

AN EXPLORATION OF SUBSTITUTES' EXPERIENCES IN FOOTBALL

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In memory of my Dad

Bernard Jude Woods
(1957-2004)

Abstract

The aims of this thesis were to investigate the substitute role in football and understand players' psychological responses to becoming a substitute player. This was achieved in three stages, firstly by completing a preliminary exploratory study uncovering experiences and emotions pertinent to substitute players and secondly by investigating factors from study 1 which appeared to be most important. Finally, a longitudinal intervention study was carried out to examine the effects of cognitive intervention strategies on negative emotional responses that were identified in studies 1 and 2. In study 1 semi-structured interviews were carried out with professional and semi-professional football players (17 males, 3 females) to develop a detailed understanding of the substitute experience and to establish if substitutes experienced elevated and debilitating competitive anxiety prior to performance. Results revealed that substitutes were exposed to various organisational stressors prior to performing (e.g., being inactive, experiencing a restricted warm up/physical preparation) and competitive stressors once substituted on to play (e.g., high paced game). Substitutes also reported experiencing negative mood, self-presentation concerns, reduced perceived control, elevated perceived threat, reduced coach communication and elevated competitive anxiety prior to competition. These results provided the basis for studies 2, 3 and 4. Study 2 investigated mood, self-presentation concerns and competitive state anxiety in substitute and starter players. Participants were 192 amateur and collegiate football players (34 males and 158 females) consisting of 96 starter and 96 substitute players. Participants completed questionnaires assessing mood (BRUMS: Terry Lane, Lane, & Keohane, 1999; 2003), self-presentation concerns (SPSQ: Wilson & Eklund, 1998) and competitive anxiety (Modified CSAI-2: Martens, Vealey & Burton, 1990a) 1 hour prior to competition. Results revealed that substitutes experienced significantly more anger, depression, concerns about physical appearance and interpreted self-confidence as being significantly more facilitative than starter players. Thus, indicating that substitute and starter players experience different mood state and self-confidence profiles but not self-presentation concerns or competitive

anxiety before competition. Study 3 investigated the impact that playing status had on the coach-substitute relationship. Two coach-substitute dyads were investigated from a male semi-professional team (1 male coach, and 2 male substitute players), and two coach-substitute dyads were investigated from a female amateur team (1 female coach and 2 female substitute players). Results confirmed findings from study 1 that coaches and substitutes experienced reduced shared interaction and communication. In addition, coaches and substitute players shared thoughts and behaviours that characterise a negative coach-athlete relationship. Specifically there was evidence to support reduced closeness, reduced shared understanding, reduced commitment and negative behaviours between coaches and substitutes. Finally, study 4 consisted of a longitudinal design using time series analysis to examine the effects of three cognitive intervention strategies (goal setting, self-talk and pre-performance routines) on mood, self-presentation and competitive anxiety in substitute players. Participants were four female football players who completed the BRUMS, SPSQ and Modified CSAI-2 questionnaires each time they were a substitute player both before and after the intervention period. Results showed that substitutes experienced more positive thoughts and a general improving trend for anxiety (CSAI-2), mood (BRUMS) and self-presentation concerns (SPSQ) following the intervention period. In conclusion, results from this thesis indicate that becoming a substitute player can be stressful, resulting in negative thoughts, emotions, and behaviours as well as a debilitating coach-substitute relationship. However, more research is needed to explore this phenomenon further.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to Thesis

On commencing this research project I was playing football for an amateur female team with aspirations of helping my club gain promotion to the National League. At that time I had been playing for twelve years but had rarely experienced being a substitute. However, my interest in sport psychology and participation in football both as a player and as a coach lead me to become intrigued by the fact that many players when named as a substitute were less than happy with their role. In my experience, substitute players appeared to experience various responses including anger, hatred towards the manager or coach, self-esteem concerns, reduced motivation, as well as reduced interaction with their coach or team mates. Substitutes also appeared to experience pressure to perform well once substituted on to play, either from themselves or from their coach. Despite this, some substitutes managed to perform well once substituted on to play whilst others did not. Based on these observations I was interested in finding out if negative psychological responses were a common occurrence in substitute players and more specifically whether elevated competitive state anxiety could be a reason why some substitutes play well when substituted on to play whilst others do not. This lead me to investigate literature addressing the substitute role in team sports and this search identified that there was little research that has specifically investigated the experiences of substitutes, and practically none that explains why some substitutes may find their role difficult. However, the literature that does exist indicates that the substitute role in team sports could be threatening and detrimental to athlete satisfaction. Therefore, this sparse incomplete understanding of the substitute experience and my own personal interest in the effect of team selection on substitutes provided the impetus for this thesis. In order to begin to understand substitutes' experiences in football it is important to be aware of the logistical nature of team selection as governed by the rules of the sport, and the potential consequences that it may have for substitute players.

