETHER

FACTORS AFFECTING PARTICIPATION IN A TEAM - ROLES - RESPONSIBILITIES & VALUE IN TEAM
TEAM BUILDING - TASK & SOCIAL - RELATIONSHIPS
INDIVIDUAL EVALUATION - STRENGTH & WEAKNESS
PUNISHMENT - OF NON-TEAM BEHAVIOUR
TEAM PLAYERS - SHARED GOAL NOT THEIR OWN GOALS
- SHARED & CLEAR FOR MOTIVATION
REHEARSAL - PRACTICE MAKES PERFECT
REINFORCEMENT - SUCCESS GENERATES FURTHER SUCCESS, POSITIVE ATTRIBUTION.
LEADERSHIP - STRONG LEADERS ENCOURAGE ALL

WHAT A TEAM WE ARE

GROUP AND TEAM EFFECTS ON PERFORMANCE - HELP COMMITMENT AND PERSISTENCE, POSITIVE AND SOCIAL FACILITATION, PEER PRESSURE TO LEARN AND COPY OTHERS.
There it is
the 'I' in team.
hidden in the 'A' hole.
Kevin Pietersen: The Importance of Team Cohesion

- By Lauren Onojaife

Ex-England cricket batsman Kevin Pietersen (KP) is in the limelight again as Paul Downton, the managing director of the England and Wales Cricket Board (ECB) talks about the reasons behind KP’s early departure from international cricket. KP was controversially axed from the England side following the team’s 5-0 Ashes series loss in Australia earlier this year. I view KP as one of the most exciting and talented batsman English cricket has ever seen, and stats back this up: he scored 8,181 runs at an average of 47 in 104 Tests, in addition to 4,440 runs in 136 One-Day Internationals and 1,176 runs in 37 Twenty20s. Regardless of these sensational career statistics that place KP as England’s all-time leading run-scorer across all formats, the ECB did not want him to remain in the side. Downton said in interview that “I couldn’t find one supporter who wanted Kevin to stay in the side”, and “he had too many different agendas and wasn’t 100 per cent focused on playing for England”. He also stated that “Kevin was starting to play a bit like a luxury player. There was a ‘this-is-the-way-I-play’ type of attitude”. Suggesting (as many already have) that KP is not a team player.

Following the KP saga it seems fitting to address the issue of team cohesion (or lack of it). To fully understand cohesion and its impact on team performance, it must first be understood what cohesion is. Carron et al. (1998) describe team cohesion as “a dynamic process which is reflected in the tendency for a group to stick together and remain united in the pursuit of goals and objectives.” Within this, there are two further dimensions of cohesion:

- Task cohesion: the degree to which members of a team work together to achieve a specific and identifiable goal.

- Social cohesion: the degree to which members of a team like each other and enjoy personal satisfaction from being members of the team.
Carron et al. (2002) conducted a meta-analysis of the cohesion-performance relationship in sport. The analysis included 46 studies containing a total of 164 effect sizes. Overall, a moderate-large relationship was found between cohesion and performance. In contrast to early research by Lenk (1969) who found that social cohesion was not an important component in achieving a successful performance, Carron et al. (2000) concluded that both task and social cohesion were found to contribute to better performance.

The implications of these findings to avoid a 'KP-like' sacking is that coaches and managers should look to assess their team's cohesion and develop team-building strategies to improve team cohesion at every given opportunity, to ultimately improve team performance. Specifically, coaches should work on making sure that team members are clear about and happy with team goals that have been identified. Secondly, appropriate action should be taken to ensure that players like each other and enjoy being part of the team. Lastly, coaches could and should work on developing team communication and shared responsibility – developing the 'we' mentality, that it would appear KP lacked.

"Talent wins games, but teamwork and intelligence wins championships" - Michael Jordan
Groups & Teams Questions

1. Explain what you understand by the term group cohesion.
   (4 marks)

(b) Identify two methods of measuring the cohesiveness of a sports team.
   (2 marks)

(c) Are cohesive groups in sport always more successful? Justify your answer.
   (4 marks)

Answers
(a) Group cohesion are those influences that keep a team together. They are internal and dynamic. There are two forces involved, task cohesion - concerned about common goals and social cohesion - concerned about relationships;

(b) Questionnaires;
   Sociograms;

(c) Cohesive groups are not always more successful. Cohesive groups tend to stick together and work to common goals, and cohesion is more important in team games. High commitment to task could still produce good performances if social cohesion is not strong, whereas strong social cohesion may distract from task.

2. Ingham et al (1974) conducted an experiment to find how much force was being exerted by individuals in a rope-pulling task involving two, three, four, five and six persons. The results of the experiment are shown in Figure 1.
Figure 1

(a) Explain what Figure 1 shows.  

(b) (i) Suggest two possible causes of the effects shown. 

(ii) What methods can a coach of a team sport employ to reduce these effects? 

Answers

(a) Decrease in individual performance with increase in group size. The Ringlemann effect/social loafing;

(b) (i) Motivational effects - individual hidden in group, need to avoid failure. Co-ordination effects lack of interaction.

(ii) Identify and promote individual contributions to team performance and set goals. Give team encouragement and select individuals with interactive skills. Develop interactive skills/small team games/develop units through games.

3.

a) What is meant by cohesion in the context of teams? 

b) What factors stop a team ever performing to their true potential? 

4.

a) Explain what is meant by social loafing by using examples from sport. 

b) What advice would you give a coach of a team to ensure maximum productivity?
Leadership

Leadership Theory
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YT7_sx8JMOw

Multi-Dimensional Model of Leadership
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MiN6ycsgWmw

The Six Attributes To Look For In Your Captain

The role of the captain in a rugby team has the potential to be both the most challenging and the most rewarding of all for a player. Here is a summary of an article Peter Tann, a qualified rugby coach and sports psychologist, wrote for Rugby Coach.

Not only is the captain a player, he is a leader, communicator, key decision maker, and important link between the team and coach, as well as the referee on match day. The captain must be competent in their playing role and inspire confidence in their players, whether through their playing ability, decision making, or tactical skills.

1. Each captain is different - There is no one set of characteristics possessed by effective captains.

2. Mental strength - All captains should be mentally strong. They need to remain focused under pressure during a game. They need to be able to handle criticism, including from team mates.

3. Excellent communicator - The captain needs to encourage and manage on-field and off-field communication between many groups: the players, the coaching staff, and officials.

4. Emotional discipline - (i) The captain is a role model. (ii) If the captain loses self-control he may lose the ability to make rational decisions. (iii) Loss of emotional control may be seen as a sign of weakness by the opposition.

5. Knows the players - The captain should have the ability to deal with each player as an individual.

6. Self-confident - A self-confident captain inspires confidence in others. It also helps him maintain his own performance when the “going gets tough”.
Leadership is "the behavioural process of influencing individuals and groups towards set goals". (Barrow 1977) There are many different leaders in sport - for example: managers, coaches, captains, veteran players, directors, owners, selectors and administrators.

"One who commits people to action." Bennis.

"How to chart a course, having a vision". Martens 1980

Task:
Name some of the most notable leaders in sport and explain why they are famous. What characteristics do they possess?

