

AN ANALYSIS OF THE ROLE OPTIMISM AND PESSIMISM PLAY IN THE COACHING
TECHNIQUES OF DIVISION I INTERCOLLEGIATE GOLFERS: A MIXED-MODEL
DESIGN

by

MATTHEW J. WILSON

(Under the Direction of Billy Hawkins)

ABSTRACT

The rise in money associated with intercollegiate athletics has created a high-pressure environment for both coaches and players. Today's intercollegiate coaches and players compete in a situation, whereby the sole value of success is the team's won-loss record. To date, the coaching research has been found to contain a plethora of studies investigating various characteristics of the coach/player relationship (Chelladuai, 1984; Horne & Carron, 1985; Gould, 1988; Black & Weiss, 1992; Coté, Salmela, Trudel, Baria, & Russell, 1995; Bloom, Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 1997). However, there is a dearth of research investigating the effects of explanatory style on coaching techniques.

The current study investigated the influence explanatory style (the manner in which an individual explains his/her surroundings, experiences, or outlook towards the world around him/her) has on the coaching techniques of Division I intercollegiate golf coaches. The most common terms associated with the classification of an individual's explanatory style are optimism and pessimism (Seligman, 1991). The present study used a mixed-model methodology. Individual optimism and pessimism levels were obtained from Division I Golf coaches (N=8) and golfers (N=40) during a three-day Division I intercollegiate golf tournament, through the administration of the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994).

Qualitative data were obtained through standardized open-ended interviews with five of the eight coaches based on their LOT-R scores. The researcher incorporated an interpretational qualitative analysis of the interview data. The results from the quantitative portion of the study were compared and contrasted (triangulation) with the results from the qualitative portion of the study. These results were used to investigate the effects of optimism and pessimism on the coaching techniques of intercollegiate golfers.

The results of this mixed-model research design indicated a weak positive relationship between the players' self-reported explanatory style and the coaches' perceived players' explanatory style ($r = .32, p < .05$). A weak positive relationship was also found between the coaches' self-reported explanatory style and the players' perceived coaches' explanatory style ($r = .37, p < .05$). Further qualitative analysis indicated that coaches implement the technique of redirecting their less optimistic player's thought and self-talk processes after a less successful round of competitive golf. In addition, the coaches believed their players might lack a realistic understanding of their own explanatory style. Lastly, the results indicated the coaches attempt to engage in self-awareness training techniques as a means of changing pessimistic explanatory style.

INDEX WORDS: Explanatory Style, Optimism and Pessimism, Intercollegiate Athletics

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B.S., Georgia Southern University, 1994

M.Ed., Georgia Southern University, 1998

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2004

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother and father, Mary and Jimmy Wilson. If not for your love and support this goal may never have been accomplished. I thoroughly appreciate and am thankful for all that you both have provided for me over the years. Thank you and always know that I love you.

This dissertation is also dedicated to my late grandparents Rocco and Angela Borrelli. You both came to this country, from Italy, with nothing but a dream of a better life and worked hard to raise a loving and caring family. Everyday I am grateful for the twenty-seven years I was able to experience with you both and miss our times together. I also know that somewhere you are both sharing in this accomplishment.

Lastly, I want to dedicate this dissertation to Lisa. The end of this long journey is finally here, but the memories will never end. The NBA playoffs, the calls from Thompson, the studying in Somerset, the trip to Jeckyll, and the hours spent writing in the back office at Seminole all have one common denominator and that is you. Your love and support during the good and difficult times will never be forgotten. I thank you and love you.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to begin by acknowledging my dissertation chair, Dr. Billy Hawkins. Your willingness to help me with this project and your assistance will always be appreciated. I thank you for all that has been done to assist me in accomplishing this goal. Thank you.

To Dr. Bryan McCullick, I would also like to extend my gratitude for your insight and guidance with my project, especially my qualitative research. This project was a bold undertaking for me and I would not have been able to put together a quality project without your help. Thank you.

To Dr. Michael Lomax, I can honestly say that you have taught me to always look at an issue from both sides. I learned a tremendous amount from you and appreciated all your help with my writing style. Thank you.

Lastly, to Dr. Barry Joyner, my professor, colleague, golf buddy, and friend, if anyone deserves to be thanked for this degree, it is you. If not for your thesis suggestion some six years ago, I would not be where I am today. I thank you for the countless times you sat with me to discuss this project and degree. Furthermore, I thank you for all of the life talks we have shared over the years. You are a true friend and I am truly thankful for all of your help. Thank you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
LIST OF APPENDICES.....	x
CHAPTER	
I INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of Purpose	4
Research Questions.....	4
Need for the Study	5
Delimitations of the Study	7
Limitations of the Study.....	7
Basic Assumptions of the Study	7
Definition of Terms.....	8
II REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	10
Leadership and Athletics.....	10
Leadership and Coaching Behaviors	11
Optimism and Pessimism.....	18
Optimism and Pessimism Inventories.....	19
Optimism and Pessimism in Health and Exercise	24
Optimism and Pessimism in Sport.....	28
Psychological Skills Training in Golf.....	29

Qualitative Research	33
Qualitative Research and Sport.....	37
Qualitative Research and Golf	42
Qualitative Interviewing	43
Interpretational Qualitative Data Analysis.....	44
III METHODS	48
Procedures.....	48
Participants.....	48
Instrumentation	49
Data Collection Procedures.....	49
Data Analysis Procedures	50
Trustworthiness of Data	53
Researcher as Instrument Statement	53
IV RESULTS	55
Section I: Quantitative Data Analysis.....	56
Section II: Qualitative Data Analysis	58
Category Description	62
Qualitative Data Related to Coaches	65
Interpretation of Qualitative Data	76
Section III: Triangulation of Data.....	77
Section IV: Summary of Results.....	79

V	DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	82
	Discussion	83
	Conclusion	92
	Recommendations for Future Research	95
	REFERENCES	98
	APPENDICES	116
A	Introduction Email	116
B	Players' Consent Form.....	117
C	Coaches' Consent Form.....	118
D	Players' Personal Statement Questionnaire	119
E	Coaches' Personal Statement Questionnaire	120
F	Life Orientation Test-Revised.....	121
G	Life Orientation Test-Revised Modified Player's Version.....	122
H	Life Orientation Test-Revised Modified Coaches' Version	123
I	Interview Question List (Protocol)	124
J	Preliminary Analysis of Interview Data	125
K	Peer Debriefing Resume	130
L	Recognizing Explanatory Style: Tips for Youth Sport Coaches	132

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1: Players' Self-Reported LOT-R Scores and Coaches' Perceived Players' LOT-R Scores	57
Table 2: Coaches' Self-Reported LOT-R Scores and Players' Perceived Coaches' LOT-R Scores	58

LIST OF APPENDICES

	Page
Appendix A Introduction Email	116
Appendix B Players' Consent Form.....	117
Appendix C Coaches' Consent Form.....	118
Appendix D Players' Personal Statement Questionnaire	119
Appendix E Coaches' Personal Statement Questionnaire	120
Appendix F Life Orientation Test-Revised.....	121
Appendix G Life Orientation Test-Revised Modified Players' Version.....	122
Appendix H Life Orientation Test-Revised Modified Coaches' Version	123
Appendix I Interview Question List (Protocol)	124
Appendix J Preliminary Analysis of Interview Data	125
Appendix K Peer Debriefing Resume.....	130
Appendix L Recognizing Explanatory Style: Tips for Youth Sport Coaches	132

CHAPTER I

Introduction

Within the realm of athletics no relationship may be more important than the one between coach and player. “The coach is the most important person in determining the quality and success of an athlete’s sport experience, yet surprisingly, little research exists that identifies optimal coaching behaviors and factors that influence the effectiveness of particular behaviors.” (Williams, et al., 2003, p. 16). Review of the literature found studies examining various aspects associated with coaching: the relationship between coaches and athletes (Horne, & Carron, 1985); the methods used by coaches to increase athlete’s self-efficacy (Weinberg, Grove, & Jackson, 1992); coaching knowledge (Coté, Salmela, Trudel, Baria, & Russell, 1995); coaching routines of expert coaches (Bloom, Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 1997); and the identification of the psychological skills training implemented by youth sport coaches (Gould, Demarjian, & Medberry, 1999). Sources have also discussed the central role a coach occupies within the team concept and in an athlete’s life (Gould, 1988; Martens, 1990). While, further investigations have attempted to identify those qualities that define a successful coach (Brustad, 1988; Black & Weiss, 1992; Chelladuai, 1984;).

However, little is known from a systematic, empirical perspective with regards to the influences coaches have in the psychological development of his/her athlete (Black & Weiss, 1992). In addition, little research in the coaching field has attempted to investigate the specific strategies coaches use to develop cohesion in small group sports (Turman, 2003). Williams et al. (2003) have further stated that with few exceptions the research has not focused enough attention on the interaction between coaches and athletes and how this interaction contributes to the

athlete's overall performance. Lastly, Smith, Smoll, and Curtis (1978) discovered that coaches have little understanding of how often they demonstrate certain behaviors, and they have even less understanding of how these behaviors effect their athletes.

In addition, a lack of research has also been found investigating the effect explanatory style may have on the relationship between coach and player. Explanatory style refers to the manner in which an individual interprets or explains his/her surroundings, experiences, or outlook towards the world around him/her (Gillham, Shatte', Reivich, and Seligman, 2002). The most common terms used to classify explanatory style are optimism and pessimism (Seligman, 1991). Individuals identified as optimistic typically explain their experience in a positive manner. These individuals believe that good things will happen to them in the future. While individuals identified as pessimistic explain life experiences in a negative manner. These individuals tend to believe that if something bad can happen, it will.

A plethora of research has analyzed the effects of an individual's optimism or pessimism in various environments such as clinical and health psychology (Lewis, Dember, Schefft, & Radenhausen, 1995). Within these areas, optimism has been linked to psychological and physical well-being (Kavussanu & McAuley, 1995). It has also been found to be associated with feelings of happiness and positive mental health (Taylor & Brown, 1988). Additional studies have analyzed the effects of optimism and pessimism on recovery from illness (Peterson, Seligman, & Valiant, 1988; Scheier, et al., 1989) finding more optimistic people experience better health and less feelings of distress. While in the athletic setting, a dearth of research has been conducted investigating the effects of optimism and pessimism on sport performance.

Rettew and Reivich (1995) did conduct an explanatory style investigation within the sport setting. They found that basketball team members giving more optimistic explanations for a team

loss had a higher chance of winning their next game as compared to basketball teams consisting of players offering more pessimistic explanations after a team loss. Seligman et al., (1990) investigated the effects of optimism and pessimism on swimming performance. University swimmers were each provided with false feedback regarding a swim trial and then required to complete another trial. Results indicated that those swimmers possessing an optimistic explanatory style were found more resilient and had better performance times after given negative feedback. Additional investigation by Seligman (1990) has indicated that an optimistic explanatory style has an impact on professional team success.

A fundamental component of the present study is an attempt to identify the explanatory style for both coaches and players. This shall be accomplished through the administration of the Life Orientation Test-Revised (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994), which has become a common personal outlook inventory (Scheier, et al., 1989; Scheier & Carver, 1992; Sheppard, Maroto, & Pbert, 1996). Further data regarding explanatory style will be collected through the use of an open-ended interview process conducted with a select number of coaches. As Cote' et al., (1993) have alluded to, the interview is one of the most common methods of obtaining qualitative data. Several qualitative studies have used the interview process to examine various aspects of coaching and athletic performance (Cohn, 1990, 1991; Orlick & Partington, 1988; Salmela et al., 1991; Weiss et al., 1990).

The purpose of the present study is to: (a) determine if coaches possess an accurate perception of their players' optimistic/pessimistic outlook; (b) determine if the players possess an accurate perception of their coach's optimistic/pessimistic outlook; (c) this study will determine, through qualitative data collection, if an optimistic/pessimistic outlook affects coaching techniques when a coach is dealing with a less optimistic golfer after a less successful round of

golf; and (d) this study will gather much needed qualitative data concerning the coaching techniques implemented when coaches are dealing with optimistic and pessimistic golfers after a less successful round.

Statement of Purpose

There are several purposes to this study:

1. To determine if coaches possess an accurate perception of their players' optimistic/pessimistic outlook.
2. To determine if players possess an accurate perception of their coach's optimistic/pessimistic outlook.
3. To determine if an optimistic/pessimistic outlook effects coaching techniques when a coach is dealing with a less optimistic golfer after a less successful round.
4. To obtain much needed qualitative data concerning the coaching techniques when coaches are dealing with optimistic and pessimistic golfers after a less successful round.

Research Questions

The following questions will be addressed in this study:

1. Is there a relationship between a player's optimistic/pessimistic explanatory style as measured by the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) and the coaches' perception of their player's explanatory style?
2. Is there a relationship between a coaches' optimistic/pessimistic explanatory style as measured by the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) and the players' perception of their coaches' explanatory style?
3. What are the specific techniques used by coaches when dealing with a less optimistic

golfer after a less successful round, as opposed to dealing with a more optimistic golfer after a less successful round of golf?

Need for the Study

As the big business of intercollegiate athletics continues to expand, so too are the pressures placed on both intercollegiate coaches and athletes. In no other country, besides the United States, are college athletics engrained so deeply into the university system, given such enormous budgets, or taken so seriously (Chu, 1985). Numerous studies have been conducted examining the positive (Beyer & Hannah, 2000; Frey, 1986; Stanley & Lanford, 1997) and negative (Eitzen, 1992; Sperber, 2000) aspects associated with intercollegiate athletics. A driving force behind the study of intercollegiate athletics is the fact that the most recent television rights contract for the Division I Men's Basketball Tournament will pay the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) six billion dollars over the next eleven years (NCAA, 2000). Intercollegiate athletics have become a major money-producing vehicle (Sperber, 2000). With these amounts of monies involved, there has arisen a tremendous amount of pressure on both coaches and players to succeed. The need for this study stems from the demand for coaches, athletes, and athletic personnel to achieve success in order to reap the financial benefits now associated with intercollegiate athletics.

Numerous studies have been conducted identifying successful psychological skills training amongst intercollegiate athletes (Anderson, et al., 1988; Burton, 1989; Czech, et al., 2002; Swain & Jones, 1995; Weinberg, Stichter, & Jackson, 1994). Further research attempts have been made identifying successful leadership styles and perceptions between coaches and players (Black & Weiss, 1992; Dimarco, Mancini, & West, 1997; Westre, & Weiss, 1991).

These results have indicated those coaches providing positive feedback, with a more democratic coaching style, had athletes with higher levels of perceived success.

Additional research has further examined the influence explanatory style/personal outlook (optimistic/pessimistic) has on performance (Peterson & Bossio, 1989; Seligman, 1991; Rettew & Reivich, 1995). The research has found that optimism does enhance levels of motivation, persistence, and performance (Carver, Blaney, & Scheier, 1979; Taylor & Brown, 1988). As a measure of personal outlook the Life Orientation Test-Revised (Scheier & Carver, & Bridges, 1994) has become a common inventory for data collection (Scheier, et al., 1989; Scheier & Carver, 1992; Sheppard, Maroto, & Pbert, 1996).

A fundamental component of the present study is an attempt to identify the personal outlook for both coaches and players. As an aid to coaches, this study may lead to more coaches administering the LOT-R to his/her players as a team building exercise. As the research has indicated, player perceptions of coaches have led to higher levels of perceived athletic success (Black & Weiss, 1992). The findings of Westre and Weiss (1991) have found a significant relationship between certain coaching behaviors and team cohesion. Discussion of LOT-R results may provide an additional opportunity for open dialogue between coach and player. Furthermore, this study may assist in the identification of certain coaching techniques employed when dealing with a less optimistic player after a less successful round as opposed to a more optimistic outlook player under the same conditions.

The significance of this study is easily identifiable. In an attempt to achieve athletic success, coaches and athletes are constantly looking for methods to gain an “edge”. The area of optimism/pessimism has received some review in the literature. However, a dearth of investigation has occurred examining the role of explanatory style within the realm of athletics.

This study will hopefully provide more information for coaches and players pertaining to explanatory style and its role in individual and team success.

Delimitations of the Study

The study was delimited to:

1. Participants were only male golfers.
2. Participants were only intercollegiate golfers.
3. Participants were only male head golf coaches.
4. Participants were only members of Division I intercollegiate golf programs from the United States.

Limitations of the Study

The results of this study were limited by the following:

1. The participants were randomly selected.
2. The reliability and validity of the inventory selected.
3. The individual head coaches may not possess a true understanding of optimism/pessimism.
4. The individual players may not possess a true understanding of optimism/pessimism.
5. The best effort will be given by the participants in responding to both inventory and qualitative questions.

Basic Assumptions

For this study, the following assumptions were made:

1. The participants will answer all inventories and questionnaires honestly.
2. The participants will answer all inventories and questionnaires to the best of

their ability.

Definitions of Terms

The following terms included in this study are hereby defined:

1. *The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA)* – founded in 1905, the NCAA serves to initiate, stimulate and improve intercollegiate athletics programs for student-athletes and to promote and develop educational leadership, physical fitness, athletics excellence and athletics participation as a recreational pursuit (NCAA Manual, 2003-2004).
2. *Intercollegiate Athletics* – title given to the business of sport competition between institutions of higher education.
3. *Student-athlete* – any person of any age without reference to enrollment in an educational institution participating in an intercollegiate sport (NCAA Manual, 2003-2004).
4. *Division I-A Institution* – conference comprised of eight full Division I-A members that satisfy all Division I-A requirements. Institution participates in a conference schedule in at least six men's and eight women's conference sports, including men's basketball and football and three women's team sports including women's basketball (NCAA Manual, 2003-2004).
5. *Life Orientation Test – Revised (LOT-R)* – a revision of the Life Orientation Test created by Scheier and Carver (1985). The LOT-R is a 10-item inventory containing three positive statements, three negative statements, and four filler statements (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994).

6. *Optimism* – a set of beliefs that leads people to approach the world in an active manner (Peterson & Bossio, 1991).
7. *Pessimism* – a set of beliefs that leads people to view the world and future experiences in a negative fashion (Peterson & Bossio, 1991).
8. *Defensive pessimism* – believed to be an individual's defense mechanism whereby the individual states low expectations for a challenging situation to prepare oneself for a negative outcome (Dember et al., 1989).
9. *Quantitative Research* – research conducted in a highly structured and controlled setting, in which the researcher attempts to gather statistical data to confirm a hypothesis that is generalizable to the sample population (Baumgartner & Strong, 1994).
10. *Qualitative Research* – a multi-method research approach, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).
11. *Inductive Content Analysis* – Evolving as a by-product of grounded theory, this form of qualitative research identifies categories and patterns that are pulled out of the qualitative data responses created by the participant (Coté, et al., 1999)

CHAPTER II

Review of Related Literature

Within the realm of athletics no relationship may be more important than the one between coach and player. “The coach is the most important person in determining the quality and success of an athlete’s sport experience, yet surprisingly, little research exists that identifies optimal coaching behaviors and factors that influence the effectiveness of particular behaviors.” (Williams, et al., 2003, p. 16). It is the purpose of this review of literature to investigate the research that has been conducted in the area of coaching and examine if any connection has been made between the effect an individual’s explanatory style (how he/she explains the events occurring around him/her) may or may not have on the techniques implemented by his/her coach.