According to Davids, Lees, and Burwitz (2000) team selection is performed by coaches who are aware of the potential ability of each player thus they select players who they believe will facilitate success in a competitive environment. In Association Football (also known as soccer) coaches can only select eleven players to start a game and those that are not selected are called substitute players. Substitute players must sit on a bench along the side of the pitch from where they can be substituted into the game at any moment. Coaches typically select players they perceive to have the greatest ability to start a game and only make substitutions for tactical reasons or to replace an injured player. During each game coaches can only make three substitutions, therefore unlike roll-on-roll-off substitutions in field hockey, ice hockey or basketball, substitute players are not always utilised by coaches for fear of upsetting the balance of the team. As a result becoming a substitute player is often devalued by football players; according to Anshel, Kim, Kim, Chang, and Eom (2001) players fear being demoted to a non-starter (substitute) and report feeling concerned about returning to the game after being benched (substituted). This concern may be associated with the fact that some performers have reported becoming a substitute player as a source of stress in football (Anshel et al., 2001; Holt & Hogg, 2002; Woodman & Hardy, 2001). This is in line with research by Blinde and Stratta (1992) who reported that any unexpected or uncontrollable situation that inhibits or prevents an athlete from competing and demonstrating competence may be extremely stressful.

Competition provides sport performers with an opportunity to demonstrate competence and maintain athletic identity (Elliot & Conroy, 2005), thus when a performer is inhibited from competing they experience negative emotional reactions (Blinde & Stratta, 1992). Research has identified examples of such situations to include the athlete, being 'cut' from the team or suffering a career ending injury (Blinde & Stratta, 1992; Mainwaring, 1999). Furthermore, in addition to simply preventing an athlete from performing, team selection may also indicate to that player that they are not good enough to warrant a place as a starter, and that there is potentially a player who has been perceived by the coach

as being more deserving of their starting position. Wang, Callaghan and Goldfine (2001) state that there are quite often differences in the substitutes' and coaches' perceptions of the athlete's skill level, leading players to become stressed by the belief that they should be playing and that their coach has made the wrong decision. This could result in a variety of reactions depending on the player (Jowett, Paull, Pensgaard, Hoegmo, & Riise, 2005; Mainwaring, 1999), which may be similar to reactions seen in injured athletes since both athletes (substitute and the injured player) are involuntarily prevented from playing (Heil, 1993; Leddy, Lambert, & Ogles, 1994; Mc Donald & Hardy, 1990). Research has reported that athletes' psychological reactions to injury include anger, confusion, loneliness, depression, anxiety, reduced self-concept, reduced self-esteem and commitment (Heil, 1993; Leddy, Lambert, & Ogles, 1994; Mc Donald & Hardy, 1990). Furthermore, Mainwaring (1999) found that injured athletes tended to feel isolated and estranged from their teams and their sport when prevented from playing. However, a major difference between an injured player and a substitute player is the fact that a player who is not injured but becomes a substitute may be prevented from playing based on his/her coach's perception of the player's ability. It could therefore be argued that becoming a substitute when not injured may be more stressful since the player is physically fit to play but has not been selected.

It could also cause the substituted player to worry about the coach's perception of his/her ability or initiate trust problems within their relationship (Jowett et al., 2005). According to Jowett et al. (2005) there must be trust and shared understanding between the coach and athlete in order for the relationship to be successful. This may be exacerbated by the suggestion that coaches provide more attention and recognition to high ability players than to lesser ability players (Gilbert, Trundel, & Haughian, 1999). It has been reported that coaches demonstrate less tendency to initiate interpersonal contact with substitute players (Wang et al., 2001, Gilbert et al., 1999) fostering a lack of understanding of coaches' expectations and perceptions of players' abilities. This may be problematic

since Woodman and Hardy (2001) stated that organisational stressors such as poor interpersonal relationships may result in sub-optimal preparation for competition. As a result there seems to be the potential for a great deal of misunderstanding, frustration and uncertainty related to the role of the substitute.