A leader can emerge or with leadership qualities from within the group or can be prescribed by an outside source. A prescribed leader brings new ideas but may risk alienation by the group while an emergent leader retains the status quo.

Prescribed leaders - appointed by someone in authority.
Emergent leaders - emerge from the group and take charge

Emergent leaders more effective than prescribed leaders - have respect and support of team members and have recognisable leadership skills

The qualities with which a leader may emerge are:

- charisma
- intrinsic motivation
- empathy
- communication skills
- experience
- knowledgeable
- assertive
- ambitious
- confident
- optimistic
- flexible
- respected

A leader might then operate using a number of styles.

Autocratic - the leader makes all the decisions and dictates to the group. This style is seldom preferred because it lacks variety and motivation.

Democratic - The leader listens to the group and follows its ideas. This is popular because it allows group input and shared decision-making. Individuals feel like part of the group.

Laissez faire - A laid back, do nothing approach that only works with experienced groups.
Person orientated - A leader that is more interested in the person and is more likely to adopt a democratic style.

Task orientated - A leader that wants to get the job done.

Research has shown that males tend to prefer autocratic leaders whilst females prefer democratic leaders. Team players tend to prefer the autocratic style of leadership that is focused on the task. Performers from individual activities tend to want a more person orientated approach to coaching. They like to have some input, democracy. However, there are many factors that need to be taken into account for the best style of leadership in each given situation.

Chelladurai suggested that the coach, athletes and situation all interact to influence performance and satisfaction.

Fielder’s contingency model

This model also looks at the factors that affect the leader’s choice of leadership style. Fielder’s model of leadership states that the choice of democratic or autocratic leadership style is determined by the favourableness of the situation. An autocratic leader is best in both the most and least favourable situations and a democratic leader is the best in moderate situations. He suggests that the effectiveness of the leader is dependent on the personality of the coach and the situation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Autocratic Task Orientated</th>
<th>Democratic Person Orientated</th>
<th>Autocratic Task Orientated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most favourable situation</td>
<td>Moderately favourable situation</td>
<td>Least favourable situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warm relations</td>
<td>Relationships are warm</td>
<td>Poor relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear task</td>
<td>Players are enthusiastic but not gifted.</td>
<td>Un unclear task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong leader</td>
<td>Resources are limited. The task has little structure.</td>
<td>Weak leader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Element of danger</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A most favourable situation could be one in which the group members have been together for some time. They know each other’s play and they know their tactics. The team captain only has to make one call and all the team members know what to do.

A least favourable situation is perhaps when a group is together for the first time, playing in a new competition. Someone is needed to take charge.
A moderately favourable situation could be when one or two new players join an established team and the players discuss the best position for them to play.

"Leadership cannot be understood without considering not only the leader but the situation and the people who are to be influenced." Gill 1986

**Interactional model** of leadership - successful leadership determined by interacting characteristics of leader (leadership style), task (situational characteristics), and team members (member characteristics).
Chelladurai - effective leadership varies - depends on characteristics of athletes and limits of situation - leaders need to be dynamic and changeable in relation to characteristics of situation.

**Required behaviour** of leader - demanded by situation

**Preferred behaviour** of leader - wanted by group members

**Actual behaviour** - leader’s behaviour

Match between required, preferred and actual leader’s behaviour affects performance and satisfaction - not independent of each other.

Chelladurai’s multidimensional model of leadership is shown below.

**Nature V Nurture**

Are leaders born or made?

We can be born with certain trait leadership qualities.

One early theory of leadership suggested that leaders are born great and male (trait theory), with personality traits and leadership instinct. This theory ignores interaction and experience and has little current relevance.

- Leaders learn their skills through interaction, experience and social learning (Social learning theory).
- Leaders learn from others, and from their experience in sport, and might become emergent leaders.

Leaders might be born with characteristics that they then adopt or that interact with the situation. (Interactionist theory) This allows them to change their style to suit the situation.
Is an autocratic style of football coaching more effective than a democratic one?

• By Richard Fryer

We’ve all seen it or heard about it – stories of top football coaches shouting, throwing things all in the name of getting the best out of their players. From Sir Alex Ferguson’s legendary temper in the changing rooms, to Graham Taylors’ touchline fury broadcast in the 1994 BBC documentary ‘An Impossible Job’, you could be forgiven for making the assumption that a short temper is critical for success in football management. But is it? Whilst these two examples are likely more reflective of the pressure of managing Manchester United or, perhaps even worse, the England Football Team, it is easy to make the link between these angry outbursts and a directive, autocratic style of leadership and to assume that this is the most effective way to get the best out of teams.

On the eve of the 2014 World Cup in Rio, the world’s media spotlight will again be on the touchline during games, witnessing the actions of the coaches. It is timely then to take a look at what the research says about which coaching style creates the most successful teams, and whether the autocratic style is really the best way, be it in football or in other team sports.

It is important to note that football management is a complex task and success of a football team is likely due to numerous factors that extend beyond the leadership style of the coach. These include availability of resources, governance, quality of players and the stability of the team. However, studies have shown that there exists a strong relationship between team cohesion and success (Carron, Bray & Eys, 2002) and team cohesion is related to leadership behaviour (Ramzaninezhad & Kehstan, 2009). Results of the latter study indicated that increases in Iranian football players’ perceptions of team
cohesion was positively correlated with perceptions of their coach exhibiting higher levels of social support, positive feedback, democratic behaviour and lower levels of autocratic behaviour.

So a democratic style is better for team cohesion, so that must be the more effective style. But is it that clear cut? Chelladurai’s Multi-dimensional model of leadership stresses the importance of a leader fitting their style to the needs of the team, with some authors suggesting an autocratic style can be effective when dealing with young and unpredictable teams (Weinberg & Gould, 2003). Further, where large squads of players are involved, it is possible that more autocratic styles will predominate by necessity since democratic styles have been shown to be less effective for complex problems and are more time consuming (Chelladurai & Doherty, 1998).

It appears, therefore, that it is not so much whether an autocratic style is more effective than a democratic, or supportive one, but rather whether the style is right for the situation and for the team. The importance of coach flexibility cannot be ignored, with a critical skill being the ability to perceive the needs of the team in the moment and to adapt as necessary to maximise team performance (Crust & Lawrence, 2006).

References


Leadership: are you a Shepherd or a Sheep?

- By James Barraclough

As with many theories in psychology, those on leadership have taken a few twists and turns before they arrived at their current position. Early psychologists tended to favour trait theories i.e. you are born with certain characteristics that stay relatively stable throughout your life. With regard to leadership this meant that you were either born a leader or conversely a follower. The problem with this theory was that someone could be a great leader in one situation, but poor in another. An example would be Winston Churchill. No one can doubt the effect he had on the country during the Second World War, but was less successful during peacetime when elected in 1951.