Leadership and Athletics

As Weinberg and Gould (2003) have alluded to, in sports, coaches must demonstrate a variety of leadership qualities such as decision-maker, motivator, provider of feedback, relationships builder, and being able to guide a group toward goal attainment. Chelladurai (1984) has explained that athletic teams are unique in that these teams demand strong leadership from coaches because he/she has almost total control and influence over his/her players. Because of these coaching responsibilities, athletic teams have been considered important organizations because they provide a natural and manageable setting for organizational research (Ball, 1975). Thus, the literature was found to contain a considerable amount of investigation involving athletic teams.

The literature did identify studies investigating various aspects associated with coaching: the relationship between coaches and athletes (Horne, & Carron, 1985); the methods used by coaches to increase athlete's self-efficacy (Weinberg, Grove, & Jackson, 1992); coaching knowledge (Coté, Salmela, Trudel, Baria, & Russell, 1995); coaching routines of expert coaches (Bloom, Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 1997); and the identification of the psychological skills training implemented by youth sport coaches (Gould, Demarjian, & Medberry, 1999). Sources have also discussed the central role a coach occupies within the team concept and in an athlete's life (Gould, 1988; Martens, 1990). While further investigations have attempted to identify those qualities that define a successful coach (Black & Weiss, 1992; Brustad, 1988; Chelladuai, 1984).

However, little is known from a systematic, empirical perspective with regards to the influences coaches have in the psychological development of his/her athlete (Black & Weiss, 1992). In addition, little research in the coaching field has attempted to investigate the specific strategies coaches use to develop cohesion in small group sports (Turman, 2003). Smith, Smoll, and Curtis (1978) discovered coaches have little understanding of how often they demonstrate certain behaviors, and they have even less of an understanding of how these behaviors effect their athletes. While Williams et al., (2003) have further stated with few exceptions the research has not focused enough attention on the interaction between coaches and athletes and how this interaction contributes to the athlete's overall performance.

Leadership and Coaching Behaviors

Examination of the coaching literature found several studies investigating athletes' perceptions of their coaches. Smith et al, (1983) conducted a seminal study into athletes' perceptions of coaching behaviors. They investigated the influences coaching behaviors have within youth sports. Their findings suggested coaches implementing such qualities as technical

instruction, positive reinforcement, and mistake-contingent encouragement were positively related to self-esteem amongst youth sport participants.

Chelladurai (1984) examined the relationship between perceived and preferred leadership and how this affects athletic satisfaction. This study's participants (N=196) included varsity college athletes from the sports of basketball, wrestling, and track and field. The participants were administered a set of questionnaires assessing five preferred and perceived leadership behaviors: Training and Instruction, Democratic Behavior, Autocratic Behavior, Social Support, and Positive Feedback. Further assessment included four areas of satisfaction: Satisfaction with Individual Performance, Satisfaction with Team Performance, Satisfaction with Leadership, and Satisfaction with Overall Involvement. Results showed that discrepancy in leadership for athletes in the various sports was associated with a few of the satisfaction measures: Satisfaction with Team Performance, Leadership, and Overall Involvement. While further analyses identified Training and Instruction along with Positive Feedback as the most common aspects affecting athletic satisfaction. Another research area of coaching behaviors has involved its relationship with team cohesion.

Horn (1985) investigated the role a coach's feedback can have on an athlete's self-perceptions. Data were collected from junior high softball coaches (N=5), and junior high softball players (N=72). The researcher observed the coaches' practice and game behaviors over a nine-week season. Players' self-perceptions towards athletic competence, performance, and expected success were collected through pre- and postseason assessments. Multivariate regression data analyses indicated a significant amount of the players' psychosocial growth was explained through players' higher level of sport competence and the behaviors their coach demonstrated in direct response to their athletic performance. Furthermore, coaches' practice

behaviors were found to be more influential in developing changes within the players' self-perceptions than the coaches' game behaviors. The study demonstrated the importance for coaches to provide consistent and easily understood assessment of an athlete's performance.

Weiss and Friedrichs (1986) found the existence of a relationship between athletes' perceptions of coaches based and their athletic satisfaction. Their work found athletes to have a higher level of athletic satisfaction when they have a coach that engages in frequent rewarding, demonstrates more social support behaviors, and possesses a more democratic coaching style. Perceived coaching behaviors and its effects on team cohesion has also found popularity amongst athletic researchers.

Summers (1991) analyzed if an association existed between athletes' perceptions of their abilities and its influence on a coach's technical-instruction. Male coaches (N=11) and male lacrosse players (N=127) aged 13-16 years old were administered inventories of coaching technical instruction and athletes' effort, satisfaction, and perceptions of ability. Results indicated the more positive a player's perception of his ability, the more influence a coach's technical instruction had on his performance. The relationship between a coach's instruction and athlete's exerted effort increased when players perceived themselves as more competent. Furthermore, athletes with high levels of competence were also found to be more satisfied in their coach's technical instruction.

The literature also provided research analyses of the relationship between the similarities in perceptions of a coach's leadership behaviors and the player's evaluations of their effectiveness. Laughlin and Laughlin (1994) investigated the similarities between athletes' perceptions of their coach's leadership behaviors and the coach's self-perceptions of leadership behaviors. College coaches (N=11) and athletes (N=125) participated in the study. Athletes were

required to fill out the Instructor Opinion Questionnaire and the Leadership Scale for Sports. The results showed that those athletes with similar perceptions as their coach in 3 of 5 leader behaviors (teaching and instruction, autocratic coaching style, offering positive feedback) evaluated their coach in a more positive light than athletes with less similar perceptions of leadership.

Gordon (1988) utilized members of various Canadian intercollegiate soccer teams (N=161) and coaches (N=30) in an attempt to investigate coaches' decision making styles and their effectiveness. Results indicated that athletes preferred a more consultative coaching style and a more positive team environment was created when a coach's decision-making style matched the wants of team members.

Continuing to investigate coaching behaviors and players' perceptions, DiMarco, Ohlson, and Reece (1998) investigated the influence of coaching experience on feedback and athlete perceptions. Additionally, the researchers further tried to identify the different interactions these coaches may have with high and low expectancy athletes. High school basketball players (N=102) and coaches (N=12) participated in this project. Results revealed that high expectancy athletes received more praise and instruction than low expectancy athletes. A relationship was also found between the expectancy levels of the athletes and their coaching preferences. High expectancy athletes were found to prefer more low experienced coaches, while low expectancy athletes were found to favor more experience coaches.

Carmichael, (2002) examined the relationship between children's perceptions of coaching behaviors and how this affects competence, self-esteem, and anxiety. A week-long baseball camp was the site for data collection. Data collection for Coaches (N=11, 28-62 years) and male athletes (N=77, 8-13 years) took place before and after the camp session. The young athletes

were required to rate their levels of competence, self-esteem, and anxiety. Both the athletes and coaches rated the coaches on their autocratic, democratic, and social support behaviors demonstrated throughout camp. Coaches were also required to rate their own perceived behaviors. Based on this information the researcher categorized the coach as either authoritative or permissive and either diverse or dominant in their coaching style.

Results indicated that the children perceived a more negative relationship with the coach, while the coach perceived just the opposite with regards to training and instruction and autocratic behavior. Additionally, the data illustrated the young athletes rated authoritative coaches low in autocratic behaviors and higher in positive feedback than permissive coaches. Further results showed a positive relationship existed between the young athletes' perceived competence and self-esteem with their beliefs towards teaching and instruction, positive feedback, democratic coaching style and positive feedback. A negative relationship was found to exist between these same variables and the athletes' anxiety level.

Vealey, Comar, and Greenleaf, (1998) examined the relationship between coaching burnout and perceived coaching behaviors. This study examined the influence of perceived coaching behaviors on burnout and competitive anxiety in female college athletes. Two inventories were implemented in the data collection process: 1) the Maslach Burnout Inventory was given to twelve college coaches; and 2) the Eades Athletic Burnout Inventory was used to measure burnout in female college athletes (N=149, 18-23 years old). Multivariate analyses found coaching burnout was significantly related to perceived coaching styles and behavior. Furthermore, coaching styles and behavior were also found predictive of athlete burnout and athlete anxiety.

Price and Weiss, (2000) examined the relationship between coaches' burnout, coaches' behaviors, and how athlete's perceived psychological responses to these issues. Female high school soccer players (N=193) and coaches (N=15) participated in this study. The researchers attempted to answer two questions: "1) Do coaches who vary in level of burnout differ in the behaviors athletes perceive they exhibit? and 2) Are coaching behaviors related to athletes' enjoyment, perceived competence, anxiety, and burnout?" The researchers found those coaches rated high in emotional exhaustion were perceived by their athletes as demonstrating lower levels of training and instruction behavior, lower levels of social support, and less autocratic coaching decisions. In response to the study's second question, the data indicated a relationship was found for those athletes perceiving their coach as demonstrating higher levels of training and instruction, positive feedback, social support, and a more democratic coaching style. These athletes were found to have higher levels of self-competence and enjoyment, while at the same time possessing lower levels of anxiety and burnout themselves.

Additional work by Black and Weiss (1992) investigated the existence of a relationship between perceived coaching behaviors, perceptions of ability, and motivation in competitive age-group swimmers. This examination required male and female athletes (N=312) to assess their coach's behavior and their own perceptions of ability and motivation using numerous self-reporting measures. Multivariate analysis identified significant relationships to exist amongst males, females, and age groups. Coaches who were perceived by athletes as giving more frequent information after positive performances and more frequent encouragement in conjunction with information following less desirable performances were highly associated with athletes who had perceived higher levels of success, competence, and enjoyment. In addition, these athletes also exhibited a higher preference for more challenging activities.

The relationship between perceived coaching behaviors and team cohesion has garnered much attention. A plethora of studies were found to identify coaches perceived to engage in high levels of teaching and instruction, social support, positive feedback, and possessing a more democratic coaching style were found to be directed related to high team cohesion (Westre & Weiss, 1991; Gardner, Shields, Bredemeier, & Bostrom, 1996; Maby, 1997; Hightower, 2001; Turman, 2003)

Motivation has also received investigation amongst the intercollegiate athletic population. Ambrose and Horn (2000) analyzed the relationship between athletes' intrinsic motivation, gender, scholarship status, and perceptions of their coaches' behaviors. Male and female intercollegiate athletes (N=386, 17-23 years old) participated in data collection from "paper and pencil" questionnaires. Multivariate analyses produced results indicating higher levels of intrinsic motivation amongst scholarship athletes compared to non-scholarship athletes. Furthermore, male athletes were found to have higher levels of intrinsic motivation as opposed to female athletes. A relationship was also found between athletes' intrinsic motivation levels and perceived coaching behaviors. More in-depth analyses showed athletes' with higher intrinsic motivation perceived their coaches to be high in teaching and instruction and possessing a more democratic rather than autocratic leadership style. Lastly, the data showed athletes with higher levels of intrinsic motivation also perceived their coaches as providing more positive, information based feedback and lower instances of punishment based feedback. Although a majority of literature was found to investigate coaches and players, research was also found analyzing athletic administrators.

Intercollegiate athletic administrators have looked for ways to assess their staff and athletes. Gravely and Cochran, (1995) analyzed the use of perceptual data to assess

intercollegiate athletics. They created a Student Athlete Survey in an attempt for athletic administrators to better analyze athletic department issues, identify those qualities that provide for a positive coach/player experience, and as a method for obtaining some data concerning student-athlete satisfaction. All student-athletes were administered the survey during the spring semesters of two consecutive academic years. The inventory covered a wide range of questions concerning the student-athlete experience. Results were found beneficial to athletic directors as a means to make the necessary adjustments identified by the student-athletes as problem areas. Although several studies have investigated a wide variety of aspects associated with coaching, a dearth of literature was found analyzing the relationship between coaching and optimism and pessimism.

Optimism and Pessimism

Optimism and pessimism may be described as a psychological dimension in which optimism represents a bias in perceptions and expectations in favor of positive features in life and pessimism represents a negative bias (Peterson & Bossio, 1991). Optimism and pessimism describe an individual's outlook about future experiences (Peterson & Bossio, 1991). Optimism can be defined as a set of beliefs that leads people to approach the world in an active manner (Peterson & Bossio, 1991). Optimistic individuals believe the future holds positive opportunities with successful outcomes. People holding an optimistic outlook on life have demonstrated higher levels of motivation, persistence, and performance (Carver, Blaney, & Scheier, 1979; Taylor & Brown, 1988). On the otherhand, pessimistic individuals tend to look at the world and future experiences in a negative fashion. Pessimistic people view the world as a place of bad experiences and events.

Recently, optimism and pessimism has been associated with several points of interest within clinical and health psychology (Lewis, Dember, Schefft, & Radenhausen, 1995). Natail-Aleman (1991) found optimism to be positively associated with adaptive coping skill. While Weintraub, Carver, & Scheier (1986) found pessimism to be associated with maladaptive coping strategies. Optimism and pessimism have also been shown to relate to different patterns of preferred defense mechanisms (Dember, Martin, Hummer, Howe, & Melton, 1989).

However, people may not be only optimistic or only pessimistic. Depending on the situation, most people possess characteristics of being an optimist and a pessimist (Peterson & Bossio, 1991). An example to illustrate this belief can be found in a person that may be optimistic toward his/her job, but pessimistic towards his/her spousal relationship. When considering optimism, certain guidelines must be taken into account (Peterson & Bossio, 1991). First of all, optimists must take into account reality as it pertains to the real world. A person that weights 185 pounds cannot realistically believe that he/she could wrestle for his high school team at 100 pounds. Secondly, optimism creates activity within the person, enabling an individual to focus toward completion of a task or a goal. Lastly, optimism cannot be looked at as a panacea for everything. Just because a person is optimistic it does not mean that all will go well in his/her life experiences.

Optimism and Pessimism Inventories

At the current time, two views exist concerning the measurement of optimism and pessimism. The bipolar view looks at optimism and pessimism lying on separate poles of a single bipolar continuum. While the separate dimensional view states that optimism and pessimism can both exist within a person. No matter the view, optimism and pessimism has been linked to mental and physical well-being.

Frank (1974) found that optimism was a reliable predictor of rehabilitation effects during therapy. Stotland (1969) found optimism to be a major contributor in the development of hopeful schemas to overcome emotional disturbances. Pessimism has been studied more in relation to depression (Beck, 1963), poor physical health (Peterson, Seligman, Vaillant, 1988), and suicide (Copley & Weckowicz, 1966).

The bipolar dimensional view has two measures: Scheier and Carver's (1985) Life Orientation Test (LOT) and Seligman et al.'s (1976) Attributional Style Questionnaire (ASQ). The LOT is the most commonly used instrument to measure dispositional optimism. Dispositional optimism is a generalized belief that good things will happen (Kavussanu & McAuley, 1995). The inventory contains eight coded statements and four filler items used to disguise the true meaning of the questionnaire. Half of the items are worded optimistically and half are worded pessimistically. Questions are answered using a five-point scale ranging from highly agree to highly disagree. Scores are obtained thru the appropriate reversing of the scale, from which items are summed, with high scores representing an optimistic orientation and low scores representing a pessimistic orientation (Scheier & Carver, 1993).

The mean score on the LOT for men was 21.03 (SD=4.56) and the average score for women was 21.41 (SD=5.22) (Scheier & Carver, 1985). The literature indicates this inventory contains internal consistency and test-retest reliability. The reliability coefficient for the scale is .76 and the temporal reliability across a 13-week interval is .72 (Scheier & Carver, 1985). Additional research has indicated a significant negative correlation between positively and negatively worded items, ($r=.53$) (Hjelle et al., 1996). This finding lends support to Scheier and Carver's theory that the LOT needs to be handled as a unidimensional scale, which is in line with other researchers beliefs (Hjelle et al., 1996).

Upon further review, Scheier, Carver, and Bridges (1994) recognized areas of concern with two items on the LOT. Problems were found with the statements: “I always look on the bright side of things” and “I’m a believer in the idea that every cloud has a silver lining.” These items were found to not adequately describe the expectations of positive outcomes. Thus, modifications were made to the original eight-item version of the LOT. The new version LOT-Revised (LOT-R) became a six-item inventory with the removal of the two “problem” statements. This new 10-item LOT-R contains three positive statements, three negative statements, and four filler statements. The LOT-R’s cronbach’s alpha was .78, indicating a sufficient level of internal consistency. The test-retest results were: $r = .68$ for 4 months; $r = .60$ for 24 months; and $r = .79$ for 28 months. While, the average LOT-R score for males was 14.28 and 14.42 for females.

The Optimism and Pessimism Scale (OPS) (Dember, et al., 1989) was created to analyze the individual differences in conformity to the Pollyanna Principle, which is a person’s ability to accentuate the positive (Martin & Stang, 1978). The OPS consists of 18 items measuring optimism, 18 items measuring pessimism, and 20 filler items. Individuals respond to a 4-point Likert scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Items in each subscale are then added together to provide a single score for each subscale. The scale has been shown to be reliable, with alpha coefficients of .84 and .86 for optimism and pessimism (Dember & Brooks, 1989). Dember and Penwell (1980) believed individuals conforming to the Pollyanna Principle would score high on a test of optimism. However, as test construction continued, optimism and pessimism showed signs of the possibility that they may not be bipolar (Dember et al., 1989). From the initial evaluation of the psychometric constructs of the scale, two scales were found to be working at the same time (Hummer et al., 1992). When the two scales were correlated, result

indicated that the scales were correlated at a lower value ($r = .52$) than the values of internal consistency. This partial independence of optimism and pessimism has been shown in other studies (Dember & Brooks, 1989; Terezis, 1990).

Chang, D'zurilla, and Maydeu-Olivares (1994) assessed the dimensionality of three instruments designed to measure optimism and pessimism: Life Orientation Test (LOT), the Hopelessness Scale (HS), and the Optimism and Pessimism Scale (OPS). Participants were 389 undergraduates asked to complete each of the three measures. Results showed that the LOT was found to be bi-dimensional, the HS was unidimensional, and the OPS was multidimensional. The results provide evidence that individuals can be both optimistic and pessimistic.

Burke, Joyner, Czech, and Wilson (2000) further investigated the concurrent validity of the LOT-R and OPS. Participants included 154 university students enrolled in physical activity classes. The LOT-R was scored to produce a unidimensional score and two subscale scores. Results indicated the possibility that the LOT-R and OPS may not be measuring similar constructs. The data indicated the LOT-R may be measuring "trait" optimism and pessimism, while the OPS may be measuring "state" optimism and pessimism.

Creed, Patton, Grove, and Bartrum (2002) further examined the multidimensional properties associated with the LOT-R and how optimism and pessimism affects adolescence. Factor analyses indicated a bi-dimensionality, as opposed to unidimensionality, for the LOT-R. Optimism and pessimism were found to be unrelated. Further analyses showed that adolescences scoring high in optimism were also found to be more confident in their career making decisions, were more involved in career planning, and set more goals. In addition, those individuals scoring highly pessimistic were found to be more indecisive about their careers and had lower levels of academic achievement. Lastly, adolescents scoring higher in optimism were also found to have

higher levels of self-esteem and lower levels of stress as opposed to those individuals scoring high pessimistic.

While several studies have analyzed the constructs of the optimism/pessimism inventories, numerous other studies were found to have analyzed the impact variables have on the inventories. Tereziz's study (as cited in Lewis, Dember, Schefft, & Radenhausen, 1995) attempted to influence optimism and pessimism scores by using mood-inducing procedures (MMIP). Participants were placed into three groups. Each group heard either heightening, depressing, or neutral music before completing the OPS. Results of the study found that neither versions of music had any effect on optimism or pessimism. These finding showed that optimism and pessimism are stable traits that are not affected by current mood states (Terezis, 1990).