In sporting terms many coaches/managers who have been successful at one club have failed miserably at others. One example that sticks out is Brian Clough. He excelled at Derby County (along with his trusty sidekick Peter Taylor) where he took them from (then) Second Division as champions in 1969 to winning the top flight three years later, as well as the semis of the European Cup in 1973. He then had two unsuccessful spells - one at Brighton and Hove Albion that lasted eight months - followed by a lightning quick spell at Leeds United (without Taylor) where he infamously lasted just 44 days in the job. He then went on to make Nottingham Forest (where he was re-united with Taylor) one of the most successful clubs in the country. In 1977 Forest were promoted and the following season won the league title (the first in the club’s history), making Clough one of four managers to have won the English league with two different clubs. Forest also won two consecutive European Cups (in 1979 and 1980) and two League
Cups (1978 and 1979) before Taylor retired in 1982. Clough stayed on as Forest manager for another decade and won two more League Cups (1989 and 1990). This goes to show that different situations require flexibility from leaders (and also the effect that good support from other staff can have).

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WXZXXrXRU0&feature=fvst

As a response to this early ‘nature’ stance, the pendulum then swung completely in the opposite direction to the ‘nurture’ viewpoint. Bandura’s ‘Social Learning Theory’ was applied to leading. It claimed the opposite of the trait theory: that leading behaviours were not innate but learnt from others around us through the process of copying those that we respect. It begins when we see someone we admire modelling a leader behaviour. We remember this behaviour and copy it ourselves in similar situations. If it works (i.e. it is rewarded/reinforced) we retain this behaviour in our leading ‘repertoire’ and will use it again. If its not successfully reinforced we will discard the behaviour. In this way leading can be seen as a gradual learning process through trial and error. When Clough went to Leeds and alienated all the players pretty much immediately, I’m sure he used this experience to later learn from his mistakes (with guidance from Taylor).

This theory, as with the trait theory, gives a very one-dimensional outlook – its either one or the other.

The pendulum was later to swing again and settle somewhere in the middle: the interactionist approach - a bit of nature and a bit of nurture. Chelladurai’s interactional model claims that there are three things that determine a team’s performance: the situation; the team’s characteristics; and the leader’s characteristics. The situation may be the position the team is in the league and what their aspirations are. The team may prefer a certain type of leader: autocratic (dictator), democratic (everyone gets a say), or laissez-faire (anything goes). The leader may only be able to display a limited amount of behaviours or they may be able to change their behaviour according to the team’s needs. The closer that the required behaviour from the leader is to the preferred behaviour and the actual behaviour, the better the team will perform. In other words if the team gets what they want and what they need from the manager they will play better for him/her. Some managers have such a broad range of behaviours that they can adapt their style to any situation. For example, Martin O’Neill has been successful wherever he has managed, as has Jose Mourinho.
The coach/leader is the biggest influence on an athlete's performance (other than themselves). Therefore, as a coach it is vital to behave in a way that will maximise your athlete's:

- **Success** (depending on how you define that - winning or developing your athletes, depending on age and ability)
- **Welfare** (meeting their needs and aspirations)

Are you 'Transactional' or 'Transformational'. Do you deal in 'transactions' i.e. "if you do what I want, I will give you what you want - some form of reward" (e.g. praise) OR do you try to 'transform' your athletes - inspire them through charisma, enthusiasm and being a positive role model.

Also, are you a democrat or an autocrat - do you consult or dictate? A collaborative approach (where you ask the athletes for input into sessions) has been shown to be effective in boosting and maintaining motivation, but as long as the collaborators know who is boss! Someone has to make sense out of all the input and the coach takes ultimate responsibility if it all goes wrong. Again, this depends on the situation (during a competition there is not time to consult others) and the athlete's characteristics (gender, maturity, age, ability, experience, personality and cultural background). It is harder to consult large groups as it will be time-consuming and younger athletes as they will have less knowledge to draw on (here you can get round this by simplifying the task/question - it's amazing how much children do know).
So, how should a ‘good’ leader act? Below are some ‘textbook’ definitions of a good leader:

- **Self-reflection:** It is always good to see how you can improve yourself (a quality of a good coach), even if it is in the smallest possible way. A second opinion is always a good thing, because however self-reflective you are, you will always have biases towards your own behaviour.

- **Reinforce desired behaviours:** use intrinsic rewards – give praise to athletes when they do something good and not just "good!" (positive reinforcement). Avoid over-praising though as this can lead athletes become over-dependent on it and losing motivation when its not forthcoming.

- **If your fighter makes a mistake, give them ‘mistake-contingent instruction’:** in English, tell them where they went wrong, how to do it right and make sure they show you the correct way of doing it to enhance their understanding.

- **The occasional negative reinforcement can be good.** If done before a positive one, it can increase effects of the later positive. If done after a positive, it can decrease defensiveness to the later negative.

- **Listen – communication is a two-way street.** Paraphrase what people say to you (shorten and re-phrase it and ask questions if necessary) to show you have understood.

- **Make strong decisions and be accountable for them.**

- **Actively try to solve problems/conflicts – clearly define roles for athletes/staff and ensure they are understood and accepted.** Delegate where necessary and make your staff feel trusted.

- **Set high standards for performers and assist their personal development.**

- **Model confidence and enthusiasm; be positive, honest and optimistic.**

- **Set hard but achievable long, medium and process goals.**

- **Put yourself in your athlete’s shoes – if the positions were reversed; which approach do you think you would perform most effectively under? Use imagery if necessary.** Make sure they enjoy what they do.

- **Use pre-determined ‘keywords’ to get across tactical information (practice in simulation training).**

- **Attribute success to internal/stable factors (ability) and failure to external or unstable factors (e.g. bad luck, refereeing, lack of effort, form).** See Fig. 2 below.
Fig. 2 Weiner's Attribution Theory
Here's my own examples of good and bad leaders. See if you can work out which is which:

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IWwSvlIpbyY&feature=relmfu
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=J4x05Z3MSkQ
LEADERSHIP

SUCCESSFUL TEAMS HAVE STRONG LEADERS, THEIR CONTRIBUTION IS INFLUENTIAL IN TEAM OR CO-ACTIVE SPORTS

LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS INCLUDE:
AUTOCRATIC - TOTAL CONTROL IN SPORTS OF RISK
DEMOCRATIC - SHARED RESPONSIBILITY, OWNERSHIP, MORE MOTIVATED WHEN COMMON GOAL
LAISSEZ FAIRE - NATURAL, THEY CAN BE EMERGENT OR PRESCRIBED

AUTOCRATIC OR TASK ORIENTATED LEADER DOES NOT NEGOTIATE, FOCUSES ON END GOAL, IMPORTANT WHEN QUICK DECISIONS ARE NEEDED, WHEN RISK IS HIGH

MY BEHAVIOUR INFLUENCES MY TEAM'S SATISFACTION, DRIVE FOR SUCCESS & POSITIVE LIFESTYLE CHOICES

EMERGENT LEADERS ALREADY BELONG TO A GROUP, THEIR SKILL AND ABILITY TO MANAGE GETS THEM VOTED INTO POSITIONS OF AUTHORITY PRESCRIBED LEADERS ARE APPOINTED BY GOVERNING BODIES OR OUTSIDE AGENCIES
Leadership Questions

1(a) In order for invasion teams to function successfully, they need a good leader. The diagram shows Chelladurai’s multidimensional model of leadership.

Answers

(a) Leadership is an interactional process. A performer’s satisfaction and performance and situation depend on interaction of three aspects of leaders’ behaviour. The required behaviour is the expectations that the management has of the leader. The actual behaviour is what the leader normally goes about role. The preferred behaviour is the way the athletes like their leader to relate to them. The ideal team situation is when all three behaviours are congruent – leader acts in a way that both management and athletes like. What the leader does should be appropriate to situation and matches groups preferences, and hence the leader needs to adapt to demands of both the situation and the preferences of the group to achieve desired outcomes.
2. What is meant by a leader and what sort of qualities would you expect to see in a leader within the context of sport?

4 marks

3. Name three leadership styles.

3 marks

4. Discuss the statement 'Good leaders are born not made', and explain whether you agree or disagree in the light of psychological theory.

5 marks

5. What factors should be taken into consideration when deciding upon which leadership style to adopt?

6 marks

**Leadership Cryptogram**

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A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z
9 18 16

E E A E A A O A
24 13 18 2 8 18 26 21 1 9 1 18 21 1 20 9 1 9 12 1 16 3 26 9 1 13 3

A - O E E E E A E A E
1 9 21 14 16 26 13 18 11 1 13 2 8 18 9 2 18 26 21 9 26 18

O E E E E O E
15 16 26 18 18 24 24 13 3 1 25 18 13 11 23 16 1 20 1 20 18

O A O A E A E E A
15 16 21 1 24 9 25 16 12 26 9 23 8 16 9 11 2 1 20 18 8 18 9 21 1

A O A E A O . O E
24 9 25 16 12 26 9 23 8 18 21 13 1 12 9 1 13 16 11 21 2 18 15 16 3 26

A E O E O E E E E E E E O E A E
9 1 13 9 10 18 21 16 11 16 26 13 18 11 18 2 18 19 2 18 26 21

A E O E E E E E E E O E A E
9 26 18 15 16 26 18 13 24 18 3 1 13 25 18 13 11 15 16 2 18 26 9 1 18

A O A E A O
8 19 24 9 25 16 12 26 9 25 8 18 21 13 1 12 9 1 13 16 11 21
```
Leadership Crossword

Across
2. This theory of leadership suggests that leadership abilities come about through both inherited abilities and learned skills.

5. According to Chellanduria, The characteristics affecting behaviour are Situational, Leader and ........ Characteristics

7. Individuals can become leaders in one of two ways. These are Prescribed and ........

8. This approach to leadership suggests that leaders are born with the skill to take charge

Down
1. According to Fiedler, the correct style of leadership to adopt depends on the ............ of the situation

3. Democratic leaders are more effective in ........ favourable situations

4. The 2 main leadership styles are autocratic and ........

6. If someone judges an experience to have been handled well this situation will be remembered and copied. This is called ............ reinforcement
Social Facilitation

Social Facilitation and Inhibition
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3enQtIzPiQE

The term "Social Facilitation" is used to describe the effects of others on performance. They include the study of how individuals react when they are being watched. In sport the effects of an audience can be positive, negative or neutral.

Social facilitation is positive and social inhibition is negative.

Norman Triplett 1898 observed the pacing effect when watching cyclists. He suggested that performers seemed to get faster when cycling in pairs as opposed to cycling alone. He suggested that people perform better when there is a competitive element. People become energized by the presence of others. Zajonc developed this as the 'facilitating' effect. He said that the presence of others is arousing and therefore under circumstances performance would be improved by this arousal. However, as we know performance can also be inhibited by the mere presence of others.

Task – Who watches you perform? What expectations and pressures do they bring to your game?

Examples of Social Facilitation in sport:
- The home advantage in football
- The silent crowd prior to a penalty kick in rugby
- Racist chants at a football match
- The triple jumper and a clapping audience

Zajonc’s theory - The others whose presence in sport can affect a performer's behaviour are:
- The audience
- Supporters
- Co-actors (fellow performers of the same task, team mates)
- Competitive others

They can therefore be passive or interactive.
- Audiences are generally passive
- Supporters are interactive
- Co-actors are passive
- Competitive others are interactive

The passive others are the ones which cause us social facilitation or social inhibition. The main effect of the presence of others is to increase arousal and then cause fear of the perceived threat of the judgement of others - 'Evaluation Apprehension'
This theory should remind you of the inverted U theory and the drive theory. Both attempt to explain the relationship between arousal and performance.

Drive theory tells us that arousal improves performance, but at high arousal we only focus on the dominant response. This response must be well learned in order for us to perform it correctly with the limited amount of information that we can take in. If the task is not well learned then inhibition may occur.

Inverted U theory tells us that arousal does improve performance up to a point, or moderate level, but after that point we get worse. The performance is affected if the task is complex or the performer is a beginner, because even moderate levels of arousal will worsen performance, due to inexperience of dealing with cues. However, experts performing complex tasks or less expert people performing simple tasks with few decisions and less control can tolerate the high level of arousal produced by the crowd.

Presence of others enhances emission of dominant responses.

Presence of others causes increase in arousal level - result in increased chances of habit strengthening and affecting performance.

When correct response dominant - e.g., when a skill was mastered or very simple - benefit to performance. When incorrect response dominant - e.g., when a skill was complex or not well-learned) - hinder performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of learning</th>
<th>Effect of others on performance</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Well-learned</td>
<td>Increase in arousal bringing about a (correct) dominant response</td>
<td>Top athletes produce their best performances under the pressure of competition and with a big crowd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not well-learned</td>
<td>Increase in arousal bringing about a (incorrect) dominant response</td>
<td>Pupils often say to their teacher “Don’t watch me, I always make a mistake when you watch me”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The following diagram illustrates Zajonc’s theory of social facilitation related to drive theory:

- **Presence of others**
  - **Mere presence of passive others**
    - Audience
  - **Presence of interactive others**
    - Co-action
    - Competitive co-action
    - Social reinforcement or encouragement

**Increase arousal – enhance dominant response**

- **Dominant response incorrect during initial learning – SOCIAL INHIBITION**
- **Dominant response correct when task is well-learnt – SOCIAL FACILITATION**
### Factors affecting the effect of an audience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Size of audience</td>
<td>Larger crowds will increase arousal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proximity to the performers</td>
<td>The closer the audience the larger the increase in arousal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intentions of the audience</td>
<td>This can cause a negative or positive effect depending on the personality of the performer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of learning of the task</td>
<td>Performance will generally increase if the task is well-learned and will decrease if the task is not fully-learned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality of the performer</td>
<td>Extroverts perform better when aroused, introverts can easily become over-aroused</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of task</td>
<td>Gross motor skills benefit from increased arousal levels, fine motor skills need low levels of arousal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Co-action Effect

Research has shown that more pain can be tolerated and physical effort can be sustained longer if others are doing the same task. This has obvious implications for the sportsperson.

Martens and Leanders 1969 - they tested boys of three different age groups. The task was to hold one leg horizontally whilst sitting for as long as possible. One third did the test alone, one third in pairs and the final third in fours. The results showed clearly that the larger the number of participants the longer time the legs were held out. Again evidence suggests that co-actors help in the performance of simple tasks but impairs the quality of performance for complex tasks.

### Social Facilitation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Facilitation</th>
<th>♦ The effects that the presence of spectators has on the way sportspeople play or perform</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>♦ The mere presence of others creates arousal which then affects performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-actors</td>