Lewis et al., (1995) conducted a similar study to analyze the effects of a mood-inducing procedure and its relationship to scores on the OPS. Participants were placed into one of six groups: elating music, depressing music, elating video conditions, depressing video conditions, elating Velten conditions, and depressing Velten conditions. Findings showed a substantial amount of influence on optimism/pessimism with relationship to the music tapes. Those individuals listening to elating music tapes were found to score higher on the OPS. Thus showing the possibility of optimism and pessimism being influenced by temporary mood states.

Hummer, (as cited in Dember 1989), hypothesized the reason for the partial independence of optimism and pessimism may be the result of individual biases: defensive pessimism and the Pollyanna Principle. Defensive pessimism is believed to be an individual's defense mechanism whereby the individual states low expectations for a challenging situation to prepare oneself for a negative outcome (Dember et al., 1989).

Schwab's study (as cited in Hummer, Dember, Melton, & Schefft, 1992) examined the possible relationship between optimism and pessimism and the Pollyanna response. Participants ranged from normal to mildly depressed individuals. Results found participants repeatedly overestimated their ability to attain success. Schwab (1984) found that mildly depressed individuals, at times, answer some of the optimism items in much the same manner as more optimistic people. This may be a cause for the low correlation between the optimism and pessimism subscales (Hummer et al., 1992).

Hummer et al., (1992) examined the possibility that the OPS may be susceptible to the response biases of defensive pessimists and followers of Pollyannism. However, the results of this study did not produce evidence these biases exist. By proving this scale is vulnerable to response sets, it can be concluded optimism and pessimism are not polar opposites, but partially independent outlooks (Hummer et al., 1992). This examination provides evidence to support the belief that optimism and pessimism can coexist within the same person (Hummer et al., 1992).

Optimism/Pessimism in Health and Exercise

Optimism has been linked to psychological and physical well-being (Kavussanu & McAuley, 1995). Optimism has also been associated with reports of happiness and mental health (Taylor & Brown, 1988). Several studies have further investigated the effects of optimism and pessimism on physical health. Riker and Wong (as cited in Scheier and Carver, 1992) conducted one of the first studies to analyze the effects of optimism and pessimism on physical health. Their study contained institutionalized and non-institutionalized males. Each group was administered an inventory assessing optimism. A list was constructed to include a set of positive statements that the men were asked to answer in the form of agreement or disagreement. The participants were also required to write down information concerning their physical and

psychological health. Results produced data depicting those men that were classified as optimists reporting more positive physical and psychological health characteristics.

Numerous studies have investigated the effects of optimism and pessimism on recovery from illness. Scheier et al., (1989) studied a group of males partaking in coronary artery bypass surgery. The individuals were administered the LOT on the day before surgery, a week post-surgery, and six months post-surgery. Results showed the more optimistic people to have felt better at every stage.

Pozo et al., (as cited in Scheier & Carver, 1992) conducted a study examining the effects of optimism and the psychological adaptability of women diagnosed with the early stages of breast cancer. Participants were administered the LOT on the day of being diagnosed with breast cancer, the day before surgery, one week post-surgery, and then at three, six, and twelve-month intervals. The LOT was used to survey the level of optimism and individual interviews were used to rate the level of distress experienced by the individual patients. Results indicated optimism was a significant predictor of distress among the patients.

Aspinwell and Taylor's study (as cited in Scheier & Carver, 1992) examined the adaptations and adjustments undertaken by first semester college freshmen. Optimism was assessed with the administration of the LOT during the freshmen's first day on campus. The same inventory was again administered three months later. Results showed a direct correlation between optimism and the levels of distress experienced by freshmen. It was also found that higher levels of optimism were directly related to lower levels of distress.

Scheier and Carver (1992) conducted a similar study again using first-semester college freshmen. Optimistic students were observed to have lower levels of stress, depression, and

loneliness than did their more pessimistic counterparts. The optimistic students were also found to have become more socially involved than the pessimistic students.

Peterson, Seligman, and Vaillant (1988) found a correlation between young adults' explanatory style and their health status later in life. Young adults who categorized negative events as internal, stable, and global were not as healthy as those young adults who labeled negative events as external, unstable, and specific. The individuals having the internal, stable, and global perspective are referred to as having a pessimistic outlook towards life. Those individuals having an external, unstable, and specific perspective are referred to as having an optimistic outlook toward life (Seligman, 1991).

Optimism has also been inversely related to depression (Carver & Gaines, 1987), and with lower levels of trait anxiety. Through a meta-analytic review Petruzzello et al., (1991) identified optimism as a leading explanation for significant reductions in anxiety levels. Pessimism has been found to be a determinant of poor physical health (Peterson, Seligman, Vaillant, 1988). Pessimism has also been related to depression (Abramson, Metalsky, & Alloy, 1988) and suicide (Copely & Wickowicz, 1966).

Scheier and Carver (1985) investigated the relationship between optimism and physical health symptoms by examining college students over the last weeks of a semester. The study's participants were each given the LOT along with a physical checklist covering the last month of the semester and final exams. Results indicated the students found to be optimistic were also found to have reported developing fewer physical symptoms.

The effects of regular exercise on physical health have also been well-documented (Powell, 1988). Most of the research performed over the last couple of decades has examined the beneficial effects of regular exercise on an individual's psychological well-being. A negative

correlation has been found between exercise and depression (North, McCullagh, & Tran, 1990) and anxiety (Petruzzello et al., 1991).

Hamid (1990) investigated if optimists differ from pessimists with regards to a self-constructed list of important health-promoting behaviors. Participants were administered the LOT in conjunction with a 5-point Likert scale listing the occurrence of health behavior. Also, the third area investigated the likelihood of the individual experiencing the flu or flu-like symptoms. Results indicated that optimists exercise and ate healthier than pessimists. Optimists were also less likely to experience flu-like symptoms.

Numerous factors have been shown to assist in the development of optimism (Peterson & Bossio, 1991). Optimism is believed to be rather stable across time and context. Short bouts of physical activity are not believed to affect overall optimism (Kavussanu & McAuley, 1995). However, long periods of exercise have been shown to influence mood states namely trait anxiety (Petruzzello et al., 1991) and Type-A behavior (Lobitz, Brammel, Stoll, & Niccoli, 1983).

Kavussanu and McAuley (1995) examined the relationship between exercise and optimism, hypothesizing that highly active individuals were more optimistic than no/low active individuals. A second contention was examined to investigate if trait anxiety and physical self-efficacy had any relationship to exercise and optimism. Participants were members of three health clubs and members of a university staff. Participants were administered the OPS and Self-Efficacy scale (Ryckman et al., 1982). Results suggested individuals who are highly active are more optimistic and less pessimistic than inactive/low active individuals. A relationship was also found between moderate to highly active individuals having higher physical self-efficacy and lower trait anxiety than inactive/low active individuals.

Optimism and Pessimism in Sport

Peterson and Bossio's (1989) research into the overall team performance and level of success has offered interesting results regarding optimism and pessimism in sports. Their investigation, through the technique of Content Analysis of Verbatim Explanations (Caving), analyzed the losing streak of the 1988 Baltimore Orioles. Caving requires the researcher to find and document every paper clipping about every game the Orioles played during their losing streak. These articles would be rated according to the causal explanations made after every loss. To start the 1988 season, the Baltimore Orioles lost their first 21 games. This study identified the team's explanatory style during the streak. Results indicated that the longer the streak lasted, the more pessimistic the explanations became. Initial explanations ranged from "the wind was blowing out, and the sun was in my eyes," to "there's tremendous pressure on us, and we've got all of the excuses, the weather, not getting the breaks, but it's still just losing." As the streak persisted, the athletes' attitudes became more and more pessimistic.

Seligman (1991) conducted two similar caving studies of professional baseball and basketball teams and their explanatory style. The first investigation analyzed and compared the 1985 New York Mets and the 1985 St. Louis Cardinals. The Mets were slowly building into a dynasty that would eventually win the 1986 World Series. The Cardinals were falling apart and heading towards the bottom of their division. The Mets' players explained many of their losses in a contest (minor set back, no excuses, com back and get a win tomorrow). On the otherhand, the Cardinal players explained their losses to be a continuation of bad play by individuals and the team as a whole. The form of explanatory style produced by the Mets could be labeled as an optimistic style, the players believed the loss to be a temporary state and that a win would come the next day. The Cardinals were found to have a pessimistic explanatory style that was

characteristic of reasons being overall bad play by everyone with no confidence that a win might occur the next day.

Similar results were found to exist between the 1984 Boston Celtics and the 1985 New Jersey Nets. Seligman (1991) also attempted to equate the explanatory style of the team and the percentage of times the team rebounded from a defeat to cover the predicted point spread the following night. The Celtics demonstrated an optimistic explanatory style while the Nets were found to demonstrate a pessimistic explanatory style. The Celtics were also found to “cover the point spread” 68.4% of the time after a loss, while the Nets were found to cover the point spread 31.8% of the time.

Psychological Skill Training in Golf

Athlete psychological skills training has become one of the focal points for sport psychology research in recent years (Vealy, 1994). Successful athletes have been shown to make better use of goal setting and evaluation techniques for attaining peak performance (Gould, Eklund, & Jackson, 1992; Orlick & Partington, 1988). In the past, the belief held by many was that successful athletes were born with the genetic makeup to be successful. Ericsson and Charness (1994) investigated and found evidence that elite performance is attained through the practice and repetition of numerous complex cognitive structures and skills over a long extended period of time.

Arguably one of the most difficult sports to play from a psychological standpoint is golf. From a competitive standpoint, a golfer competes and struggles against him/herself. The sport is purely individualistic in that the golfer is in total control of the action of hitting a golf ball. A golfer does not have to compete against another individual while attempting to swing a golf club. Golfers do not have a defender guarding themselves from making contact or putting the ball into

the hole. Rotella and Boutcher (1990) state that many professional players have suggested golf performance is as much as 90% mental and only 10% physical. The constant mental strain placed upon a golfer is one that is unique to sport. Many times the difference between the Professional Golfers Association (PGA) Tour and the Nationwide Tour comes down to the better mentally prepared golfer.

Morris and Thomas (1995) discuss several techniques included in a psychological skills model that was generated on the basis of work previously done by Vealy (1988) and Boutcher and Rotella (1987). This model breaks down psychological skills training into seven phases. Four of the phases involved the purpose and type of task being performed, the athlete's present skill level, the demands of the task upon the athlete, the implementation of the skills training, and evaluation of the program.

Further investigations into the importance of feedback to golfers have been conducted. Assessed through the use of the Golf Performance Survey (GPS) by Thomas (1993), participants were randomly placed into three groups. The groups completed the GPS between one and three times after either a medal or stroke play match. Performance data were also kept from these events. The participants then attended one of three feedback sessions that were offered. During this time the golfers were given an individual skills profile, after which the GPS was again completed and performances were again monitored. Analysis of the data showed that a short-term gain in mental preparation and improvement of automaticity was attained. However, no other psychological or psychomotor changes were observed.

Kirchenbaum and Bale (1980) researched a cognitive-behavioral skills training program for golf. This program included several components: muscle relaxation, development of golf skills checklist, mental imagery during preshot routines, analysis of the shots hit during each

round played, and a list of positive instructional cues for the golfer to use during a round. Three of the nine participants did showed positive evidence that the program had improved their play. Correlations were also noticed between the golf performance scores and subscales of the Test of Attentional and Interpersonal Style (Nideffer, 1976).

Murphy and Woolfolk (1987) used differing arousal levels in a cognitive-behavioral intervention to observe its effect on putting in golf. Three groups were formed: 1) a stress reduction group, 2) an arousal-inducing group, and 3) a control group. Individuals within the stress reductions group did have lower levels of stress and anxiety. However, there were no significant effects found on putting performance.

Various research studies have been conducted implementing the golf preshot routine as a measuring inventory to analyze the effects of psychological skills training. Crews and Boutcher (1986) taught and implemented a preshot routine with beginning golfers in a college physical activity class. The routing included imagery, self-talk, and course management techniques. A significant improvement was observed among the more skillful male golfers in the study. Boutcher and Crews (1987) attempted to train more advanced golfers with a putting routine that included cue words, timed routine, and number of looks at the hole. This study offered only a slight improvement among the less advanced female golfers.

Cohn, Rotella, and Lloyd (1990) implemented a cognitive-behavioral intervention with three male collegiate golfers. The study included golfers being trained to be decisive and believe in the club selected for a shot. From this study, only one of the participants noticed immediate improvement. However, all three of the golfers did show improvement within a four month post-study time period.

McCaffrey and Orlick (1989) found psychological skills differed drastically between elite golfers and the rest of the competition. Touring professionals were found to set more clearly defined goals than club professionals. Touring professionals had a more systematic plan towards practices and tournaments, and touring professionals developed more in-depth post-competition analysis than club professionals. Also evidenced were the touring professionals ability to refocus quicker and easier after being distracted by a spectator or errant shot. McCaffery and Orlick (1989) observed top touring professionals and Olympic athletes utilized daily goal setting in a similarly clear, comprehensive, and consistent manner.

Cohn (1990) conducted similar research with regards to psychological skills and peak performance among touring, club, and college golfers. Greater than 80% of the golfers studied, discussed their peak performances as times when their self-confidence was its highest point. During this time, the golfers stated they were mentally relaxed without feeling or thinking about negative consequences. These positive, relaxed feelings allowed the golfers the opportunity to achieve their goals.

Thomas and Over (1994) investigated the psychological skills of amateur golfers in an attempt to discover differences between lower and higher handicap golfers. The lower handicap golfers were discovered to exercise greater amounts of mental preparation than the higher handicap golfers. The levels of concentration were higher among the lower handicap golfers. These lower handicap golfers also were found less distracted by negative thoughts, missed opportunities, or previous mistakes.

As the literature has indicated, the athletic arena lends itself to research investigation. More specifically, the sport of golf has been shown to be a fertile source of psychological study. However, the literature has been found devoid of thorough investigation into the impact

explanatory style may have on sport performance. Thus, this fact serves as the genesis of this investigation.

Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is an umbrella term encompassing a wide assortment of research techniques and strategies (Baumgartner & Strong, 1994). Denzin and Lincoln (1994) define qualitative research as “multi-method in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.” (p.2). While Creswell (1998) further defines qualitative research as, “an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting.” (p. 15).

However, qualitative research has been found problematic to define because it involves such diverse methods from several disciplines (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Krane et al., 1997). Miles and Huberman (1984) have concluded that there exists a lack of set ground rules for drawing conclusions and validating the findings in qualitative data analysis. This has sparked much debate over the validity of qualitative research.

To add to the comparison of qualitative and quantitative research, Becker (1993) offers five ways in which qualitative and quantitative research differ. The first issue is the uses of Positivism. Those researchers following in the positivist tradition (quantitative research) believe that a reality exists which can be investigated and analyzed. On the otherhand, another group of researchers called postpositivist researchers believe that although a reality does exist, it can never be fully investigated or analyzed, but only approximated (Guba, 1990). Postpositivist research

also attempts to include multiple methods as a means of investigation an issue. Lastly, a major difference between positivist and postpositivist researches lies in the fact that although postpositivist incorporate statistical measures and methods, data results are not reported in the same manner as research conducted by positivists (Denzin and Lincoln, 1990).

Becker's second difference is the acceptance of postmodern sensibilities. Becker alludes to the fact that today's researchers have rejected the positivist method as the only type of meaningful research. The third major difference between the two disciplines centers on the capturing of an individual's point of view. Both forms of research value what the individual has to say, however a difference exists in the process of obtaining this data. The qualitative researcher submerges him/herself in the natural environment of the individual. This is accomplished through in-depth interviews and observations. Furthermore, the qualitative researcher believes achieving this type of in-depth data is rarely achieved in the quantitative research because of its reliance on more distant, inferential data collection methods. The fourth conflict between qualitative and quantitative research lies in the examination of the constraints of everyday life. Becker believes that the qualitative researcher places more value and time on investigating the day-to-day societal constraints placed upon the individual. This allows qualitative researchers the opportunity to gather more detailed data. The last difference between the types of research deals with the value placed upon securing rich descriptions from the individuals being studied. The qualitative researcher places a premium on the in-depth descriptions offered by study participants.

In defense of conducting qualitative research, Patton (1990) has made the argument that because of the nature of qualitative research the issues of validity and theoretical generalizability are essential. The research has found that qualitative researchers have consistently addressed the

debate over validity between qualitative and quantitative researcher. LeCompte and Goetz (1982) defend validity and reliability of qualitative issues by illustrating the threats to both internal and external validity present in experimental research. Further defense has been witnessed in a conscious effort by qualitative researcher to stop using positivist or quantitative terms to define qualitative research.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) have implemented alternative terms to discuss their qualitative work. They have interchanged the terms “credibility”, “transferability”, “dependability”, and “confirmability”, with “internal validity”, “external validity”, “reliability”, and “objectivity”. They recommend prolonged field work and triangulation of data of sources, methods, and researchers as the means for establishing credibility. Furthermore, the gathering of thick descriptions help to assure that findings are transferable. While instead of searching for reliability, the qualitative researcher searches for dependability that the findings of the study can change. Lastly, Lincoln and Guba (1990) believe the qualitative researcher finds confirmability rather than objectivity when placing value on his/her data.

Creswell (1998) further extrapolates on the validity or trustworthiness of qualitative data through his eight verification procedures to assist qualitative researchers:

1. Prolonged engagement and persistent observation in the field assists in developing the trust and learning the culture of your population (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).
2. Triangulation provides the opportunity for researchers to utilize a plethora of data-collection methods and different sources to offer the deepest understanding of the findings.

3. Peer review and debriefing provides for external analysis of the research, which has been found to keep the researcher honest throughout his/her investigation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).
4. Negative case analysis provides the researcher with the chance to revise his/her hypotheses so there is the elimination of outliers or negative cases.
5. Clarifying researcher bias allows the researcher the time to address any predisposing biases or prejudices that may direct his/her inquiry.
6. Member checking calls for the researcher to share interview transcripts with the individuals in the study. This is done to establish the credibility of the work.
7. Rich, thick descriptions provides the reader with the chance to understand and transfer the study's findings to other situations.
8. External audits allow an outside individual, with no affiliation to the study, the chance to analyze the research process.

Creswell advises that a qualitative researcher implement at least two of the above eight verification procedures in his/her work.

Tesch (1990) conducted a comprehensive review of the qualitative literature, and determined this type of research can be broken down into two categories: interpretational qualitative analysis and structural qualitative analysis. Interpretational qualitative analysis requires the researcher to develop "the best classification system that fits the data with minimal overlapping between categories." (Cote' et al., 1993, p.129). An example of this type of qualitative research is grounded theory.

Structural qualitative analysis requires the researcher to "retrieve and make sense of information throughout the data by working with a set of relationships whose nature is well

established.” (Cote’ et al., 1993, p. 129). An example of structural qualitative analysis is ethnography.

Qualitative Research and Sport

Although qualitative research is not necessarily new to the field of research, thirty years ago there was almost nothing in print about this form of research (Thomas & Nelson, 1996). Over the last two decades qualitative research has begun to gain popularity within the realm of athletics. Martens (1987) has been credited with the first call for more qualitative research in the sport setting. As an attempt to increase the sport psychologist’s knowledge, Martens (1987) believed this form of research would create more in-depth case studies and clinical reports when analyzing athletes. As a means of better understanding the plight of successful and unsuccessful athletes, researchers have begun to implement more qualitative techniques as a means of obtaining a more in-depth understanding of athletic performance (Weinberg & Gould, 2003). Furthermore, the qualitative approach has been developed from a variety of social science domains that has gain popularity within the study of athletics (Cote’ et al., 1993). Weinberg and Gould (2003) believe the use of in-depth interviews provide all participants in the sporting experience with a better understanding of the athlete’s personality profile than paper and pencil tests.

Culver, Gilbert, and Trudel (2003) conducted a review of the qualitative research in sport psychology journals from 1990-1999. Reviewing some 485-research articles from the three leading sport psychology journals (*Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, and the *Sport Psychologist*). Article reviews found eighty-four qualitative studies published during this time period. The interview process was used in sixty-seven of the studies.

However, because qualitative research has been found difficult to define, Culver, Gilbert, and Trudel, (2003) found that qualitative researchers tend to develop their methods to suit their particular needs. In support of this contention, the researchers found a variety of books written about qualitative research pertaining to specific disciplines. (Mitchell, 1998; Morse, 1991; Murray & Chamberlain, 1999; Sands, 2002; Van Maanen, 1998).

Further findings by Culver et al., (2003) illustrated a combination of quantitative and qualitative studies were conducted in 38% (32/84) of the research articles reviewed. The qualitative approaches implemented varied, fifteen studies used open-ended questionnaires, while ten studies were found to use tests and interviews. This led the researchers to continue a more in-depth analysis of the qualitative interview process. This data showed in only ten of the studies participants were interviewed more than once and in the majority of the studies sample size was usually under six participants.

Tharp and Gallimore (1976) conducted one of the earliest qualitative coaching studies. In an attempt to identify positive coaching behaviours, they observed UCLA Men's Basketball coach John Wooden during 15 team practice sessions. Results of their observations indicated over half of all Coach Wooden's demonstrated behaviors (50.3%) were in the form of instruction. In addition, Wooden was found to accompany positive and negative statements with instructional feedback throughout team practices.

Gould, Eklund, and Jackson, (1993) implemented a qualitative design to investigate the psychological skills used by members of the 1988 U.S. Olympic Freestyle Greco-Roman wrestling team. Through the interview process, when comparing medal winners with nonmedal winners, medal winners were found to use more positive self-talk, have a stronger level of focus, and were better able to deal with adversity than nonmedal winners.

Implementing a mixed model design, De Marco, Mancini, and West (1997) conducted a quantitative and qualitative analysis of a baseball coach's behavior. The purpose of their study was to examine the effectiveness of self-assessment as a means of implementing a change in a coach's behavior. The design of this study provided for the opportunity to analyze the 35-year old coach's behavior during thirteen team practice sessions. Through use of the Self-Assessment Feedback Instrument (Mancini & West, 1989), the coach's behavior was coded after analysis of thirteen taped team practice sessions. Further data were collected through the use of the Coach's Performance Questionnaire (De Marco, 1992). This questionnaire was administered to twenty-two team members prior to Phase I and after Phase III of the research design. Phase I consisted of videotape analysis of practice, which in turn, led to the formation of certain goals and objectives for behaviour change. Phase II involved the implementation of the actual intervention, while Phase III consisted of the reevaluation of the coach's behavior.

During this entire study, the coach was required to keep his own journal recording his perceptions of the team and of the intervention process. Results indicated that the coach changed all targeted behaviors demonstrated during Phase I of the study. The quality of his instruction improved and an increase in the coach's self-awareness skills also occurred. The significance of this study demonstrated the use of self-assessment as an effective means for improving coaching skills.

Weinberg, Butt, Knight, and Perritt (2001) conducted a qualitative study to examine intercollegiate coaches' perceptions of their goal-setting techniques. College coaches (N=14, 27-47 years) were required to answer various questions concerning their goal-setting practices. Results indicated coaches often used goal setting on both an individual and team basis during games and practices. Further data revealed coaches often set several short-term goals as opposed

to long-term goals and the majority of coaches never wrote down their goals. Additionally, coaches were found to both dictate goals and collaborate with players to establish team goals.

Whitney (2001) used a qualitative research design to investigate the confidence levels of elite athletes. Using a semi-structure, in-depth interview format, Whitney (2001) included eight elite athletes from eight different sports. Through inductive content analysis, the researcher was able to examine the experiences of both high and low confident athletes. Whitney's (2001) qualitative work identified that athlete's confidence levels are influence by several factors including mental, emotional, and behavioral.

Giacobbi, Whitney, Roper, & Butryn (2002) implemented a qualitative exploratory investigation of college coaches' views about the development of successful college athletes. Their study gathered qualitative data concerning the process of their athletes' successful development over the course of a college career. Their work helped to identify what college coaches believed were certain common attributes successful athletes demonstrated during their athletic careers. Results indicated coaches characterized those more successful athletes as being highly competitive and motivated, while at the same time being receptive to instruction. Furthermore, the coaches expressed common themes with regards to improving athletic performance. By and large, coaches stated the benefits of periodic individual meetings, one on one instruction, and the necessity for coaches to get to know their athletes as all contributing factors toward improving athletic performance.

Weinberg and McDermott (2002) used a qualitative design to compare and contrast the perceptions of sport and business leaders with regards to organizational success. Both sport (N=10) and business (N=10) leaders were questioned about their perceptions of how successful the group dynamics were of their organizations. The researchers asked questions pertaining to

the leadership, group cohesion, and communication within their organization. Results depicted many similarities between the group sets of leaders. However, business leaders were found to put more importance on being honest and being a better listener. While, sport leaders placed more importance on having positive interactions with others and providing positive reinforcement has vital to their organizational success.

Poczwadowski and Conroy (2002) analyzed the coping responses to success and failure by elite athletes and performing artists. Sixteen elite athletes and performers participated in an in-depth interview process. The study resulted in the finding of 36 coping strategies used by the participants. Further analysis indicated the athletes explain experiencing “greater motivational changes after failure” than the performers. While, the performers were found more likely to set their ego to the side in an effort to achieve success.

Schader’s (2002) work added to the qualitative research of elite athletes. This study examined the perceptions of elite athletes concerning their success and the influence their parent’s had on this success. Data were collected in two ways: 1) mail out survey to 394 female U.S. Olympians, and 2) follow-up phone interviews with 40 of the athletes. Results from the mail out survey depicted 40% of the athletes rated their parents high in encouragement and positive influence. Furthermore, those athletes starting their sport at a younger age were also found to rate their parents more highly than those athletes starting at an older age. However, when asked about the crucial factors leading to their success, the athletes rated their own abilities higher than the parental influence they received.

Attempting to better understand coaches’ perceptions of team building, Bloom, Stevens, and Wickwire (2003) conducted focus group interviews with coaches (N=29) from a variety of higher education sports. Six females and twenty-three males participated in one group session,

whereby they were asked to expound on their perceptions of effective team building strategies. Results indicated several important themes perceived as important to coaches in team cohesion.

As indicated from this review of the literature, qualitative research has proven to be a vital method of obtaining rich, in-depth descriptions of the various athletic performance components. Further discussion will focus on the qualitative research associated with the sport of golf.

Qualitative Research and Golf

Cohn (1990) conducted seminal qualitative research involving golfers. The researcher explored the causes of stress and burnout amongst high school male golfers. Participating in both open-ended questions and specific questions, the golfers (N=10) were interviewed as to their stress and burnout experiences. Through typological data analysis, whereby the researcher takes the interview data and organizes it into predetermined categories (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), results indicated the golfers had all experienced some sort of burnout during their careers. Furthermore, the golfers explained these burnout experiences were created by an overabundance of play and lack of fun. The qualitative data further explained parental expectations and personal expectations as leading sources of stress. Cohn continued his qualitative golf inquiry the following year.

Cohn (1991) also conducted an exploratory study of peak performance in golf. Professional and intercollegiate male golfers (N=19) went through a structured interview process. The researcher followed a similar form of content data analysis used by Scanlon, Stein, and Ravizza (1989). Within the structure of content analysis, the researcher classifies the qualitative data into themes. These themes were then organized into categories, which eventually represented the psychological themes discussed by the golfers during the interview process.

Mayer, (2001) investigating the cognitive-affective stress management training with male collegiate golfers. Data were collected through inventories and qualitative responses. Initially, the participants went through stress management training during the fall and spring semesters. Two inventories (The Sport Competition Anxiety Test and the Competitive Sport Anxiety Inventory-2) were administered to identify trait and state anxiety levels. Qualitative data were collected with regards to the participant's perceptions of their stress management training. Results did indicated changes amongst some of the golfers with regards to certain areas of trait and state anxiety, however no significant changes were found to have occurred in team averages in relationship to trait and state anxiety. Qualitative responses did indicate that the participants found their stress management training beneficial.

Qualitative Interviewing

One of the most common methods of obtaining qualitative data is the interview (Cote' et al., 1993). However, paramount to research success is the need for the researcher to identify the form of interview best suited for his/her particular study. According to Patton (1990), there exist three primary variations of qualitative interviews:

- 1) The informal conversation interview allows the interviewer tremendous freedom to direct the interview anyway deemed purposeful. This type of interview style is prevalent in phenomenology.
- 2) The general interview guide approach requires the researcher to create an outline of topics to be discussed during the interview. However, the researcher does not have to follow any specific order during the interview process.
- 3) The standardized open-ended interview process is the most rigid of the three interviews. The interviewer develops a set of questions before the interview process

begins. The questions are specifically designed to obtain direct answers. The purpose for this is to have each interviewee respond to the same worded questions. This method is used to reduce the risk of any biases, which usually is the case when conducting different interviews.

Several strengths are associated with the standardized open-ended interview process. The standardized open-ended interview is a systematic process that does reduce the interviewer's flexibility. However, this interview method allows for easier data analysis because the data is well organized. Patton (1990) lists three reasons for using the standardized open-ended interview method:

- 1) Because each interview is conducted in the exact same manner, the list and transcripts are open for inspection by peer review and participants. In addition, this type of interview reduces the risk of the data being attacked because of poorly worded questions or because questions were ask in the wrong manner.
- 2) The variation amongst interviews is minimal, so interviews can be conducted by multiple persons.
- 3) Because the interview is so structured the time of the interviewee is best utilized.

Interpretational Qualitative Data Analysis

Also vital to the qualitative research process is the method of data analysis chosen by the researcher. Initially evolving as a by-product of Glaser and Strauss's (1967) development of grounded theory, interpretational data analysis has become one of the most popular methods of qualitative analysis in sport psychology (Cote', et al., 1993). This form of research attempts to identify categories and patterns that are pulled from the data offered by the participant being studied. Martens (1987) and Dewar and Horn (1992) have suggested a more idiographic

approach to the qualitative study of sport and exercise. They believe an approach involving more in-depth interviews and thorough content analysis of the participants' oral records lends itself to a better understanding of the individual's behavior within the sporting environment. Cote' et al. (1993), through a review of the literature, have provided a comprehensive overview and structured approach to interpretational qualitative analysis.

Inductive data analysis falls under the umbrella of interpretational data analysis and can be found in several investigations (Cote' et al., 1993). This form of data analysis requires the researcher to identify and develop patterns, themes, and categories based on what the data offers. To be conducted properly, the researcher should not develop or identify patterns or themes prior to the onset of data collection.

Coté et al.'s (1993) review of the sport psychology literature found several studies that have incorporated interpretational qualitative analysis. Scanlon et al. (1990) attempted to identify sources of enjoyment of twenty-six champion figure skaters. The use of inductive content analysis produced a "four-level hierarchical synthesis" of categories where data were placed. Weiss et al. (1990) investigated female coaches' perceptions of ability and affective experiences over the course of a season. Results again produced categories for data placement with a similar four-level hierarchical paradigm. While Cohn (1990; 1991) conducted two interpretational qualitative studies of stress levels in high school golfers and peak performance amongst competitive golfers. These works also divided data into main categories and subcategories for interpretation.

Orlick and Partington (1988) implemented this form of data analysis when examining the mental aspects of preparation amongst successful elite athletes. The researchers identified seven mental and situational factors that were linked to success. The researchers used quotations as a

means of supporting each factor discussed. Both Russell (1990) and Salmela et al. (1991) used open-ended interviews and inductive content analyses to identify difficult sporting experiences and overall sport knowledge amongst elite athletes and elite coaches. Data were again place into hierarchical categories for assessment. Palmer et al. (1999) implemented a constant comparative analysis in an attempt to identify the fitness training facilitators and barriers experienced by elite netball players and if they influenced specific types of fitness behaviors. Kerr and Dacyshyn, (2000) implemented an inductive analysis approach in their investigation of the retirement experiences of elite, female gymnasts. While an inductive analysis approach has also been implemented in the study of physical education programs (Dyson, 2002).

From this review of the literature, Cote' et al. (1993) arrived at the conclusion that two major themes can be witnessed throughout this type of research in the realm of sports. To begin, the researchers place all of their data into meaningful segments of information. The second common occurrence was found in the organization of the data. Data were placed into segments that were driven by the data itself, some studies were found to place the data into hierarchical categories. While other studies were found to place data into themes.

According to Tesch (1990) the process of conducting interpretational qualitative analysis can be broken down into two parts: 1) the researcher must thoroughly analyze the data to identify the areas that help to identify important bits of data (creating tags); and 2) the researcher must identify common items in the data that help to better understand the relationship being investigated (creating categories).

The process of creating tags provides the researcher with the opportunity to identify and pull out those bits of important information from the oral records (Tesch, 1990). This process can sometimes involve more than one researcher as a means of assuring validity (LeCompte &

Goetz, 1982). Once the important data have been tagged, it is up to the researcher to place these tags into their appropriate categories. The researcher must go back into the data and identify those tags with similar meanings and place them within an appropriate, overall category. Creating categories is necessary because it creates a preliminary organizing system for analysis (Tesch, 1990).

This review of literature has identified several studies that have investigated various aspects of coaching behaviors (Horne, & Carron, 1985; Weinberg, Grove, & Jackson, 1992; Cote', Salmela, Trudel, Baria, & Russell, 1995). Further examination found studies investigating the relationship between coaching behaviors and its role in athlete perceptions, team cohesion, and team motivation (Smith, et al., 1983; Chelladurai, 1984; Westre & Weiss, 1991; DiMarco, Ohlson, & Reece, 1998; Hightower, 2001; Turman, 2003). While a plethora of studies were conducted involving explanatory style (optimism and pessimism) and its role in the health and rehabilitation area. Furthermore, this review of literature discussed the role of qualitative research and examined a few of the various types of qualitative research.

Through this review of literature the need for the current study is easily identifiable. A dearth of literature was found to have investigated the relationship between explanatory style and its influence on coaching techniques. Furthermore, a lack of qualitative studies was found examining the effects of explanatory style on athletic performance and coaching. These deficiencies in the literature call for the need of the present study.

CHAPTER III

Methods

Procedures

The purposes of the present study are to: (a) determine if coaches possess an accurate perception of their players' optimistic/pessimistic outlook; (b) determine if players possess an accurate perception of their coach's optimistic/pessimistic outlook; (c) determine, through qualitative data collection, if an optimistic/pessimistic outlook affects coaching techniques when a coach is dealing with a less optimistic golfer after a less successful round; and (d) obtain much needed qualitative data concerning the coaching techniques when dealing with optimistic and pessimistic athletes. This chapter will discuss the structure and procedures used for data collection and analyses. The chapter will also describe the participants and the measures employed for data collection.

Participants

The participants in the study consisted of two groups. Group One included thirty-nine male college student-athletes representing eight NCAA Division I intercollegiate golf teams from the United States. Permission was obtained from each institution's Institutional Review Board, Athletic Director, Coach, and players. Group Two consisted of eight NCAA Division I Men's Golf Coaches. In addition, each participant was required to sign an informed consent form (Appendix B & C) before partaking in this research study.

Instrumentation

The Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) was utilized to measure optimism and pessimism. A personal statement questionnaire (Appendix D & E) was used to gather demographic information on race, age, school classification, red shirt status, playing experience, and years of coaching experience. The LOT-R (Appendix F) consists of 10 coded items, three statements described in a positive context (e.g., "I'm always optimistic about my future."), and three statements described in a negative context (e.g., "If something can go wrong, it will."). The remaining four statements are filler items. Participants respond to the statements by indicating the extents of their agreement along a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree."

Data Collection Procedures

The following procedures were used to collect the data:

1. A team meeting was held during a three-day Division I invitational golf tournament in the southeastern United States. During this meeting, all participants were informed of the research purpose and procedures. At this time the coach's permission form and all informed consent documents were signed.
2. The participants were then presented with the LOT-R inventory (Appendix F) and instructed to complete the questionnaire in a truthful manner. All participants were further instructed to answer each question the way they felt and not the way they thought their coach or the researcher would like them to answer.
3. Upon completion of this inventory, Group One participants (players) were required to complete a modified LOT-R (Appendix G) and asked to answer each item with their coach in mind. An example of this modification required the original LOT-R item read as, "In

uncertain times I usually expect the best,” to be modified and read as, “In uncertain times, my coach usually expects the best.”

4. Group Two participants (coaches) were required to complete a modified LOT-R (Appendix H). An example of this modified version changed the items from, “In uncertain times, I usually expect the best,” to “In uncertain times, John (coaches’ player) usually expects the best.” Each coach completed the modified LOT-R for each golfer on his team.

5. Once all the quantitative data were collected, the researcher used the SPSS (11.5) statistical analysis program to run correlations. At this point the researcher identified the existence of any relationships.

6. Upon the completion of quantitative data analysis, the researcher then contacted five coaches, based on their self-reported LOT-R scores, from these respective teams and conducted an individual standardized open-ended interview to collect qualitative data. The qualitative questioning (Appendix I) centered on various aspects concerning optimism/pessimism and its role in their coaching techniques.

Data Analysis Procedures

The data analysis was conducted on three levels: (a) descriptive analyses, (b) correlations, and (c) qualitative data through interpretational qualitative data analysis. Data analysis was conducted using the SPSS (11.5) computer statistical analysis program. Descriptive Analysis includes the means and standard deviations for the following factors: race, age, athletic grade, red shirt status, right or left handed player, years playing experience, and years coaching experience. Correlations were run to identify the existence of any significant relationships.

The interpretational qualitative data analysis was conducted following the guidelines set by Tesch (1990) and Coté et al. (1993). The researcher used a standardized open-ended interview

process in gathering qualitative data. As Patton (1990) has alluded to, this form of interview is a highly systematic process. Whereby, the researcher carefully develops his/her questions in a set list. The same questions were asked in the same order during each interview. This was done to assure that there were no differences in wording and so the interviewee's time was best utilized. Furthermore, this format helped to reduce bias, which often times is present when conducting multiple interviews with different people (Patton, 1990). This practice is in line with Creswell's (1998) suggestions for producing verification in qualitative data. In addition, this form of interview assists in data analysis because the data is more organized.

From the outset, the primary investigator included a peer debriefer to assist in the qualitative data analysis process. As Aita and McIlvain (1999) have stated, the primary investigator may want to include one or two other professional perspectives in the data analysis because it increases the validity of the findings by maintaining objectivity. Furthermore, this qualitative practice also falls in line with the recommendations Creswell (1998) makes regarding verification of qualitative data.