<td>♦ A passive form of audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>♦ Involved in the same activity at the same time as the performer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>♦ But not competing directly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Different types of audience

- Others present
  - Passive others (Social Facilitation)
  - Interactive others
- Audience
- Co-actors
- Competitors
- Spectators

Evaluation Apprehension

This is defined as the fear of a perceived threat of being judged. Cottrell criticised Zajonc because he said that the audience needs to be evaluative not just observers, this then leads to more arousal. The type of audience is important.

It is not just the presence of others that causes increased arousal but the possibility that they are evaluating us and making judgements. Cottrell argued that for facilitation or inhibition to occur, this evaluation potential must be present. We must think that we are being judged. It is about the perceived intentions of the audience.

Evaluation Apprehension is caused by:
- Fear of being judged
- Knowledgeable crowd
- Crowd known to you
- Crowd openly critical
- Important game

Evaluation Apprehension is affected by:
- Confidence - if we are confident then we are less likely to be worried
- Expertise of the audience - we will be more concerned if a chief scout is watching
- The audience is openly critical
- The result is important

| Evaluation Apprehension | • Audience is perceived as evaluating performance
|                         | • Thus evaluation apprehension causes arousal
|                         | • This could have a positive or negative effect on performance |
Home-Field Advantage/Disadvantage

Large supportive home crowds are supposed to give the home team an advantage. This is known as the homefield advantage. Homefield advantage refers to "the consistent finding that home teams in sport competitions win over 50% of games played under a balanced home and away schedule". Courneya and Carron, 1992. Performers in the Olympics also demonstrate the homefield advantage. Home countries consistently win two or three times more medals compared with Olympic games played in other countries. Of the 18 countries to host the Summer Olympics Games prior to 2004, 15 won the greatest percentage of available medals at home.

- Crowd effect - Research has suggested that results in most sports are better for team playing at home, especially indoor sports such as Ice Hockey and Basketball. Large supportive crowds may contribute to improved performance, but it cannot be said that they are the main cause of homefield advantage.
- Familiarity - Most teams prefer to play in front of their home crowd because of the familiarity and support, and because their opponents lack familiarity. This extends to the playing surface, changing rooms etc. The home team have a better knowledge of the facilities. This can make players more relaxed, less anxiety, better attentional focus and more control over the pre-match routine.
- Travel factors - This effect is believed to be greater when traveling over greater distances and across time zones.
- Officiating - While it is not intentional on the referee's part, there is evidence from football to suggest that the crowd can (and sometimes does) influence decisions. This is not conclusive and officiating bodies would dispute the findings.

Baron's distraction-conflict theory - anything that distracted us - audience, lights, sounds, etc - acts as distractor and affects performance.
Limit social facilitation by:

- learn in presence of others
- introduce audience/performance early
- guarantee success
- gradually introduce evaluation
Social Facilitation Questions

Qu 1

(a) Some performers appear to perform well in front of an audience, while others may perform badly. This has been referred to as 'choking' under pressure. Explain this observation using social facilitation theory.

(6 marks)

(b) How could a coach help a performer in the later stages of learning overcome their failings in front of an audience?

(3 marks)

Answers

(a) The presence of audience increases arousal, this tends to make performer try harder.

A beginner's performance negatively affected by this increase in arousal, because the performer has not fully developed appropriate responses to demands of performance. These effects are more apparent when attempting complex task. Evaluation apprehension causes extra arousal. The inverted U hypothesis and idea of over-arousal and decreased performance may be used to explain social facilitation. At the later stages of learning - arousal tends to enhance performance, especially with simple task - the performer has developed skilled responses to a high level.

(b) Encourage demonstration of skills in front of audience during practice, and if necessary begin with small audience and gradually increase complexity/demand of audience. Maintain audience presence as complexity of learned skills develop and provide positive feedback following performance;
Goal Setting

Goal-setting - identification of what performer is trying to achieve at some designated point in the future.

Outcome goals (result) or process goals (method).

Technical goal (skill) or tactical goals (strategy).

Guidelines to develop effective performance goals:

1. Goals should be established through consultation between performer and coach.
2. Put the goals in writing.
3. Goals must be challenging, but attainable, measurable, realistic, and manageable.
4. When two or three goals are established, they must be compatible.
5. Goals should be flexible enough to allow for revision and change.
6. Goals should have structured time frames or target dates.
7. Priorities should be structured for goals.
8. All factors related to goal attainment should be taken into account.
9. Goals must be stated to allow for evaluation of effort, as well as performance.
10. Goals should be related to the overall aim of performance.

Use mnemonic SMARTER - goals should be:

S hared between coach and performer
M easurable
A chievable
R ealistic
T ime-based
E ffort and performance-based
R ritten-down

Conclusion

• Goal setting is integral to achievement motivation
• The reaching of a goal that has been set will be experienced as valuable, with the probable consequence that the wish to excel, by undertaking a similar method, will be strengthened.
  The player would be quite willing to use this technique again if he achieves a higher standard of performance.
• This setting of goals and eventually reaching them, involves important learning processes.

Goal-setting is one technique that may help to ensure that adequate incentives are available to encourage the performer to seek to improve performance in sport.
**Goal Setting Questions**

**Qu 1.**

(a) Coaches use a number of different techniques to raise the level of performance of their athletes. Distinguish between *rewards* and *goals*, both of which may be used by a coach.

(4 marks)

(b) (i) Describe *goal-setting* and briefly explain its purpose in attempting to improve sport performance.

(3 marks)

(ii) What should the coach do to ensure that the setting of goals will result in improved sporting performance?

(7 marks)

**Answers**

(a) Rewards - tangible or non-tangible items given for varying degrees of success. Goals - targets set for a performer to achieve.

(b) (i) Identification of what performer is trying to achieve at some designated point in the future. Provides performer with incentive and potential success to improve confidence and increases motivation.

(ii) Goals should be agreed between performer and coach. Should be realistic, challenging, achievable, and measurable. Should be both performance and effort-based. Goals should be written down and have a time-scale for intermittent goals as well as long-term goals, and all goals should be subject to revision.
Self - Efficacy

Self Efficacy Bandura
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EoBAVN-s9XI

Vealy's Self Confidence Theory
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xWy6GUqBD9A

This looks at how self-confidence can vary from one situation to another. E.g., A hockey GK may feel extremely confident in the game but then go to pieces in a penalty shoot out where poor past performances have produced low self-efficacy. E.g. A rugby player may not be confident in performing a dance routine.

Self-confidence- “a person’s belief that they have the ability to meet the demands of a particular sporting situation”.

Self-confidence - important cognitive factor in sport; most consistent difference between elite and less successful athletes is that elite athletes have greater self-confidence. Performance benefits in increasing an individual’s self-confidence. Bandura called situation-specific self-confidence - self-efficacy.

Hence improve self-efficacy - improve performance.

Self-Efficacy is affected by four factors:
1 - Performance accomplishments - Previous experiences, past successes will help develop high self-efficacy. How well you have done - most dependable information for self-efficacy, and has the best effect for improving self-efficacy. Success in more difficult task enhances efficacy more than in easy one. Early success in performing a task rather than initial failure will also enhance efficacy. Similarly achieving success independently is better than with the support of others.
2 - Vicarious experiences - Watching another successfully perform a skill - also increases self-efficacy (use demonstrations as a form of guidance) - sight of seeing another person being successful skill reduces anxiety and convinces others of its possibilities - more powerful effect if 'model' is a peer (classmate). Vicarious experience not as effective at improving self-efficacy as is actually doing it yourself. Watching others perform successfully.
3 - Verbal persuasion - Help encourage performers self-efficacy, but effects less than performance accomplishments or vicarious experiences. The person supplying information must be perceived as knowledgeable in terms of the activity and trustworthy. Encouragement from someone highly regarded can lead to high levels of confidence.
4 - Arousal levels - Bandura suggests that arousal affects behaviour through efficacy expectations. In other words, if you feel your heart beating and your knees shaking prior to performing, you feel less confident. Over arousal will hinder performance - performer less confident of their actions. Anxiety-reducing techniques to increase self-efficacy, but the individual’s interpretation of arousal must also be considered. If the performer feels “in control” of their own arousal level, they will have a higher of self-efficacy.
High achievers often have high levels of self-efficacy - linear relationship. However, can we be over confident? We can become complacent.

Studies show that when all else is equal the athlete with the greatest level of self-efficacy will win.

We should encourage self-efficacy. Changes in self-efficacy influence actual behaviour.

Coaches can use the four factors involved to help performers increase their confidence. This might lead to the following strategies:

a. Allow success and point out successful past experiences. E.g., lower the bar in High Jump to allow a beginner to clear the height.

b. Give an accurate demo or show a role model performing the activity successfully.

c. Give support and encouragement, e.g., “I know you can do it!” and encourage team mates to help encourage.

d. Control arousal levels by relaxation or mental rehearsal.
Self - Confidence

e.
self-esteem

f.

an aspect of

h.

an attitude
to perform

g.

belief that one

i.

form of self

can succeed

Strategies to increase self-efficacy

1. Ensure the individual gains performance accomplishment through **manipulation of the environment** - ensure competitions can be won and training drills achieved - more difficult at elite level

2. **Effective goal setting** - achieved through ensuring individuals goals are realistic - ensure success. Goals should emphasis individual performance targets, rather than group or team targets. This means goal setting must be done in consultation with performer

3. Cognitive techniques are gaining control of your mind - **self-talk**. Performers say positive things to themselves, but not so much that it distracts them.

4. **Routines** ensure individual achieves control over matter of sporting performance. A tennis player may have pre-competition routine, a routine between games and routines for between points.

5. **Mental rehearsal**.
Self Efficacy Questions

Qu 1.
(a) (i) Describe self-efficacy in a sports performer. 

(ii) Compare the ways in which high and low levels of self-efficacy might affect an athlete’s performance.

(b) A sport participant’s performance has deteriorated because of a reduction in self efficacy.
What strategies might the coach use in order to improve the self-efficacy of the performer?

Answers
(a) (i) Self-efficacy is situation-specific self-confidence.

(ii) High - increase motivation through increased self-confidence and a positive attitude to performance. Low - decrease confidence and motivation - possibility of learned helplessness.

(b) Ensure success through manipulation of environment, set realistic goals, develop strategies such as self-talk and mental rehearsal to reduce stress.
Attentional Control

Cue Utilisation
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6VECTqPGwBE
Nideffer’s Attentional Styles
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ejAE2yP7n34
Peak Flow
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xutYcI6BfQo
Emotional Control

Anxiety - can produce stress and arousal and this can have either a positive or negative affect on performance. Athletes must learn to control these levels to ensure optimum performance levels. It is a feeling of apprehension, e.g., an athlete worrying about a performance.

Trait Anxiety - is the characteristic that disposes people to be generally anxious. Such individuals tend to be 'worriers'.

State Anxiety - is the tendency to become anxious only in certain situations e.g., some individuals only become nervous when playing against certain players.

Stress and Arousal - are both psychological responses to 'Stressors'.

Self confidence - is the level of belief a person has in their ability to be successful.

Relationship between arousal, stress and anxiety

Arousal

Arousal is the state of general physiological and psychological state of readiness, ranging in intensity from deep sleep to intense excitement. It is important for athletes to know, and be able to compete at, their optimum level. Being over aroused or under aroused can have serious implication for performance.

The inverted U hypothesis (Yerkes & Dodson, 1908) suggests that as arousal increases, so does performance, up to an optimal point. After this point, as arousal continues to increase, performance decreases. In sport, the relationship between performance and arousal can be influenced by factors such as personality, skill level, type of skill or activity and the presence of others.

Think about Fitts and Posner 3 stages of learning and where the highest levels of arousal arise.

Think about different personality types and which ones exhibit the highest levels of arousal.

Think about different types of skills and consider which type of skill lends itself to inducing the higher levels of arousal.

Consequences of low arousal - when under aroused the outcome becomes less important, the focus of attention becomes too broad, allowing for distraction by irrelevant cues or to miss relevant ones. The level of readiness will be low, thus reaction time will be low.
Consequences of high arousal - this can result in a narrowing of attention, which can lead performances to miss relevant cues. ‘red mist’ players become too engaged in irrelevant cues. Performers also misinterpret cues and become disorientated. High arousal level links to increased muscular tension which can have a negative effect on performance and sometimes lead to injury.

As a coach and a performer it might be necessary to induce arousal. These include:
- increase breathing rate
- listen to music
- imagery of positive, assertive or physical behaviour
- positive self statements
- a vigorous warm up

Stress

Stress is a physiological and psychological reaction to a stressor. Stress can be brought on by internal causes, such as trait anxiety or low self esteem, or external situational factors, such as the importance of the event.

Stress is a response of the body to any demands made on it. The symptoms are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Physiological</th>
<th>Psychological</th>
<th>Behavioural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased heart rate</td>
<td>Worry</td>
<td>Rapid talking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased blood pressure</td>
<td>Feeling overwhelmed</td>
<td>Nail biting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased sweating</td>
<td>Inability to make decisions</td>
<td>Pacing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased respiration</td>
<td>Inability to concentrate</td>
<td>Scowling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased flow of blood to the skin</td>
<td>Inability to direct attention appropriately</td>
<td>Yawning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased oxygen uptake</td>
<td>Narrowing of attention</td>
<td>Trembling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dry mouth</td>
<td>Feeling out of control</td>
<td>Raised voice pitch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Frequent urination</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Stressors

Social

Chemical

Biochemical

Climatic

Bacterial

Physical

Psychological
Stress increases arousal, which, depends on the individual’s starting and optimum arousal points, could be either positive or negative in terms of performance. If the stress produces excitement and raises arousal to the player’s optimum level then this is positive. If, however, the stress distracts the performer and takes the arousal beyond the optimum point, then it will have a negative influence on performance. In its negative form it can lead to frustration, aggression etc....

Essentially some stress is good for performance, however, performers need to be aware of their own levels and be fully aware of how to control them.