Tesch (1990) has stated two main tasks must be implemented when attempting to organize unstructured data. The first consists of the researcher identifying the topics best illustrating particular sections of the qualitative data collected. From the onset of data analysis, the researcher identified these topics through a cross-case analysis. Cross-case analysis requires the researcher to group all responses for the same question. This allows for analysis of different perspectives towards the central issues of the study (Patton, 1990). The second task involved the establishment of the common features which best depict the qualitative text sections. This task is necessary for it provides the opportunity to establish and interpret the relationship between topics. The implementation of these two tasks is common in the conduction of interpretational

qualitative analysis and usually takes place during data collection and data interpretation. These practices are typically called creating tags and creating categories (Coté, et al., 1993).

Creating tags, as previously discussed, is the first step in conducting interpretational analysis. The purpose of creating tags is to create a set of concepts which represent the information collected from the interview process (Cote' et al., 1993). The creation of tags assists the researcher in identifying a meaningful bit of information. Tesch (1990) would define these bits of information as “meaning units,” which are “a segment of text that is comprehensible by itself and contains one idea, episode or piece of information” (p.116). Once a meaning unit is identified it is then tagged with a label illustrating the main point of the text.

The primary investigator included a peer debriefer in the process of creating tags. At the completion of this process, the primary researcher and peer debriefer discussed the individual tags placed on the text. This is done in an attempt to construct the most appropriate title for each tag. This undertaking helps to assure the validity of the tags and guards against one researcher's bias (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982).

The second step consisted of the researcher including the peer debriefer in the creation of categories based upon the tagging process. Tags with similar connotations were placed together within an overall cluster category. This category received a label that best described the group of tags. According to Tesch (1990), this phase of interpretational analysis “re-contextualizes” the data into specific categories, which help to organize the data. Furthermore, for this phase of the research to be successful, it is imperative for the researcher to enter the data collection phase with no predetermined categories. These categories must remain flexible and are generated out of the data collected (Miles & Huberman, 1984; Tesch, 1990). Eventually, the researcher analyzed the categories based on the similarities of the tags within the categories. However, the researcher

also had categories that were separate from one another. Patton (1980) has referred to this categorical characteristic as internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity.

The researcher identified 15 categories which helped to describe the coaches' interview responses: facilitator, overall program characteristics, attitude, individual characteristics, attitude, future expectations, focus area, external explanations, optimistic evolution, benefits, home environment, practice techniques, realistic, and perception. The peer debriefer was consulted and agreed that these categories were inline with the study's purpose. Eventually, two main themes (thought/self-talk redirection and self-awareness) along with one subtheme (the origin of the pessimistic attitude) emerged from the data.

At the completion of this qualitative data analysis the researcher had a better, more clear understanding of the effects optimism and pessimism have on the coaching techniques of intercollegiate golfers.

Trustworthiness of Data

The researcher implemented several recommended methods by Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Creswell (1998) to assure the credibility and validity of this study's findings. A peer debriefer was consulted and utilized throughout this process. In addition, triangulation of the data took place with the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. Furthermore, a rich, thick description of the qualitative data were used to increase the transferability of the quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 1998).

Researcher as Instrument Statement

The viewpoints of the researcher were formed through a previous role as a Division I intercollegiate athlete and coach. The researcher was a four-year letter winner in the sport of baseball and has also coached baseball and golf on the intercollegiate level. Furthermore, the

researcher has six years teaching experience on the college level in the areas of coaching education and sport psychology. In addition, the researcher may have formulated an opinion of the role explanatory style plays in athletic performance through previous research conducted for a master's thesis. However, the researcher attempted to keep a neutral stance throughout this research process (Locke, 1989).

CHAPTER IV

Results

Intercollegiate athletics has become a billion dollar industry on the landscape of America's sporting culture. As more and more institutions strive to obtain a larger share of these dollars, more and more pressure is being placed on coaches and athletes to succeed. Given this, the relationship between coach and player has become more important to overall team success and thus, financial success. Therefore, the purposes of this study are to: (a) determine if coaches possess an accurate perception of their players' optimistic/pessimistic outlook, (b) determine if players possess an accurate perception of their coach's optimistic/pessimistic outlook, (c) determine if an optimistic/pessimistic outlook affects coaching techniques when a coach is dealing with a less optimistic golfer after a less successful round, and (d) obtain qualitative data concerning coaching techniques when coaches are dealing with optimistic and pessimistic golfers after a less successful round of golf. The research questions were:

RQ 1. Is there a relationship between a player's optimistic/pessimistic outlook as measured by the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) and the coaches' perception of their player's outlook?

RQ 2. Is there a relationship between a coaches' optimistic/pessimistic outlook as measured by the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) and the players' perception of their coaches' outlook?

RQ 3. Are there common coaching techniques used when dealing with a player who is more pessimistic in outlook than when dealing with a player who is more optimistic in outlook after a less successful round?

This chapter will contain the reporting of results and data analysis. This study is mixed-model methodology in design, allowing the researcher to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. In order to better answer each question and increase the understanding for the reader, the results are separated into four sections. Section I displays the quantitative data addressing Research Questions One and Two. This section contains descriptive data analysis and correlational analysis in an attempt to identify if any relationships were found to exist between coaches and players. Section II addresses Research Question Three by presenting the qualitative data collected from a sample of coaches participating in this study. This section contains an interview description, data coding categories, interpretation of qualitative data, and the researcher's assertions. Section III attempts to triangulate the quantitative and qualitative data through a compare and contrast method. Section IV includes a summary of results.

Section I: Quantitative Data Analysis

The SPSS 11.5 Statistical program was used to run descriptive and correlational analysis. A significance level of ($p < .05$) was used to identify significant relationships. Data were collected from 39 Division I Intercollegiate golfers and from 8 Division I Intercollegiate coaches. Quantitative data were obtained through the administering of the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994).

Intercollegiate golfers ($n=39$) participating in the study had a mean age of 20.07 years ($SD = 1.49$), and were Caucasian (94.9%, $n = 37$) and Latin-American (5.1%, $n=2$). A total of 33.3% ($n = 13$) were sophomores, 30.8% ($n = 12$) were juniors, and 17.9% ($n = 7$) were freshman and seniors. In addition, 89.7% ($n = 35$) were scholarship athletes and 10.3% ($n = 4$) were nonscholarship athletes. Lastly, 20.5% ($n = 8$) of the athletes received a full scholarship, 69.2% ($n = 27$) received a partial scholarship, and 10.3% ($n = 4$) of the athletes were walk-ons.

Intercollegiate coaches (n = 8) participating in the study had a mean age of 43.86 years (SD = 8.56) and were Caucasian (100%, n = 8). A total of 75% (n = 6) received a scholarship to play intercollegiate golf, while 25% (n = 2) received no scholarship. These participants had a mean average of 15.63 years (SD = 9.73) of coaching experience and a mean average of 5.38 (SD = 4.41) championships won during their coaching tenure.

RQ 1: Is there a relationship between a player's optimistic/pessimistic outlook as measured by the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) and the coaches' perception of their player's outlook?

Correlational analysis indicated a significant but weak positive relationship between the players' self-reported level of optimism on the unidimensional scale and the coaches' perception of their players' outlook ($r = .32, p < .05$). Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics

Research Question One: Players' Self-reported LOT-R Scores and Coaches' Perceived Players' LOT-R Scores

Group	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Players	39	12.00	24.00	18.59	3.39
Coaches	39	9.00	24.00	17.21	4.08

Note. Min = Minimum LOT-R score reported, Max = Maximum LOT-R score reported, SD = standard deviation.

RQ 2: Is there a relationship between a coach's optimistic/pessimistic outlook as measured by the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) and the player's perception of their coach's outlook?

Further correlational analysis also indicated a significant but weak positive relationship between the coaches' self-reported level of optimism on the unidimensional scale and the players' perception of their coaches' outlook ($r = .37, p < .05$). Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics

Research Question One: Coaches' Self-reported LOT-R Scores and Players' Perceived Coaches' LOT-R Scores

Group	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Coaches	8	15.00	24.00	18.63	3.20
Players	39	6.00	24.00	17.46	4.45

Note. Min = Minimum LOT-R score reported, Max = Maximum LOT-R score reported, SD = standard deviation.

Section II: Qualitative Data Analysis

This section is divided into: (a) a description of the coaches' stories, (b) an analysis of qualitative data and the creation of theme categories, and (c) the researcher's interpretation of the coaches stories. This process was done in conjunction with a peer debriefer educated in quantitative and qualitative data analysis. The peer debriefer is a professor with eleven years

university teaching experience. (see Appendix K for the educational resume of the peer debriefer).

As Patton (1990) has discussed the first step in qualitative data analysis is the process of description. Paramount to quality description is the need for it to be separated from the interpretation (Patton, 1990; Wolcott, 1994). In an effort to answer Research Question Three, the researcher and peer debriefer constructed several pertinent questions (Appendix I). This question protocol helped to provide a rich description of the study participants.

Five Division I Intercollegiate Head Men's Golf coaches were participants in the following portion of the study. Participants were selected through a purposeful sampling technique. This technique was chosen as a means of selecting "information-rich cases," which offer the researcher a great deal of information on issues vital to the research project (Patton, 1990). More exactly, a stratified purposeful sampling was used to identify participants for the qualitative portion of this study. The purpose of a stratified purposeful sample is to capture major variation rather than to identify a common core, however a common core can emerge from the data (Patton, 1990). Based upon the scores for the LOT-R, the researcher was able to identify a stratified sample of participants ranging from extreme optimistic, high optimistic, moderate optimistic, and low optimistic.

The five coaches had an average of 16 years coaching experience (range 7 – 25 years). Each participant was given a number code for the purposes of confidentiality. The one coach identified extremely optimistic was Coach 900 (7 years coaching experience). He coaches at a small private university that competes in a mid-atlantic revenue conference. His teams have yet to win a conference or national championship, however they have won numerous collegiate tournaments. This coach was a four-year, full scholarship letter winner. His professional playing

career stretched over seventeen years and including time on the three major tours of his era (Professional Golf Association (PGA), European Tour, Nike Tour). Through the interview process, the researcher was able to quickly identify this coach as possessing a tremendous concern for building a quality program. He continuously expressed his concern for his players to act, dress, and carry themselves in a professional manner. Furthermore, Coach 900 was genuinely concerned about the type of experience his players had while at this institution. But most important, he expressed a genuine concern for preparing his players for life after golf.

Two coaches identified as highly optimistic were Coach 100 (21 years coaching experience) and Coach 200 (25 years coaching experience). Coach 100 works at a large research one, revenue conference participating institution in the southeastern United States. He was a four-year scholarship letter winner and had a two-year professional career. His teams have won twelve team tournaments, including six conference titles and one national championship. Coach 100's coaching style was heavily player-oriented. He was confident in his ability to recruit quality individuals to his program. He also expressed a desire to continue to develop his coaching abilities and a positive environment for his players to succeed. Furthermore, he spent a good deal of time discussing some of the episodes shaping his coaching style.

Coach 200 works at a large research one institution in the southern United States, his team also participates in a revenue conference. He was a four-year, full scholarship letter winner and played three years of professional golf. His teams have won eleven team tournaments including nine conference and two national championships. Coach 200 appeared to have a firm grasp of the role sport psychology plays in sport. He offered several answers analyzing the characteristics of humans in general, instead of just optimistic or pessimistic individuals.

The one coach rated as moderately optimistic was Coach 500 (20 years coaching experience). Coach 500 works at a large research one institution in the southeastern United States. His team participates in a mid-atlantic revenue conference. He was a four-year, partial scholarship letter winner. His teams have won five conference championships. Coach 500 defined his coaching style as “cautiously optimistic” which illustrated a patient decision-making style, as further evidenced through his deliberate interview style.

One coach was rated as a low optimist. Coach 300 (7 years coaching experience) works at a large research one institution in the southeastern United States. His team participates in a revenue conference. He was the only coach interviewed not to have played college golf, but this did not seem to impact his team’s success. Coach 300’s teams have won three conference championships and one national championship.

Once this preliminary selection was completed and the interviews were conducted, both the researcher read the verbatim interview transcriptions and with the assistance of the peer debriefer, verified that the following descriptions accurately represented the coaches’ stories.

RQ 3: Are there any specific techniques used by the coaches when dealing with a less optimistic golfer after a less successful round, as opposed to dealing with a more optimistic golfer after a less successful round?

The qualitative data analysis followed the recommendations of Rubin and Rubin (1995). Upon completion of each interview, the researcher went back and wrote up a journal entry based on the interview. This was done in compliance with the theory of triangulation discussed previously in the review of literature. Once all interviews were completed, the researcher presented a copy of these results to the peer debriefer for discussion. The protocol for this data analysis was as follows:

- 1) The researcher read over each response to Question One and then read each response a second time.
- 2) During the second read, the researcher would tag any statements deemed important pertaining to the question.
- 3) After completing this task for each question, the researcher presented the peer debriefer with a condensed tagging list and discussed the categorized tags sharing a common theme or concept.
- 4) The researcher then gave each sublist a theme or concept title. This sublist was then presented to the peer debriefer for discussion.

Both researcher and peer debriefer reviewed the interview data for a one-week time period. The researcher and peer debriefer then met to discuss the themes and concepts that emerged from the data.

The analysis of the five coaches' interviewed responses required the development of categories, data interpretation, and the construction of assertions. The peer debriefer was consulted during the analysis process, which will be discussed in the following sections.

Category Description

After the tagging process was completed, 15 categories were created by combining similar tag meanings. The following section contains an overview description of these categories. The *facilitator role* was a category generated from the question dealing with defining your coaching philosophy. The participants discussed their coaching roles and the goals of their program. From these discussions, their role as a facilitator emerged as common response.

The *overall positive program qualities category* further defined each participant's coaching philosophy. Several of these qualities were stressed as paramount to what the coaches attempted to develop in their programs.

The *attitude of the optimist* category emerged from the question requiring the coaches to define the characteristics of an optimistic individual. Several of the coaches discussed the unique attitude associated with an optimistic individual. This attitude was one of confidence and a belief that better results are always coming in the future.

Individual characteristics of an optimist category emerged from the coaches' belief that this individual displays certain positive qualities. These individuals were characterized as highly organized and understanding that hard work will bring future success.

The *attitude of the pessimist* was a category associated with the question asking the coaches to define the characteristics of a pessimistic individual. This question generated similar categories to the previous interview question, however the data in each category were opposite. The pessimistic individual was found to have an attitude focused on past events. This focus helped to generate a negative belief that success was unattainable in the future. Furthermore, this individual was characterized as more likely to be knocked off course when attempting to reach a goal.

Continuing with the same question, the *external explanations category* was a topic discussed by several coaches. Coaches were adamant in their discussion of the pessimist's tendency to blame poor performance on external variables. This category helped to identify the pessimistic player's use of the word can't, instead of can, and his attempt to find ways to explain poor play as a means of making himself feel better.

The *optimistic evolution category* surfaced when the coaches were asked to define themselves as either optimistic or pessimistic. Across the board the coaches discussed their optimism. But, some of the participants went further to define the evolution of their optimistic approach.

The *benefits category* pertained to the question asking the coaches to discuss if knowledge of an individual's explanatory style could benefit their coaching techniques. This category contains the coaches' comments regarding the various benefits this knowledge would provide. This knowledge was discussed to provide the coaches with a better understanding of why their players say certain things and act certain ways. Furthermore, this information was found to assist the coaches defining which players need the most attention.

The *home environment category* emerged from the same question as the previous paragraph. This category spoke directly to the coaches' experiences of dealing with pessimistic individuals. The coaches discussed the influence parents and coaches have in creating this attitude.

The *redirection category* materialized when the coaches were asked to identify the techniques they implement when dealing with pessimistic and optimistic golfers after less successful rounds. This category contained the coaches' discussions concerning the need for them to redirect the pessimist's self-talk and thought process towards more positive outcomes.

As discussion of this question continued, another category emerged. The *practice techniques category* explained certain team building techniques the coaches have implemented as a means of generating a more positive individual and team experience.

The interviews last question required the coaches to offer an explanation for this study's quantitative findings as to why a weak positive relationship was found to exist between coaches'

self-reported optimism and pessimism scores and their players' perceived optimism and pessimism scores. Two categories emerged from these data: A *realistic understanding category* and a *perception category*. The coaches held the opinion their players lack a true understanding of their explanatory style and this could be one reason for the results. Further discussion indicated that maybe both the coaches and players had a misperception of each other. The coaches believed this could occur because of a tendency by both parties to mistakenly pigeon-hole one another based on a single behavioral episode. From these categories two main themes and one minor theme emerged and are discussed in the following section.

Qualitative Data Related to the Coaches

The main purpose of conducting a mixed-model methodology investigation was to obtain an in-depth, rich description of the coaching techniques implemented by highly successful coaches when dealing with a less optimistic individual after a less successful round of competitive golf. The researcher, with the assistance of the peer debriefer, constructed an interview protocol that would not only address this study's third research question, (Are there common coaching techniques used when dealing with a player who is more pessimistic in outlook than when dealing with a player who is more optimistic in outlook after a less successful round of golf?), but would also address specific questions concerning explanatory style. The following analysis pertains to the two major themes and one minor theme that emerged from the coaches' qualitative data.

In an attempt to answer this study's third research question the coaches were asked the following question, "Could you explain any of the techniques you implement when dealing with a less optimistic golfer after a less successful round, than a more optimistic golfer after a less successful round?" The coaches' responses were specific, exact, and detailed. An initial theme

emerged from the data analysis indicating the need for coaches to redirect their player's thought and self-talk processes. Several coaches found it necessary to refocus their player's thoughts and self-talk to more positive aspects of their round. Coach 100 responded emphatically:

...Yeah, yeah, I refuse to let the pessimist talk about his bad stuff. Don't be moaning, 'I had 36 putts, I hit it so close all day, I just couldn't make nothing.' I, there, there is none of that, zero, absolutely none. Don't you throw a pity party for yourself. If anything I will go back over their round a little bit and let's pick out something positive about it.

This pattern of talk and thought redirection was further explained by Coach 900. His description of using redirection was best illustrated through a scenario he has consistently dealt with during his coaching career:

...You know I just like, like let's say you just played and you shot 77-77. Hopefully, hopefully for the sake of the team, neither round counted for the tournament. And what I like to do at, eh, at end of the tournament, it let's say, I shot 68-82-68. Well, 82 is not going to count. Now let's take Bill here that shot 77-77, he didn't count. So that last night of the tournament, I am like, 'Bill you could win us the tournament tomorrow. You could just erase what you have done, you go out tomorrow and shoot 71 or 72, that will be a counting score tomorrow and you could win us the tournament. And give this kid a new life and say, 'Hey I know you know what, sure I played bad, but tomorrow is a new day and I can still do it for the team and I could still try to pull it out, this out.' And he might still pull out a 71 and then we were one under on his ball this week.

Again, in this scenario, the coach attempted to redirect the player's thought process to focus on future success rather than dwell on the past. Furthermore, Coach 900 was adamant about staying positive with his players. He felt that this technique allowed the player to forget about his past play and focus on narrow specific future goal.

Coach 200's response went deeper into the psyche of the individual. When posed with this question, Coach 200 responded:

...Well I think there is more than just optimism and pessimism in terms in trying to get the most from your players. I think from a coaching standpoint, a kid will need what he doesn't do well himself. For instance, a kid that is a negative kid, after a bad round you need to be positive with that kid. You need to persuade him that the worse is not to come, but the best is yet to come. Whereas, with a kid that is more positive after a bad round, you know he may blow it off and not be too concerned about it.

Coach 200 continued to elaborate on how he deals with a more optimistic golfer after a bad round. He explained, “You know, you might need to get on him (optimistic individual) a bit more and say, ‘Hey, lets do some things from a preparation standpoint a little bit different or a little bit better, so that we don’t just always think things are going to work out.’” Coach 200 discussed a clear line in his approach for how he deals with pessimistic and optimistic individuals. With the pessimistic golfer he attempts to redirect focus and have the individual focus on the future for success, while he deals in specific tasks with the optimistic golfer. In this case, the coach focuses the optimistic golfer towards better preparation techniques. Coach 300 further explained his redirecting approach when dealing with a more pessimistic golfer:

...Whereas, if you had somebody who was always negative, I think you could sit down, you could tell him, you know here are the things I want you to eliminate, you know in your mind. You know, I don’t ever want to hear you on the golf course, you know, come up and say these types of things, because those are the types of things that you know, get in your mind.

Further supporting this theme of redirection were the coaches’ thoughts concerning the make-up of the optimistic and pessimistic individuals. This make-up was explained as influencing how the coaches dealt with their players after a particular round of golf. The coaches felt a common characteristic of the optimistic individual was his ability to consistently look towards the future for success. Coach 200 stated, “Well I think an optimist is someone that is positive about the future. And I think that a guy that really looks to the future to improve and have positive results and occurrences is basically what we’re talking about.” He also believed a pessimist was one to look to the past and see negative outcomes.

Along the same line, Coach 500 was a firm believer in the optimist’s attitude and its influence on the overall playing ability of the athlete. He explained:

...Um, some traits, oh my god, it’s an attitude, it starts with an attitude. I think the

attitude is a confidence, that I don't know whether this is making any sense or not...and I think what you are hitting on is, a lot of times people will ask what is the difference between the great player and the average player and it is attitude. It is totally an attitude in the way the guy carries himself.

Adding to this focus on attitude, Coach 900 stated, "The optimistic individual won't get down...Optimistic individuals, especially in golf, seems like he is never defeated." Coach 900 also identified another distinguishing optimistic feature, the verbal communication of the optimist. He said, "An optimistic individual is a person that uses the words will instead of won't." While when posed with the same question, Coach 300 also focused his response on the optimist's verbal communication:

...You know a kid comes up and during the course of a round and ahh, an I, I ask him how he's doing, ahh, somebody who doesn't dwell on, 'Well I'm getting screwed, you know I can't get a break. He's going I doing ok, you know I'm starting to swing better. Or you know things are starting to come around.'

Coach 100 continued to support this aspect of an optimistic individual's character. He further responded, "So an optimist or a positive player to me does not do that (not expect to make anything the rest of the day if a player doesn't make any early). He gets it and gives every opportunity his very best effort and he knows that at anytime it can turn around and he can run the table."

Building upon the optimist's future outlook, the coaches also highlighted the distinct nature of the optimists' work ethic, focus, and organization skills. Coach 500 alluded to these qualities with the following response:

...I would say, um, the number one characteristic I have found in the optimistic and successful player is number one, organization. They have been extremely organized and focused.... they do not allow others to dictate their agenda. They are organized, they have extremely good work ethic.

Coach 900 supported this contention explaining the realization an optimist has on the importance of hard work. He stated, "The optimistic individual won't get down, he realizes that with hard

work and diligence in his golf swing and his patience with whatever he is working on in his game, he realizes that if he keeps working at it he will see results down the road.”

Interestingly enough, the characteristics that define a pessimistic individual were also discussed by the coaches as playing a vital role in determining the need for thought redirection after a less successful round of golf. The coaches offered quick and concise discussion with regards to the pessimistic individual. They addressed several key characteristics that influence their handling of these individuals after a poor round of golf. Coach 500 offered a simplistic explanation for dealing with the pessimistic individual, or as coach called him, “a totally different animal”:

In opposition to the optimistic individual, Coach 100 discussed the lack of positive expectations by the pessimist individual as an important issue, he explains:

...Yeah he doesn't expect good things to happen. Um, not that he is expecting bad things, its just that he's just out there um, not waiting on something, not being patient on something good to happen. I'm not saying that he gives up, but he gives in to the way he feels his day is going or the way he feels its going to be and I hate that attitude.

His annoyance was further expressed in his comments concerning some of his players' satisfaction with, “hitting all the fairways and hitting 16 greens and shooting 73. They don't believe its their day to, a, turn it into a 68.”

In addition to clearly defining the pessimists' expectation level, the coaches spoke of the individual's focus area. Coach 200 discussed the differences between the focus of the optimist and pessimist. He expounds:

...Well I think the pessimist is someone that looks at his past and, and sees the grim reality or what has happened before an, is less inclined to see success or positive results or positive things in the future.

Further illustrating the characteristics of a pessimist's focus, Coach 500, spoke of the high incidence of this individual being easily knocked off course. Coach 500 responded, “The kids

that are knocked off course very easily. These kids are focused, but focus is a short-term thing. Their agendas are easily um, changed by other people and other events.” Coach 500’s comments concerning the ease by which a pessimist can be knocked off course led to further discussion about the manner in which the pessimistic individual explains his poor performance.

The pessimistic individual was described as someone who uses external explanations when describing the quality of his play. Coach 300 stated:

...He would be the guy who comes up and says, ‘Coach, I can’t catch a break.... I go a really bad screwjob two holes ago and my ball bounced out of bounds. Or you know things just aren’t going right or I can’t play in the wind, or these greens suck, or your know somebody that is constantly looking for an excuse for why his playing bad or focusing on trying to turn it around.

Coach 500 added an interesting point, “And when you run into kids that are pessimists they are always going to talk about the things they can’t do or preventing them from getting to a goal.”

While Coach 900 summed up the pessimist’s explanatory style when he responded:

...I’d say a pessimist always looks for an excuse, always looks for reasons why he can’t do this or the reason he didn’t have time to do this. He is always, seems to find that when things are going bad he always seems to find other avenues that are comfort levels that make him feel better about himself.

A second major theme that emerged from this study’s qualitative data addressed the concept of self-awareness. This theme emerged from the coaches’ discussion of various aspects associated with their athletes, their teams, their coaching techniques, and this study’s quantitative findings. The coaches offered a variety of explanations for these results, highlighting the inability of people to possess a realistic understanding of themselves as a major reason.

The theme of a lack of self-awareness on the part of the players was clearly expressed by Coach 100’s comments, “I don’t think the players realize, I think if the players could see how they act sometimes or could see their body language or could see their attitude. I think it could be totally different.” Coach 200 offered a similar explanation:

...I think if a person could see himself realistically and understand his strengths and weaknesses from that point of view, I think that would be helpful. I think that is the problem, you know pessimists don't think they are as negative as they are and optimist probably don't realize how positive they are because it probably comes a bit more naturally to them.

Coach 200 went on to further explain, "Well I think it is because of what I mentioned early on, being realistic about taking a good look at yourself in the mirror." This lack of realistic awareness of their behavioral tendencies, on the behalf of the players, was stressed as a major obstacle for the coaches to overcome.

Coach 300 also believed this knowledge would be beneficial. His responses focused on the benefits this information would bring to his coaching techniques. He stated, "Ahh, it could be very beneficial. Well, if I think if you have a guy who was, you know, very optimistic you wouldn't, you wouldn't have to go out of your way to continually get him to think optimistically. You just, you know, you could immediately, immediately kind of focus on what he's doing and kind of reiterate some positive feedback."

However, the coaches were also adamant that they too are guilty of lacking a realistic awareness of their own ability. As a means of emphasizing a point being made, the coaches used the common technique of sharing a personal anecdote to illustrate the point they were trying to get across. With regards to the coaches lacking self-awareness, Coach 100 offered the following narrative concerning his coaching style:

...I always try to be an optimist, I'm always trying to reassure them to hang in there, hang in there that it can turn around. I had it put to me by one of my players. He actually was one of my best players ever. He had hit a shot into the water and it was at a real crucial time and I was livid. He looked at me and he said, 'Coach, I just need you to understand, I wasn't trying to hit that ball in the water.' And it really put things in perspective for me and it really opened my eyes.

This lack of self-awareness was also discussed as a key reason for the misperceptions that occur on the behalf of both coaches and players. Coach 900 added to this explanation with another personal example concerning one of his former players.

His narrated a story regarding Wes (name changed), who was an exceptional player for him. However, early on, coach expressed a problem he had with Wes. He felt Wes wasn't competitive enough and needed to fight a bit more on the golf course. Coach 900 explained how he had been observing Wes for some time and had noticed, "He always seemed to shy away from contact and didn't hustle, he didn't do much. And you know in golf, he always seemed in golf, he always just seemed scared some days." After having a conversation with Wes, Coach had an entirely different opinion of him. Wes had explained to him that he "was one of the most competitive guys on the team." Coach 900 believed sometimes you have a misperception of someone and this can affect your judgment of that individual. Coach 500 further explained how the actions of an athlete can led a coach to forming a misperception. Coach 500 discussed the following:

...So I think your dealing with a college kid whose, whose searching and the last thing they are going to do is admit to somebody even thou you walk off the round, they want to justify, you know justify why he played poorly and say I can't do this, I can't do that. I think that the, you know a coach hears that and he basically develops a coaching opinion based on his self-talk because he just talked to the coach.

Coach 300 called these misperceptions "pigeon-holing," and believed it occurs on the part of both coaches and athletes. He further explained:

...Sometimes you pigeon-hole, thinking something about a kid and kids think that sometimes the coach doesn't like me or um, you know the coach, um, doesn't ever give me a break.... I think because most players have only one coach, where a coach has multiple players. So a coach can see a difference in two kids much clearer than a kid that only sees one coach.

The theme of self-awareness continued to emerge as the coaches' shared their personal coaching techniques and exercises used with their teams. These exercises and techniques helped to further address the methods coaches use to help their players through poor performance.

Coach 900 spoke of the difficulty he has in motivating the upperclassmen in his program. Through our conversation, he spoke of a more realistic understanding of the individual's talent begins to set in around their junior and senior year. He explained, "And you see it in juniors and seniors in college that have played a couple of years and man I'm not as good as I thought, or they really are liking accounting, and I'm not going to be playing golf for a living...So that is one of the hard things, is to keep them motivated because you see that a lot." Coach 900 offered his unique perspective on how to decrease the incidence of this occurring. He believes everyone on his team should play in at least one tournament during they're time on the team. He further described:

...At times maybe some shouldn't have played and times others I know are better, but I try to get everyone in there to give them hope that it is worth working for that. Coach may take me or my teammates may someday need me. I have always done that, you know when I first got here, I said you know, you're on a team when I recruited you to college, you didn't come to sit.... But every kid I have coached has stood in a championship picture at least once.

Coach 100 expressed a contention that players just don't realize how they act on the course and because of this, Coach 100 described an exercise he implements to address this issue. He explained:

...One thing I do here is that if I have a kid that is struggling and we are qualifying for a tournament I will not let him play. He will ride around in the cart with me and watch his teammates play. And usually a very eye opening experience for the kid. Usually, he will be like, 'Gosh, well why did he do that, or why did he is doing that?'.... They are telling me and they're like, 'Do I look like that?' and I'm like yeah, yeah, yeah that's exactly what you do. You know it is kind of like a different perspective for them and it helps, it really helps.

Adding to the list of specific team building exercises, Coach 200 described an exercise he does each year with his team:

...I do a little thing with my team each year. I put everybody's name on the paper and I, I put my name on the paper too. And I put a line and I put positives and negatives on the paper and I am asking for a one-word description of that person. For instance, with my deal, the one word that comes up is moody. You know I don't think that I am moody, but they obviously think I am, so I'm moody.... You see some pretty interesting things.... But I give them a thumbnail if one word comes up about the same guy three or four times out of 12 people filling out the form.

The ability for the coaches to identify the player's explanatory was consistently viewed as beneficial. For several of the coaches this knowledge was seen as beneficial for both team and individual success.

A major purpose of this study was to gain a deeper understanding of the pessimistic attitude and its effects on coaching techniques. Through this investigation, the coaches spoke to several different aspects of the optimistic and pessimistic behavioral tendencies. A minor theme to emerge from these data was the coaches' belief in the origin of the pessimistic athlete's explanatory style. Coaches placed further emphasis on the influence the player's parents and coaches have had on his development. Coach 500 credited the cultivation of negativism through the manner by which the parents raised their child. His response to the benefits of knowing a player's explanatory style as follows:

...Oh I think it could be huge, cause I am going to tell you, I think what happens by the time a kid gets to me, the way he's been raised and the environment he's been in has in a lot of ways produced this attitude. And generally I would say it comes from parental pressures and maybe poor coaching.

Unfortunately, the coaches held feelings of helplessness when dealing with some of their pessimistic athletes. Each coach had experienced an athlete or two that they were not able to reach over the course of their playing career. Coach 200 explained: "You know some, you do

change and some you don't change and that's true in every phase of teacher, whether the, a, the optimistic or pessimistic or how positive or negative a guy is." While Coach 100 responded:

...Absolutely, now there are some kids not, that you are never going to be able to do anything with. Ah and it's a lot deeper and ingrained in them, a lot deeper than anything I can do with, they've got other issues other than golf issues to deal with.... all of these kids are extremely talented and its just a matter of getting their minds right.

Although not a major theme, the origin of the pessimistic attitude and the coaches' feelings of helplessness when dealing with this attitude was an interesting point made by the coaches.

A significant emerging theme generated from the data was the coaches' use of thought and self-talk redirection with the pessimistic individual after a less successful round of golf. This theme is well supported and better understood through the coaches' discussion of the characteristics defining the optimistic and pessimistic individual.

When asked to define the characteristics of an optimistic individual, the coaches offered answers from which emerged several distinct themes. The optimistic individual is someone that has a certain attitude. This attitude is one of confidence in their abilities and confidence that if things aren't going well, things could change at any time. This positive look towards the future was another common characteristic defined by the coaches. Their explanation led to deeper understanding of the dialogue an optimist implements when discussing his game. Several of the coaches identified the fact that optimists speak in positive terms referring to use the words will and can instead of won't and can't. Furthermore, their explanatory style did not focus on external variables as the causes for success or failure. The optimist tended to look more internally for the reason for poor play.

The coaches continued discussions helped to define characteristics of the pessimistic individual. Emerging from the data were distinct qualities displayed by these individuals. These individuals lacked expectancy for future success. In addition, the coaches believed pessimistic

individuals tend to focus on past failures which influences their verbal communication. Furthermore, the data illustrated the pessimist's external explanation of poor play as a contributing factor to prolonged poor play. The researcher thought the speed with which the coaches responded to this question was interesting. Although this question produced similar themes as the previous question, the coaches seemed to possess more clarity in defining the pessimistic individual as opposed to the optimistic individual.

Interpretation of Qualitative Data

The purpose behind the conducting of a mixed-model methodology study was an attempt, by the researcher, to provide much needed qualitative data to support the quantitative findings. A dearth of research was found investigating optimism and pessimism in this manner. Furthermore, the qualitative inquiry was pertinent to gathering a deeper understanding of the techniques coaches implement when dealing with an optimistic and pessimistic golfer. The following section of this chapter will illustrate three assertions made by the researcher through the analysis of the qualitative data. Each assertion was created based on the collective observation of all the coaches' interview responses and will be discussed on an individual basis. The peer debriefer was also involved in this process.

- Assertion 1. When dealing with the pessimistic golfer, the coaches feel it is vital to redirect this individual's self-talk and thought process to a more positive focus. This redirection occurs through similar and unique practice techniques implemented by the coaches.
- Assertion 2. The coaches possess a clear understanding of the differences between optimistic golfers and pessimistic golfers. This clear understanding is compared and

contrasted through discussion of verbal explanatory style, work ethic, goals, agendas, organization, and the focus of the individual.

Assertion 3. The coaches believed the pessimistic attitude of a golfer is greatly influence by parents and past coaches.

Assertion 4. When dealing with the pessimistic golfer, the coaches feel it is vital to redirect this individual's self-talk and thought process to a more positive focus. This redirection occurs through similar and unique practice techniques implemented by the coaches.

Section III: Triangulation of Data

The inclusion of a peer debriefer from the outset of this study has helped to meet analyst triangulation. However, this study is also a mixed-model methodology design, which requires method triangulation. Defined, methods triangulation typically includes comparing data collected through both qualitative and quantitative methods (Patton, 1990). Furthermore, triangulation of qualitative and quantitative data serves as a form of comparative analysis (Patton, 1990). Through this type of analysis the researcher attempts to identify any converging themes.

An analysis of both the quantitative and qualitative revealed one converging or consistent theme. This theme was directly related to the study's first two research questions. The following section provides a comparison of the quantitative research questions (RQ 1 and RQ 2) with the quantitative question (RQ 3).

Research Question One: Is there a relationship between a player's optimistic/pessimistic outlook as measured by the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) and the coaches' perception of their player's outlook?

Correlational analysis of the quantitative data indicated the presence of a weak positive relationship between the players' self-reported level of optimism on the LOT-R's unidimensional scale and the coaches' perception of their players' outlook ($r = .32, p < .05$) on the same scale.

Research Question Two: Is there a relationship between a coach's optimistic/pessimistic outlook as measured by the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) and the player's perception of their coach's outlook?

Further correlational analysis also indicated a weak positive significant relationship between the coaches' self-reported level of optimism on the unidimensional scale and the players' perception of their coaches' outlook ($r = .37, p < .05$) on the same scale.

A major theme emerged from the data directly addressing these quantitative findings. From the coaches' discussions, it was apparent they believed the reasons for these results were based on the fact that individuals may not possess a realistic understanding of self-reported and perceived explanatory style. Other supporting factors were discussed as explanations for this assumption.

The lack of a realistic self understanding of strengths and weakness was viewed by the coaches as a major contributory factor to the pessimistic attitude held by some of their golfers. Analysis of the qualitative data illustrated how this lack of understanding could be perpetuated into a player rating himself more optimistic or more pessimistic than he really was. The coaches felt this could be a reason for the low incidence of agreement between self-reported optimism/pessimism and perceived optimism/pessimism. Another supporting explanation focused on the make-up of collegiate golf teams. A player has only one coach to identify with and attempt to perceive his optimism/pessimism level. However, the coach has twelve players,

which may provide the coach with a more accurate perception of his player's optimism/pessimism because he can compare explanatory styles between golfers.

The age and maturity level of the college golfer was consistently offered as an explanation for the quantitative findings. College was described as a time for searching and exploring to find oneself. Thus, this may pose a difficult stage for an individual to accurately identify his own explanatory style.

The last qualitative explanation offered to answer Research Questions One and Two lies in the fact that both research groups (coaches and players) may have a misperception of one another. As cited earlier in this chapter, several coaches expressed a concern of misperceiving the behaviors and actions of their players. The occurrence of this may lead to the coach "pigeon-holing" a player based on a remark or an action. This scenario was discussed by one of the coaches. He described how it wasn't until he had spoken directly with the player, did he gain a true understanding of the player's competitiveness. The coaches also expressed a concern that this may also occur with the player doing the same thing based on a single comment made by a coach. However, one coach offered the explanation that players may perceived a coach as always being pessimistic with him based on the coach's constant criticism. When in fact, the player doesn't realize that it is his coach's job to identify the player's weaknesses and instruct him how to get better.