**Eustress**
A type of stress with a positive effect.
The performer actively seeks the thrill of the danger and enjoys the excitement and feeling of satisfaction when it is over.
E.g., bungy jumping - free rock climbing.

**The Stress Process**

Stage 1  
Environmental demand (physical & psychological)

Stage 2  
Individual’s perception of the environmental demand (amount of psychological or physical threat perceived)

Stage 3  
Stress response (physical or psychological)
- Arousal
- State anxiety (cognitive and somatic)
- Muscle tension
- Attention changes

Stage 4  
Behaviour consequences (performance or outcome)
Anxiety

Anxiety is defined by Weinberg and Gould (2003) as, “a negative emotional state with feeling of worry, nervousness and apprehension with activation of the body.”

It is caused by an imbalance between the demands of the task and ability. Anxiety is closely linked to stress and arousal, as it is often caused by stress and usually results in an increase in arousal.

Anxiety can be a trait or state construct. Traits are general, underlying, enduring predispositions to behave in a particular way each time a situation occurs. Someone high in trait anxiety will regularly feel anxious in everyday life, often when it is not justified. People who report high levels of trait anxiety usually have more state anxiety than people reporting low trait anxiety, in the same situation.

A state construct is one that is influenced by the situation. It will fluctuate from moment to moment. So, while an individual might not have high trait anxiety, the notion of boxing against Mike Tyson might induce high levels of state anxiety.

Competitive state anxiety can be caused by:
- lack of belief in ability
- fear of failure
- fear of making mistakes
- fear of underperforming
- fear of evaluation of others
- fear of the opponent or the event
- fear of injury
- fear of danger associated with the event
- lack of control over the circumstances
**Multi-dimensional anxiety theory (McGrath 1970) - the stress process**

Most recent research suggests that anxiety splits into two categories:

1. **Somatic anxiety** - physical state of readiness - produces physiological responses (e.g., increased heart rate/blood pressure/body temperature/sweating/adrenaline release)
2. **Cognitive anxiety** - mental state of readiness - produces psychological responses (e.g., worrying about performance, poor concentration and the inability to make decisions, level of alertness, focus on attention)

McGrath 1970 - suggests that once performance begins somatic anxiety may remain. This can lead to the performance suffering as the performer begins to focus on mistakes. Anxiety increases further to such an extent that the performance deteriorates significantly.
Cognitive anxiety -
The multi dimensional state anxiety theory suggests that the more negative thoughts that we have the worse we perform. Symptoms of cognitive anxiety include:
- narrowing of the focus of attention
- poor concentration
- self-centred thoughts
- negative thoughts about ability
- worrying about failure
- inability to make decisions, often for fear of being wrong
- frustration, which could lead to aggression
- somatic anxiety

If the athletes can focus their attention on the correct cues, cognitive anxiety will decline at the start of a performance. If not or if something negative happens during the performance that causes more doubt, then cognitive anxiety will persist throughout.

Somatic anxiety -
This is the psychological part of anxiety and is associated with arousal. As with arousal, it is proposed that there is an inverted U relationship between somatic anxiety and performance. It aids performance up to a point, but then causes performance to deteriorate. Levels of somatic anxiety can fluctuate greatly. It, however, usually declines once the performance has started.

The symptoms are usually described as ‘flight or fight’ responses. This has evolved from the need to either flee from danger or stop there and fight for your life. The psychological changes include:
- increased heart rate
- increased rate of breathing
- starting to sweat
- an increase in blood pressure
- an increase in the release of fibrinogen (blood clotting agent)
- an increase in muscular tension
- the need to go to the toilet
- reduced blood flow to the organs and digestive system in order to supply the muscles (butterflies)

Positive:
1. athletes should be able to control anxiety levels, improving performance
2. coaches should be able to recognise symptoms early and take action
3. athletes can learn to manage their anxiety levels

Negative:
1. performers are individual
2. coaches must learn what works for each performer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demands</th>
<th>Perception</th>
<th>Arousal</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Situation</td>
<td>Positive (challenge)</td>
<td>Eustress</td>
<td>Enhanced Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative (threat)</td>
<td>Distress</td>
<td>Impaired Performance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The management of stress

Self induced stress - worrying about performance

Limit anxiety to manageable levels

COGNITIVE - replacing negative thoughts with positive ones

SOMATIC - persuading the body that the stressor does not exist

Relaxation

STRESS MANAGEMENT

Self-directed

Bio feedback

Imagery

Progressive relaxation training
Coping with Anxiety

Sport will always turn out winners and losers. Everybody suffers from stress and anxiety at some point. However, what is needed is a some planned strategies to prevent anxiety and alleviate its symptoms. Stress management improves performance through controlling arousal - try to get state of relaxed concentration.

- Progressive relaxation techniques
- Meditation
- Slow deep breathing
- Imagery
- Self talk
- Routine
- Thought stopping
- Goal setting - SMARTER goals
- Listening to music
- Biofeedback - HR monitor
- Association
- Disassociation
- Worst case scenario
- Keeping things in perspective
- Mental rehearsal

Three ways:
1. Reduce or control the physiological components of stress.
2. Control or redirect their thoughts and attention.
3. Initiate positive constructive changes in their behaviour.

These work:
- Jacobson’s progressive muscle relaxation (PMR)
- Mental rehearsal
- Thought-stopping

PMR - alternative tension and relaxation in muscles of body - coupled to breathing rhythm - progressively reducing tension in whole body to reduce anxiety - somatic method - needs to be learned

Mental rehearsal/Imagery - uses visualisation to lock in on "perfect performance" - focusing on "control" of performance - reduces anxiety by diverting attention away from anxiety. Cognitive - need to learn of visualised sequences of perfect movements.

Thought-stopping - uses simple physical or mental "action" to switch attention to controlled mental state - reducing anxiety. Cognitive - depends on learning or conditioning of response of calm mental state to stimulus of physical/mental "action".
Measuring Anxiety

- Interviews
- Observation
- Biofeedback - Electrocardiogram measures heart rate. Galvanic Skin response which measures skin conductivity. Electromyogram measures muscle tension. Electroencephalogram measures brain wave activity.
- Questionnaires

Questionnaires -
- The Sport Competition Anxiety Test (SCAT, Martens 1977) measures the emotional and physiological responses to stress in the competitive environment. Self-report - specific to sports competitions - measures person's level of state anxiety in competition-specific situations.
- State, Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI, Spielberger) measures the emotional and physiological responses to stress in general and specific situations. Self-report - rate how nervous you feel both in general and specific situations - measures both state and trait anxiety.
- Sport Anxiety Scale (SAS, Smith) a multidimensional model including two cognitive anxiety scales and one somatic anxiety scale.
SCAT – Assessing Your Anxiety

Read each statement below, decide if you "Rarely", "Sometimes" or "Often" feel this way when competing in your sport, tick the appropriate box to indicate your response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Competing against others is socially enjoyable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Before I compete I feel uneasy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Before I compete I worry about not performing well</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>I am a good sportsman when I compete</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>When I compete, I worry about making mistakes</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Before I compete I am calm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Setting a goal is important when competing</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Before I compete I get a queasy feeling in my stomach</td>
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<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Just before competing, I notice my heart beats faster than usual</td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>I like to compete in games that demands a lot of physical energy</td>
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<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Before I compete I feel relaxed</td>
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<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Before I compete I am nervous</td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Team sports are more exciting than individual sports</td>
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<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>I get nervous wanting to start the game</td>
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<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Before I compete I usually get uptight</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Athlete’s Name

SCAT Score

Less than 17  You have a low level of anxiety
17 to 24     You have an average level of anxiety
More than 24 You have a high level of anxiety
Analysis

The score for the response to each question is detailed below. Enter the score for each question in the “Athlete’s Score” column and then total the column up to provide a SCAT score.

Note that questions 1, 4, 7, 10 and 13 score zero regardless of the response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question No</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Athlete’s Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
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<td>12</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total

SCAT Score

- Less than 17: You have a low level of anxiety
- 17 to 24: You have an average level of anxiety
- More than 24: You have a high level of anxiety
Cognitive state anxiety increase in the days prior to competition, and changes during competition, as the likelihood of success or failure changes; somatic state anxiety tends to be low well before competition, but increases as the event itself approaches, but generally decreases during competition.
Conclusion

- prepare themselves **mentally** for competition.
- focus on things that are within their control
- avoid using the 'win' word
- all forms of stress control reduce arousal state
Anxiety Questions

Qu 1

The nature of the event and its positioning within a stadium, often means that the shot put competition for elite athletes may take place in front of many spectators.

Competing in the shot put may cause anxiety in the performer. The diagram shows the relationship of competitive anxiety to the competition process.

(a) Using the diagram, explain why the competitive situation invariably leads to anxiety, and how and why these anxiety levels may vary between competitors. (4 marks)

(b) Martens (1976) developed a Sport Competition Anxiety Test (SCAT). Outline the use of this test and its effectiveness. (3 marks)

Answers

(a) The threat of evaluation leads to feeling of anxiousness. There are individual differences between people in same situation. These are trait anxiety - personality trait to become anxious in certain situations, and state anxiety - changeable feelings at a given moment. Situational factors - importance of situation - creates different levels of anxiety in same person; E.g., fear of failure or performing badly;

(b) SCAT is a questionnaire given prior to competition that has been shown by research to be very reliable. It measures trait anxiety in specific sport/competitive setting. Also possibly not effective - respondents 'lie' and their anxiety state alters;
Qu 2. Study the following quotation:

"Competition or any type of performance evaluation increases anxiety in nearly everyone." (Gill 1986).

(a) (i) How is inverted U theory used to explain the effects of arousal on sports performance. (2 marks)

(ii) What are the main effects of increasing anxiety? (2 marks)

(b) Elite performers such as divers need to control their levels of anxiety in order to produce their optimum performance. Describe three methods of controlling anxiety. (6 marks)

Answers

(a) (i) Inverted-U - idea that performance varies as anxiety levels alter;
Optimal level of anxiety for optimal performance;

(ii) Cognitive - negative thoughts and worry;
Somatic - increased heart rate and breathing rate

(b) Mental rehearsal is a cognitive technique that uses visualisation to lock in on 'perfect performance' as a means of focusing on 'control' of personal performance. It reduces anxiety by diverting attention from (cause of) anxiety. It depends on previous learning of visualised sequences of perfect performance.

Thought-stopping is a cognitive technique that uses a simple mental or physical action (e.g. clenching fist, counting slowly) as a means of switching attention into a calm mental state to reduce anxiety. It depends on prior learning/conditioning of the response of the calm state to the stimulus of 'action'.

Progressive Muscular Relaxation is a somatic technique that uses alternate tension and relaxation of body muscles coupled with breathing rhythm to progressively reduce the tension of whole body and associated the anxiety. It depends on learned ability to systematically concentrate on tension reduction in muscles, starting at periphery and working towards centre.
Preparing for examinations - Guidelines

Be well prepared!

Physical and mental preparations are very important in the lead up to the exams. Treat the exams like a race. (Honeybourne) By being very organised you can help your memory to work more effectively for you.

Before the RACE:

♦ Review and organise your notes. Have a section for each part of the course.
♦ Act on a realistic revision programme. See it through. Find a quiet comfortable place at home and revise for about 1 hour intervals with a 10 minute break in between.
♦ Create summary notes of your notes, then summaries of your summary notes and so on. The last set of summary notes might be written up on cards. When making summaries of your notes you need to summarise the topics. Emphasise the key words in capitals and colours. Look at these notes often. The ones you find most difficult look at more often. Make connections; link up in your mind things that you are trying to remember. So that by remembering one thing it triggers other points. Make up rhymes or stories to help you remember. E.g., RICER, DR.ABC The 5 S’s of Health Related Fitness and ABCPRS for Skill Related Fitness.
♦ Elaborate through regular review. Read your notes, read them aloud, teach yourself then test yourself. Write down all you know about a subject or draw a diagram and label it. Check to see if you are right. Do you understand the work? If not then ask or read up about it. Use past papers to test yourself under exam conditions. Use the mark scheme to mark the work. Check where you went wrong and then go back and learn that particular area until you are happy. Actively learn the work.

RACE day: Leaving home: ON YOUR MARKS

♦ Get a good nights sleep
♦ Get up early, have a shower and eat a good breakfast.
♦ Make sure that you get to the venue in plenty of time.
♦ Avoid talking to anyone about the exam, it will only make you nervous.
♦ Get into the Zone! The zone is when you feel determined and well prepared. You will have a slight sense of excitement at the forthcoming questions, and your ability to give very good answers.
♦ Be calm, yet confident!
In the examination: GET SET

♦ Be aware of where you need to sit and check that your chair and desk are not wobbly.
♦ Place your well stocked “transparent” pencil case on your desk.
♦ Check that the exam paper is the correct one and fill in the details on the front when told to do so.
♦ Read the instructions very carefully and stay in the zone.

At the start: GO

♦ Skim read all the questions.
♦ Make decisions if you have choices to make. Cross out questions that do not apply to you.
♦ Divide up your time appropriately.
♦ Read the first question, and then read it again. Underline the key words and establish what the examiner is really asking you.
♦ Make a short plan if the question requires an extended answer.
♦ Begin writing but refer back to the question, so that you do not wander off the point.
♦ When requested give good solid examples ensuring a full explanation/description, not simply, “like in football”.
♦ Look at the mark allocation for each question and give sufficient information to earn the marks. However, do not write to many points and waste time.
♦ Keep checking the requirements of the question.
♦ If writing on blank paper, start each new answer on a blank sheet of leave lots of space between answers so that you can add more later when you check your work.
♦ Make sure that you label your answers very clearly.
♦ Have a go at all the questions that you should be doing. Do not leave any blank spaces.
♦ Check the clock regularly.
♦ Check that you have answered the correct amount of questions.
♦ Skim read through your answers, you may want to go back and add something. Keep checking until you are told to stop. Make any spelling corrections neatly.

At the finish: THE END

♦ Make sure that you hand in all the work and that your pages are all named and in the correct order.
♦ Do not discuss the exam with anyone in depth. What’s the point? It is too late to change anything.
♦ Go home and prepare for your next exam in a positive frame of mind.
♦ Remember what happens, you have done your best.