Section IV: Summary of Results

Once the triangulation of quantitative and qualitative data were completed, the following answers were offered to the study's three research questions:

RQ 1: Is there a relationship between a player's optimistic/pessimistic

outlook as measured by the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) and the coaches' perception of their player's outlook?

At best a weak positive relationship ($r = .32, p < .05$) was found to exist between a player's optimistic/pessimistic outlook as measured by the LOT-R and the coaches' perception of their player's outlook. Although only a weak positive relationship was found to exist, the qualitative data offered the following reasons as possible explanations for these results: (a) the lack of a realistic view of oneself; (b) the age and maturity level of college level golfers; and (c) the misperceptions of both groups involved in the study.

RQ 2: Is there a relationship between a coach's optimistic/pessimistic

outlook as measured by the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) and the player's perception of their coach's outlook?

Similar results, as found in RQ 1, were found for this question. A weak positive relationship ($r = .37, p < .05$) was found to exist between the coach's optimistic/pessimistic outlook as measured by the LOT-R and the player's perception of their coach's outlook. Again, these findings were discussed during the qualitative data collection phase. Emerging from these data were three reasons why these results were found, which have already been explained in the previous question.

RQ 3 What are the specific techniques used by the coaches when

dealing with a less optimistic golfer after a less successful round, as opposed to dealing with a more optimistic golfer after a less successful round?

The answer to this question is yes, there are specific techniques used by the coaches when dealing with a less optimistic golfer after a less successful round, as opposed to dealing with a more optimistic golfer after a less successful round. The coaches offered several specific

techniques they use when dealing with both the pessimistic and optimistic golfer after a less successful round.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The evolution of American intercollegiate athletics has shifted from student-organized intramural programs to a billion dollar sport and entertainment industry. Under the guidance of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), the most recent television rights contract with CBS will pay the NCAA members 6 billion dollars over 11 years (Sperber, 2000). This increase in revenues has heightened the pressure on coaches to win, as evidenced by the pace of turnover in college coaching. Thus, the relationship between coach and player has become more and more vital to overall team success. The purposes of this study are to: (a) determine if a coach possesses an accurate perception of his players' optimistic/pessimistic outlook, (b) determine if a player possesses an accurate perception of his coach's optimistic/pessimistic outlook, (c) determine if an optimistic/pessimistic outlook affects coaching techniques when a coach is dealing with a less optimistic golfer after a less successful round; and (d) collect much needed qualitative data with regards to coaching techniques and explanatory style. The first two research questions were investigated through the administration of the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R). The third research question was investigation through the qualitative method of a standardized open-ended interview.

This chapter was organized into the following sections: discussion of results, conclusions, and recommendations for future research. The results of three research questions are evaluated with comparison to the previous research in this area. The final part of this chapter discusses the researcher's suggestions for future research in the area of explanatory style and athletics.

Discussion

The following section provides discussion of the quantitative portion of the study pertaining to Research Questions One and Two. These questions will be discussed together and will be partially supported by the collected qualitative data. The discussion of Research Question Three will be fully supported by the qualitative data.

Research Question One: Is there a relationship between a player's optimistic/pessimistic outlook as measured by the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) and the coaches' perception of their player's outlook?

Research Question Two: Is there a relationship between a coach's optimistic/pessimistic outlook as measured by the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) and the players' perception of their coach's outlook?

The correlational analysis results for both questions indicated the existence of a weak positive relationship between the players' self-perceived level of optimism on the unidimensional scale and the coaches' perception of their players' outlook ($r = .32, p < .05$). In addition, the correlational analysis also indicated a weak positive relationship between the coaches' self-perceived level of optimism on the unidimensional scale and the players' perception of their coaches' outlook ($r = .37, p < .05$).

Although not statistically significant, a trend was identified between self-reported optimism/pessimism and perceived optimism/pessimism. The descriptive data analyses further indicated the players self-reported optimism/pessimism score ($M = 18.58, SD = 3.34$) was slightly more optimistic than the coaches' perceived optimism/pessimism level of their players ($M = 17.21, SD 4.08$). A slight discrepancy was also found between the coaches' self-reported optimism/pessimism score ($M = 19.54, SD = 3.02$) and the players' perceived

optimism/pessimism score for their coaches ($M = 17.46$, $SD = 4.45$). In both cases, the self-reported optimism/pessimism scores were higher than the perceived optimism/pessimism scores. Brown, (1992) in comparing male and female perception of athletic ability, found that males typically have a higher perception of their athletic ability than females. While Van Wersh (1997) found that boys ranked themselves higher than girls in the area of self-perceived ability in sports. However a more in-depth discussion of the qualitative data is required to more thoroughly understand the coaches' point of view.

Consistent with the literature, the coaches defined the optimistic individual as someone that possesses an attitude of confidence. Weinberg and Gould (2003) have stated that confident athletes believe in their ability to obtain the needed skills and competencies to reach their potential. The literature has also found one of the most consistent leading factors distinguishing highly successful athletes from unsuccessful athletes is confidence (Hardy & Jones, 1990).

The coaches further believed an optimistic person looks towards the future for success and does not dwell on the past. Zinsser, Bunker, and Williams (2001) depict the optimistic individual as one that believes mistakes are temporary and relate directly to a specific performance, but does not carry over from one performance to another. Furthermore, Seligman (1998) characterizes the optimistic individual as tending to believe defeat is a temporary setback, while at the same time appearing to be unfazed by this defeat.

One coach characterized the optimistic golfer as never believing he is defeated. Rettew and Reivich (1995) found that members of a basketball team offering more optimistic explanations for a loss had a higher chance of winning their next game as compared to basketball players offering pessimistic explanations for a loss. Seligman (1998) further characterized the optimistic individual as trying harder when confronted with a bad situation. The coaches' beliefs

were also supported by the literature findings that people holding an optimistic outlook on life have demonstrated higher levels of motivation, persistence, and performance (Carver, Blaney, & Scheier, 1979; Taylor & Brown, 1988).

Again consistent with the literature, the coaches accurately described the common characteristics of a pessimistic individual. The coaches felt the pessimistic individual consistently fixated on past events, which shaped their attitudes in the present tense. Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale's (1978) Reformulated Learned Helplessness Theory offers three dimensions for the variance in an individual's explanations: (a) internal versus external, (b) stable versus unstable, and (c) global versus specific. Their work has found that pessimistic explanations are more internal, stable, and global. The pessimistic individual internalizes their explanation to illustrate their talent level is not good enough to obtain success. But more significantly, in agreement with the coaches, these adverse situations are usually attributed to factors that are likely to endure through time. Supporting this summation, Seligman (1998) defined the pessimist as someone that believes a bad event will continue for a long duration of time and will destroy all they have worked towards. Further explanation for this finding may be found in Heider's (1958) and Weiner's (1985) Attribution Theory.

The Attribution Theory postulates that people explain their successes and failures in three distinct manners. The first category is stability and is characterized by an explanation that attributes success to a permanent or unstable reason. The second category is locus of causality and focuses on explanations that attribute success or failure to internal or external reasons. The last category is locus of control and examines attributions that are or are not in the individual's control. This theory may help to support the coaches' explanations for their perceived explanatory style.

The coaches' responses also defined the pessimist as someone focusing on the short-term work instead of the long-term goals being worked towards. Furthermore, the coaches labeled the pessimist as an individual who lets his agenda be easily changed. Lastly, the coaches felt when times are difficult, the pessimist searches for other avenues or reasons of comfort to explain his poor performance. These findings are all important because each one lends itself to a broader, more encompassing definition of the pessimistic individual.

Based on the quantitative and qualitative data identified the inability of individuals to realistically understand their strengths and weaknesses as a major hurdle for confronting today's coaches and athletes. A possible reason for the coaches' misperception of their players might be explained through the theory of the Self-fulfilling Prophecy. This theory postulates that the expectations teachers and coaches develop of students/athletes' ability can influence the achievement level each athlete eventually attains (Rosenthal & Jacobsen, 1968; Horn, Lox, & Labrador, 2001). Furthermore, Horn et al., (2001, p. 65) discussed the negative outcomes associated when a coach develops an inaccurate perception of his player as "very disruptive for athletes and can interfere with their optimal athletic progress." The literature stipulates that often times this misjudgment, on the part of the coach, causes him/her to view only the player's skill errors and attribute successful attempts to luck. Thus, as one coach referred to during his interview, "you know it is a perception and I see them in a certain way and maybe they really don't feel that way."

However, Smith and Smoll (1989) have proposed coaches who are high self-monitors of their behavior tendencies, may have a better ability of understanding their athletes because they have a better sense of an athlete's behavior cues. Through the interview process, the researcher characterized these individuals as highly motivated, driven, and possessing an understanding of

themselves. This self-understanding was demonstrated through the reflective tone these coaches displayed when discussing their optimistic evolution as a coach. Again, the coaches participating in this study were from established, winning, and top-ranked programs.

It is this unique golf team construct, which may have been addressed by the coaches' discussion of the realistic comparison that takes place within a golf team. One of the coaches felt that because he has the opportunity to compare each player with eleven others, he might possess a more realistic perception of that player's explanatory style. Because, a player has only one coach, he may not possess a realistic understanding of his coach's explanatory style.

Several coaches made the point that players often times do not possess an accurate and realistic understanding of their explanatory style or their strengths and weaknesses. The coaches mentioned that the age and maturity level of the players could be a factor. This explanation receives considerable support in the child development literature. Gillham, Reivich, and Shatté (2002) discuss the self-concept development of children as they progress from early childhood through adolescents. They have found that elementary school children's self-descriptions include "observable characteristics and behaviors." But by late childhood, these self-descriptions include "more stable personality traits and social comparison information." Thus, the research has found that a relationship may exist between maturation and self-evaluation of ability level. Further exploration of self-concept was found in the educational setting.

Educational research conducted by Pintrich and Blumenfeld (1985) discovered second graders rated their academic ability in a more positive light than sixth graders. In addition, Dweck and Leggett (1988) found that younger children believe they can increase ability through practice and hard work, while older children tend to believe their ability is more stable and less likely to change. Further explanation of this assertion may also be found in the findings of

Langer and Park (1990). Their work focused on the method by which children attribute their failures. Results indicated that younger children are taught to attribute their failures to precompetence explanations. Examples of this would include, “I can’t complete this problem because I haven’t been taught this material yet.” While older children are taught to attribute their failures to incompetence, “I can’t do this because I’m not good enough.” Although college athletes have developed a considerable amount from their late childhood years, these self-concept findings may also be exhibited during the athlete’s four-year college career.

Further explanation of the athletes’ misperception of their coaches’ explanatory may be explained through Summers’ (1991) work. Summers analyzed if an association existed between an athlete’s perceptions of his/her own abilities and the influence this perception has on a coach’s instruction. Results indicated the more positive a player’s perception of his/her ability the more influence a coach’s instruction had on his/her performance. An issue discussed by the coaches in the present study was the fact that the players’ might not have a realistic perception of their (the coaches) explanatory style. This misperception might be based on the fact the coaches’ main goal is to make his player better. One of the ways this goal is attained is through the identification of the player’s weaknesses. So the coach may appear to be constantly criticizing the player’s ability, when in fact, the coach is attempting to focus the player on bettering his overall game. This point may be further supported through the work of Black and Weiss (1992).

Additional investigation into the relationship between perceived coaching behaviors and athletic self-assessment of ability, was conducted by Black and Weiss (1992). Results from this investigation indicated that those coaches perceived as giving more frequent information after positive performances and more frequent encouragement in conjunction with information following less desirable performances were highly associated with athletes who had perceived

higher levels of success, competence, and enjoyment. It may be that some of the players have a misperception of their coaches' intentions because of the manner in which their coach delivers his criticism. This, in turn may cause the player to have a poorer self-assessment of ability. A poor self-assessment of ability may be another catalyst for the pessimist's negative attitude.

Within sports, athletes are taught from an early age to have confidence in their abilities. When interviewed, athletes such as Michael Jordan, Tiger Woods, and Serena Williams discuss the important role self-efficacy and self-confidence play in their success. Unfortunately, not everyone can attain the athletic levels of these individuals. However, the players' inability to properly identify their explanatory style, or their strengths and weakness may be explained through a lack of self-awareness training.

Weinberg and Gould (2003) have stated that sports such as golf and tennis are 80% to 90% mental. However, most coaches have players spending 80% to 90% of their time training the physical component of golf. As Weinberg and Gould (2003) continue to discuss, the lack of psychological skill training implemented by coaches is based on three reasons: (a) a lack of knowledge existing on the part of the coach to properly teach these skills, (b) perceived lack of time to practice these skills, and (c) a belief that these skills are inborn and cannot be taught. Several of this study's coaches were aware of explanatory style, however very few were aware of a research supported method to identify someone's level of optimism/pessimism. Another possible explanation could be the players training has lacked a cognitive intervention dealing directly with self-talk and explanatory style.

The coaches did admit they consistently attempt to redirect the pessimists' thoughts and self-talk after a less successful round. However, even though this practice of redirection may change an athlete's temporary self-talk, it may not consist of enough training for the player to be

able to control his self-talk. Burke (personal communication, February 19, 2004), addressed his work with athletes' and their self-talk. "I find a lot of athletes have never been made aware of their self-talk. I find successful interventions occur when I can get the athlete to realize they have control of their self-talk. We try to develop self-talk patterns and habits that create a more positive environment for the athlete." This lack of training may serve as a possible explanation for the coaches' contentions that players lack the ability to properly understand their explanatory style.

A minor theme that emerged from this research was the coaches' opinions concerning the genesis of the pessimistic attitude. Several coaches equated this negative attitude to the teachings and influences of the athlete's parents. A plethora of research has been conducted to support this assumption. Martens (1978) was one of the first researchers to investigate the role parents play in the development of the young athlete. Passer (1984) found the existence of a relationship between a parent's negative performance evaluation and the athlete's high level of trait anxiety. Several coaches felt that parental pressures greatly influence the belief system of the athlete. This belief was consistent with the findings of Scanlon and Lewthwaite (1986). They found that male wrestlers experiencing positive parental performance evaluations were also more likely to experience higher levels of enjoyment.

Semi-structured, open-ended interviews were conducted in an attempt to answer Research Question Three. However, as the interview guide protocol illustrates, several other questions were asked of the coaches as a means of better understanding their individual knowledge of optimism and pessimism. The coaches did identify several specific techniques they implemented when dealing with a less optimistic golfer after a less successful round as opposed to dealing with a more optimistic golfer under the same conditions. An emerging theme from this

data was the coaches' necessity to redirect the self-talk and thought processes of the pessimistic golfer.

Self-talk is something an individual participates in whenever he/she engages in an internal dialogue with him/herself whenever he/she explains feelings or perceptions outloud (Zinsser, Bunker, & Williams, 2001). From a coaching standpoint, the type of self-talk an individual engages in has been shown to impact performance. As Weinberg and Gould (2003, p. 364) have stated, "Negative self-talk is critical and self-demeaning and gets in the way of a person's reaching goals; it is counterproductive and anxiety producing." Furthermore negative self-talk has also been found to be a liability to the athlete because it becomes a distraction, which can lead to the interruption of automatic skill performance (Zinsser, Bunker, & Williams, 2001). Negative self-talk involving disparaging self-labeling or self-rating has been found to be destructive to an individual's mental psyche (Ellis, 1988). However, additional studies have found a relationship between positive self-talk and performance as opposed to negative self-talk on a variety of skills and tasks (Van Raalte, et al., 1995; Johnson-O'Connor & Kirschenbaum, 1986). The research is consistent with the coaches' beliefs that changing this pessimistic behavior is vital to increasing the likelihood of that individual experiencing are successful round in the future. Yet, the ability to alter this behavior may be extremely difficult. Weinberg and Gould (2003) have reported that of the 66,000 thoughts an individual typically has a day, 70% to 80% are negative. But, the coaches' redirection practices were found consistent with the sport psychological skills training literature.

Zinsser, Bunker, and Williams (2001) discussions on self-talk training label the coaches' redirection as reframing. Reframing has been defined as establishing different "frames of reference" for an individual to view his/her surroundings (Gauron, 1984). Reframing allows the

individual the opportunity to turn a viewed weakness or bad experience into a more positive event. This technique helps to explain the coaches' need to pull one or two positive discussion points from the pessimist's poor golf round.

The last coaching technique requiring discussion incorporated the semi-use of self-awareness training. One coach discussed a technique he implements when a player is struggling. The coach has the player take a day off and instead of practicing the player rides in the coach's cart and watches his team play a round of golf. This particular coach explained this technique provides the player with a better understand his actions through observation of his teammates actions on the course. Because the athlete is not being televised during a round, the coach expressed that this technique has consistently had a strong impact on the player. This technique results in the player questioning if his actions resemble those of his teammates after a particular bad shot. The coach was adamant about the positive changes he finds after his players go through this training session.

Using the team as a training tool for increasing the performance of the individual is consistent with Tuckman (1965). Tuckman's (1965) work believed that all teams develop through four stages: forming, storming, norming, and performing. The concept of forming is consistent with the coaching techniques of the participants in this study. Typically, the forming stage consists of teammates comparing themselves with one another. This technique is also consistent with the social structure of the team.

Conclusions

A purpose of the present study was to identify the level of accurate explanatory style perception possessed by college coaches and players. Although the literature has begun to investigate the coach/player relationship, this study was unique in that it included analysis of an

individual's explanatory style (optimism/pessimism level). Furthermore, this study attempted to qualitatively identify specific coaching techniques implemented by coaches dealing with a less optimistic individual after a less successful round of golf. From this investigation, themes emerged which add to the existing coaching research.

As previously discussed, a dearth of research has been conducted investigating the effects of explanatory style on the coaching techniques of athletes. The explanatory style studies that have been conducted involving athletics have primarily investigated the relationship between player explanations of game losses and overall team success (Peterson & Bossio, 1989; Seligman, 1991). However, some studies have investigated the relationship between negative feedback, explanatory style, and performance (Seligman, et al., 1990). These results indicated that individual's possessing an optimistic explanatory style performed better under adverse conditions.

The present study attempted to add to this research by first identifying if coaches and athletes understand their own and others' explanatory style. This is an area that has lacked investigation. Given this, the ability to identify if the coaches and players have a true understanding of their explanatory style would seem vital to the researcher. Furthermore, investigating if a coach possesses an accurate perception of a player's explanatory style demands analysis in the explanatory research. The implications of these findings may open up an entirely new perspective on the influence explanatory style has on coaching techniques and performance.

Within the limitations of the study, it may be concluded that a weak positive relationship was found between the players' self-reported optimistic/pessimistic outlook and the coaches' perceived optimistic/pessimistic outlook of his players (RQ 1). In addition, a weak positive relationship was also found between the coaches' self-reported optimistic/pessimistic outlook

and the players' perceived optimistic/pessimistic outlook of their coach (RQ 2). Although the relationships were not strong, these findings illustrate a lack of perceived understanding of optimism/pessimism. This finding is far reaching in that it may identify a deficiency area in the coach/player relationship. As discussed through qualitative analysis, several reasons may exist for these misperceptions and thus definitely require further inquiry.

The findings of the mixed model methodology design further illustrated that the coaches did possess an accurate understanding of the characteristics defining optimistic and pessimistic individuals. These results provide researchers with a foundation or a starting point for further research. The literature has been remiss in providing empirical evidence that coaches possess the ability to define the characteristics of optimistic and pessimistic individuals.

Additional findings from this study identified the coaches concern for the lack of self-awareness often demonstrated by their players. A main goal of sport psychology is provide the athlete with a better understanding of him/herself. Results have identified a concern on the part of the coaches. Thus, these results may provide an opportunity for coaches to reexamine their athletes' ability to accurately understand their behavior patterns. These findings may also increase studies to better understand why this has occurred.

Also identified in the findings of this study was the coaches' belief that a player's pessimistic attitude is parentally influenced. This finding adds and supports the parent/athlete relationship literature.

In addition, the qualitative data identified several techniques the coaches implemented when dealing with a pessimistic golfer after a less successful round as compared with an identified optimistic golfer after a similar round. This finding provides new insight into the coaching literature. The qualitative inquiry and analysis has provided researchers and coaches

with invaluable examples of the actual techniques implemented by coaches when dealing with less optimistic athletes after a less successful experience. These examples open a cadre of further studies for coaching researchers to better understand the habits and characteristics of highly successful coaches.

These findings may also have several practical implications for coaches involved in the recruiting of their athletes. Coaches may use the findings of this study as a means to identifying a player's explanatory style early on in their college career. The identification of an optimistic or pessimistic explanatory could assist coaches in the development of an individualized psychological skills training program for their athletes. Furthermore, the findings of this study may create another communication avenue for coaches and players to better understand one another. This communication may also help to reduce the incidence of misperceptions and lack of understanding between coach and player.

Lastly, this study's findings may also have implications for high school and youth sport coaches. As previously discussed, the influence of explanatory style on sport performance has not received an overabundance of investigation. However, the identification and understanding of explanatory style could be vital to the success of high school and youth sport coaches. With a growing trend towards more positive teaching and coaching, youth sport coaches might benefit from identify their own explanatory style. This identification could lead a coach to include more positive coaching strategies in his/her team's daily practices and games.

Recommendations for Future Research

More research into the effects of explanatory style (optimism/pessimism) and athletic performance has recently been conducted. However, more attention is needed. The following recommendations for future research include variety of areas that require much needed attention.

Future research should include a qualitative analysis of athletes' defining characteristics of an optimistic and pessimistic individual. This investigation could add to the results of the present study by offering researchers a clear understanding of both coaches and players perceptions of optimistic/pessimistic individuals.

Another research study could investigate the relationship between explanatory style and the components of the Attribution Theory. A mixed-model methodology could provide an interesting inquiry into further defining the make up of an optimistic/pessimistic individual. Along the same research design, another study should investigate if a relationship exists between different coaching styles (Democratic and Autocratic) and perceived optimism/pessimism. This could aid researchers in coaching education.

Future research should involve a season-long case study of an intercollegiate male/female golf team. A case-study lends itself to more in-depth analysis of the coach/player relationship. The researcher could observe interactions between coach and player in an attempt to further understand self-reported explanatory style and perceived explanatory style. Furthermore, a case-study analysis may provide the literature with more effective ways for coaches to deal with less optimistic athletes.

Future research should also include the comparison of international and American athletes with regards to self-reported and perceived explanatory style. This would be of interest in an attempt to identify if any social issues play a significant role in the athlete's explanatory style.

Another area of inquiry could include the study of coaches' use of pessimism as a motivational tool for his/her team. Some coaches implement a negative, pessimistic explanatory style when discussing their team in the media. However, future research could investigate if

these coaches have the same explanatory during team practices and off the field team interactions.

A last area for future research should focus on the self-reported and perceived explanatory styles of male coaches of women's teams and female coaches of women's teams. This study would help to better understand if discrepancies exist between perceived explanatory style and gender.

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APPENDIX A
Introduction Email
(Participating Institution's Athletic Director)

Dear (Athletic Director),

My name is Matt Wilson, I am a doctoral student at the University of Georgia, and I am writing this email regarding my doctoral dissertation. My dissertation is entitled "The Effects of Optimism and Pessimism on the Coaching Techniques of Division I Intercollegiate Golfers."

The research design will require intercollegiate players and coaches to answer the 10-item Life Orientation Test-Revised, which should take between 5-10 minutes. Further research will require the coach and/or players to participate in a short interview session based upon the results found from this survey, which should take between 30-45 minutes.

I know that you are extremely busy, the purpose of this email is twofold: 1) to introduce myself and provide you with some background regarding my study; and 2) to notify you that I shall be requesting a Letter of Permission to Participate from you (details of which will be sent upon response to this email).

Thank you for your time and assistance with helping me complete my doctoral degree.

Matt Wilson M.Ed
Instructor, Department of Public Health

APPENDIX B
PLAYER'S CONSENT FORM

I, _____, agree to participate in a research study titled "An Analysis of the Role Optimism and Pessimism Play on the Coaching Strategies of NCAA Division I Intercollegiate Golfers." conducted by Matthew Wilson, from the Department of Physical Education and Sport Studies at the University of Georgia (912-681-0261) under the direction of Dr. Billy Hawkins, Department of Physical Education and Sport Studies, University of Georgia (706-542-4427). I understand that my participation is voluntary. I can stop taking part without giving any reason, and without penalty. I can ask to have all of the information about me returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The reason for this study is to examine the role optimism and pessimism play on the coaching techniques implemented by Division I Intercollegiate Golf Coaches when dealing with their athletes.

If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be asked to do the following things:

- 1) Answer questions about my golf experience which will take 2-5 minutes
- 2) Answer questions about my positive or negative outlook and my coach's positive or negative outlook which will take 5-10 minutes.
- 3) My information will be kept until the end of the study (September 15th, 2004) and all personal identifying information will be destroyed by the researcher.

No risks are expected to be experienced by my participation in this project. No discomforts or stresses are expected and I will not directly benefit from the research.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with me will remain confidential unless required by law. I will be assigned an identifying number and this number will be used on all of the questionnaires I fill out. All personal identifying information will be destroyed by July 15th, 2004.

The investigator will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project (912-681-0261).

I understand that I am agreeing by my signature on this form to take part in this research project and understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form for my records.

_____ Name of Researcher	_____ Signature	_____ Date
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Telephone: _____
Email: _____

_____ Name of Participant	_____ Signature	_____ Date
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Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D. Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu

APPENDIX C
COACH'S CONSENT FORM

I, _____, agree to participate in a research study titled "An Analysis of the Role Optimism and Pessimism Play on the Coaching Strategies of NCAA Division I Intercollegiate Golfers." conducted by Matthew Wilson, from the Department of Physical Education and Sport Studies at the University of Georgia (912-681-0261) under the direction of Dr. Billy Hawkins, Department of Physical Education and Sport Studies, University of Georgia (706-542-4427). I understand that my participation is voluntary. I can stop taking part without giving any reason, and without penalty. I can ask to have all of the information about me returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The reason for this study is to examine the role of optimism and pessimism on the coaching techniques implemented by Division I Intercollegiate Golf Coaches when dealing with their athletes.

If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be asked to do the following things:

- 1) Answer questions about my golf experience which will take 2-5 minutes
- 2) Answer questions about my positive or negative outlook and my coach's positive or negative outlook which will take 5-10 minutes.
- 3) Someone from the study may call me to clarify my information and gather qualitative information which will take 30-45 minutes. This call will be audiotaped.
- 4) My information will be kept until the end of the study (September 15th, 2004) and all personal identifying information and audiotapes will be destroyed at this time

No risks are expected to be experienced by my participation in this project. No discomforts or stresses are expected and I understand I will not benefit directly from the research.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with me will remain confidential unless required by law. I will be assigned an identifying number and this number will be used on all of the questionnaires I fill out. All personal identifying information and audiotapes will be destroyed by July 15th, 2004.

The investigator will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project (912-681-0261).

I understand that I am agreeing by my signature on this form to take part in this research project and understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form for my records.

Name of Researcher
Telephone: _____
Email: _____

Signature

Date

Name of Participant

Signature

Date

Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D. Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu

APPENDIX D
Players'
Personal Statement Questionnaire

Name _____ Date _____

Age _____ Hometown _____

Email _____ Phone # _____

Gender: Male Female

Race: Caucasian African-American Other _____

Swing: Right or Left (Circle One)

Current Athletic School Classification (Circle One) FR SO JR SR

Please indicate if you are a scholarship athlete Yes or No
Full or Partial

Please indicate if you have been redshirted (Circle One) Yes or No

Total years of playing experience _____

Total years of competitive playing experience _____

Present stroke average _____

Number of tournaments participated in this past fall _____

APPENDIX E
Coaches'
Personal Statement Questionnaire

Name _____ Date _____

Age _____ Hometown _____

Email _____ Phone # _____

Gender: Male Female

Race: Caucasian African-American Other _____

Please indicate if you were a scholarship athlete Yes or No
Full or Partial

Total years of playing experience (College-letters earned
and name of school, Professional- Tour name) _____

Total years of Coaching experience (please indicate how
many years, at which level, and name of schools) _____

Team Championships (Conference and National) _____

APPENDIX F
Life Orientation Test – Revised

Please be as honest and accurate as you can throughout this questionnaire. Try not to let your response to one statement influence your response to other statements. There are no “correct” or “incorrect” answers. Answer according to your own feelings, rather than how you think most people would answer.

SA = Strongly Agree
A = Agree
Neither = Neither Agree nor Disagree
D = Disagree
SD = Strongly Disagree

	SA	A	Neither	D	SD
1. In uncertain times, I usually expect the best.	A	B	C	D	E
2. It's easy for me to relax.	A	B	C	D	E
3. If something can go wrong for me, it will.	A	B	C	D	E
4. I'm always optimistic about my future.	A	B	C	D	E
5. I enjoy my friends a lot.	A	B	C	D	E
6. It's important for me to keep busy.	A	B	C	D	E
7. I hardly ever expect things to go my way.	A	B	C	D	E
8. I don't get upset too easily.	A	B	C	D	E
9. I rarely count on good things happening to me.	A	B	C	D	E
10. Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.	A	B	C	D	E

APPENDIX G
Life Orientation Test – Revised
Modified Players’ Version

Please be as honest and accurate as you can throughout this questionnaire. Try not to let your response to one statement influence your response to other statements. There are no “correct” or “incorrect” answers. Answer according to your own feelings, rather than how you think most people would answer.

SA = Strongly Agree
A = Agree
Neither = Neither Agree nor Disagree
D = Disagree
SD = Strongly Disagree

	SA	A	Neither	D	SD
1. In uncertain times, Coach usually expects the best.	A	B	C	D	E
2. It’s easy for Coach to relax.	A	B	C	D	E
3. If something can go wrong for Coach, it will.	A	B	C	D	E
4. Coach is always optimistic about his future.	A	B	C	D	E
5. Coach enjoys his friends a lot.	A	B	C	D	E
6. It’s important for Coach to keep busy.	A	B	C	D	E
7. Coach hardly ever expects things to go his way.	A	B	C	D	E
8. Coach doesn’t get upset too easily.	A	B	C	D	E
9. Coach rarely counts on good things happening to him.	A	B	C	D	E
10. Overall, Coach expects more good things to happen to him than bad.	A	B	C	D	E

APPENDIX H
Life Orientation Test – Revised
Modified Coach’s Version

Please be as honest and accurate as you can throughout this questionnaire. Try not to let your response to one statement influence your response to other statements. There are no “correct” or “incorrect” answers. Answer according to your own feelings, rather than how you think most people would answer.

SA = Strongly Agree
A = Agree
Neither = Neither Agree nor Disagree
D = Disagree
SD = Strongly Disagree

PN = Player’s name

	SA	A	Neither	D	SD
1. In uncertain times, (PN) usually expect the best.	A	B	C	D	E
2. It’s easy for (PN) to relax.	A	B	C	D	E
3. If something can go wrong for (PN), it will.	A	B	C	D	E
4. (PN) is always optimistic about his future.	A	B	C	D	E
5. (PN) enjoys his friends a lot.	A	B	C	D	E
6. It’s important for (PN) to keep busy.	A	B	C	D	E
7. (PN) hardly ever expect things to go his way.	A	B	C	D	E
8. (PN) doesn’t get upset too easily.	A	B	C	D	E
9. (PN) rarely counts on good things happening to him.	A	B	C	D	E
10. Overall, (PN) expects more good things to happen to him than bad.	A	B	C	D	E

APPENDIX I
Interview Question List (Protocol)

1. Explain your coaching philosophy.
2. Describe the characteristics of an optimistic individual.
3. Describe the characteristics of a pessimistic individual.
4. Would you classify yourself as an optimistic or pessimistic coach?
5. Describe how knowing a player's explanatory style (optimistic or pessimistic) could or could not be beneficial to your coaching technique.
6. Explain any techniques you implement when dealing with a less optimistic athlete after a less successful round as opposed to a more optimistic athlete under the same circumstances.
7. We have noticed some differences between the players' perceived explanatory style of the coaches and the coaches' perceived explanatory style of the players. Why do you think this occurred?

APPENDIX J
Preliminary Analysis of Interview Data

Research Question	Participant 100	Participant 200	Participant 300	Participant 500	Participant 900
RQ 1	Varies by individual	Want to prepare guys for life after golf	Recruit experienced talent	Middle of the road disciplinarian	Prepare my guys for real world and life after golf
	Players need structure	Create a positive learning atmosphere	Create an environment for guys to work on their own	Facilitator providing the resources for success	Teach values of responsibility and being on time
		Not all of these guys are going to play after school	Identify weaknesses and strengths	Character, integrity, honesty, and trust are big parts of the program	Want a class program on and off the course
			Communicate about course management	Kids not internally committed struggle in this program	Uses word will instead of won't
RQ 2	Observe person's true attitude in putting	Positive about future	Constantly patting guys on back, telling them to never give up	Organized, focused, articulate, self-motivated, and good work ethic	Won't get down
	Attitude of knowing at any moment can make rest of putts	Looks to future to improve	Gives same answer no matter how he is doing	Attitude of confidence	Realizes with hard work and patience will see results
	Gives very best effort		Overly positive, tries to eliminate the negative stuff	Focused on goal or dream	
				Don't let	

			Doesn't dwell on getting screwed or not catching a break	others dictate agenda	
RQ 3	Miss it early don't expect to make it rest of day	Looks back in past and sees negatives why not to succeed	Guy that says can't catch a break	Kids knocked off course easily	Always looks for an excuse and reason why can't do this
	Doesn't expect good things to happen	Less inclined to see success and positive things in future	Constantly looks for excuse for why playing bad	Agendas easily changed	When things going bad seems to find other avenues that are comfort levels to make him feel better about himself
	Not patient		Not focusing on trying to turn it around	Focus is short-term, and not goal-oriented	
	Gives in to way the day is going			Looks for reason not to reach a goal	
	Don't believe today is their day to shoot 68			Work ethic misdirected, focuses on work itself instead of goal trying to reach	
				Run into word can't	
RQ 4	Optimistic coach	Very optimistic	Optimistic Coach	Cautiously optimistic	Definitely optimistic
RQ 5	Pessimists benefit more	Helpful for person to see	Very beneficial	I think it can be huge	I say it would probably help

		himself realistically and understand strengths and weaknesses			
	Some I can turn around	Pessimists don't think they are as negative as they are	Guy is very optimistic, don't have to go out of way to continually get him to think optimistically	His the way he's been raised and the environment he's been in has produced this attitude	Can use reverse psychology
	Sometimes need to break through eternal optimism	Optimist don't think they are as much	Pessimistic guy have to tell him what he can and can't say on the course	Parents and poor coaching	Would give you and understanding as a coach of why a kid would say something
		Pessimistic because of negative things that have occurred in person's life			
RQ 6	Refuse to let pessimist talk about his bad stuff	Kid will need what he doesn't do well himself	I am probably a little harder on the pessimistic guy	With the optimistic player is much easier to deal with after a poor round because they have short memories	Give a kid new life and future hope
	I just don't want them dwelling on		With the optimistic guy, I don't	With pessimistic player go	It's a comfort level

	it		want to destroy that	back and talk about the successes they have	
	Go back over round and pick out some positive things about it			Try to take pressure off pessimistic player	
	I will not let them dwell on their negatives			With pessimistic player try to reduce it down to a game and as you go through life it will be very insignificant	
RQ 7	Don't think the players realize need to see their body language and their attitude	Denial of strengths and weaknesses	Sometimes you pigeon hole	The coach tended to be a bit harder on the player than the player was on the player	Becoming young men and they are out of the house and they know everything
	Player rides in the cart		You know a lot of guys tend to think that they're optimistic when they don't really know	Kids that aren't optimistic tend to pick out their faults and their quickest to talk about their faults	Maybe it depends on the kid
					You know perception, I see them in a

					certain way and maybe they really don't feel that way
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APPENDIX K
Peer Debriefers' Resume

EDUCATION

University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia, 1989-1992

Degree: Doctor of Philosophy

Major: Physical Education

Emphasis: Measurement and Evaluation

Dissertation Title: Predictive and descriptive discriminant analysis of the golf ability of college males

Auburn University, Auburn, Alabama, 1985-1986

Degree: Master of Education

Major: Physical Education

Georgia Southern College, Statesboro, Georgia, 1981-1985

Degree: Bachelor of Science in Education

Major: Health and Physical Education

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

- | | |
|----------------|--|
| 1998 - Present | Associate Professor, Department of Public Health, Georgia Southern University. Responsibilities include teaching graduate and undergraduate courses in the areas of measurement and evaluation, research methods, and data analysis, supervising interns, advising students, serving on department and university committees, and conducting research in the areas of exercise science and physical education. Full Graduate Faculty status. |
| 1992 - 1998 | Assistant Professor, Department of Health and Kinesiology, Georgia Southern University. Responsibilities include teaching graduate and undergraduate courses in the areas of measurement and evaluation, research methods, and data analysis, advising students, serving on department and university committees, and conducting research in the areas of exercise science and physical education. Associate Graduate Faculty status. |
| 1991 - 1992 | Research Assistant in Department of Physical Education and Sport Studies, University of Georgia. Responsibilities included collecting and analyzing data, reviewing literature, and assisting with classes. |

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| 1989 - 1991 | Graduate Teaching Assistant in Department of Physical Education and Sport Studies, University of Georgia. Responsibilities included teaching racquetball and tennis activity courses. |
| 1986 - 1989 | Physical Education Teacher and Coach, Nash Middle School and Wills High School, Cobb County Schools, Smyrna, Georgia. Responsibilities included teaching middle school physical education and coaching high school football and baseball. |
| 1985 - 1986 | Graduate Teaching Assistant in Department of Health and Physical Education, Auburn University. Responsibilities included teaching racquetball and tennis activity courses. |
| 1985 - 1985 | Graduate Teaching Assistant in Department of Health and Physical Education, Georgia Southern College. Responsibilities included teaching volleyball, jogging, and body conditioning activity courses. |

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS

Georgia Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance

American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance

APPENDIX L

Recognizing Explanatory Style: Tips for Youth Sport Coaches

- Identify your own explanatory style by charting your positive and negative statements.
- Identify your players' explanatory style.
- Identify the explanatory style of your players' parents.
- Implement Thompson 's (2003) Magic Ratio of Six positive statements for every one negative statement you make with your players.
- Hold a parent's meeting to discuss and educate your parents with regards to explanatory style.