As well as lack of communication affecting the coach-substitute relationship the substitute role may also result in role ambiguity and athlete dissatisfaction (Shelly & Sherman, 1997). Lack of role ambiguity is an antecedent of athlete satisfaction (Eys, Carron, Bray, & Beauchamp, 2003) and is influenced by athletic identity, reduced control and enhanced perceived threat, furthermore, role ambiguity is related to competitive state anxiety (Beauchamp, Bray, Eys, & Carron, 2003; Carron, 2002). Furthermore, if substitutes interpret that they have a subordinate relationship with their coach because of their playing status, there may be further consequences as they are more likely to experience reduced motivation, self-esteem, satisfaction and enjoyment (Jowett et al., 2005). This supports Dosil's (2006) recent proposal that there is a need for sport psychologists to provide encouragement and enhance motivation in football players who become a substitute. This statement also serves to highlight the substitute role as one of potential concern in sport thus warranting greater research attention than it currently is afforded.

Therefore it is logical to suggest that a substitute, depending on how they react to their status, may experience dissatisfaction with athletic status, role ambiguity, poor social support and team cohesion, reduced perceptions of control and increased perceived threat. However, substitute players may also be susceptible to elevated anxiety, as literature has suggested that factors such as team selection that are beyond an athletes' control or threatening to performance can cause elevated state anxiety (Gould, Jackson, & Finch, 1993; Jones, 1995; Martens, Vealey, & Burton, 1990a; Scanlan, Ravizza, & Stein, 1989; Woodman & Hardy, 2001). State anxiety is an emotional response that has been

consistently linked to impaired performance in sport (Burton, 1988; Chapman, Lane, Brierley, & Terry, 1997; Highlen & Bennett, 1979; Jones, Swain & Hardy, 1993; Parfitt & Pates, 1999; Rodrigo, Luisardo, & Pereira, 1990; Woodman & Hardy, 2003). One explanation for the anxiety-performance relationship is the cognitive interference theory (Sarason, 1988) which states that when athletes are anxious they become distracted by worrying and intrusive thoughts rather than focussing on the task at hand (Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 2001; Sarason, 1988). Additionally, high anxiety has been linked to reduced processing and storage capacity of the working memory thus resulting in reduced performance effectiveness (Eysenk & Calvo, 1992). However, Martens, Burton, Vealey, Bump and Smith (1990b) suggested that high self-confidence protects against the effects of state anxiety whereby a confident performer is less likely to experience elevated anxiety. If this is the case, then low self-confidence potentially brought about as a result of being a substitute could cause substitute players to experience enhanced state anxiety, which might help explain the anecdotal observation that some substitutes find it difficult to play well once substituted into the game.

Overall, it appears that there are a lot of potentially negative consequences of being a substitute player in team sports. However, there is a dearth of research investigating the impact of team selection and becoming a substitute on the players' experiences. Thus the aim of this research was to investigate the substitute experience with a specific focus on perceived stressors, psychological reactions and interpersonal relationships experienced by substitute players. To achieve this, study one consisted of an initial exploration of the substitute experience using a qualitative approach. This preliminary study investigated the substitute role reporting experiences pertinent to substitute players. It also specifically examined the extent to which anxiety was experienced by substitutes due to reduced perceived control (c.f. Jones, 1995) and increased perceived threat (c.f. Martens et al., 1990a). Key findings revealed that substitutes experienced dissatisfaction, negative emotions, reduced perceived control, perceived threat, elevated anxiety, poor coach interaction, and self-

presentation concerns. Substitutes also reported organisational and competitive stressors, thus they perceived the substitute role to be stressful. These findings were followed up in subsequent studies (studies 2, 3 and 4) to generate a thorough understanding of the substitute experience.

That is, study one identified that substitutes reported experiencing various emotional responses, self-presentation concerns and competitive state anxiety in response to becoming a substitute player.

Therefore, the aim of study two was to compare substitutes and starter players with specific reference to mood, self-presentation concerns and competitive anxiety in order to ascertain whether or not changes to these three factors were more likely to occur in substitute than in starter players. Study three explored the finding from study one that football players experience less interaction with their coach when they become a substitute player, and investigated the impact that playing status had on the coach-substitute relationship.

Finally as the three initial studies examined substitutes' thoughts (study 1-3), emotions (study 1 and 2) and behaviours (study 1 and 3), the purpose of study 4 was to investigate the effect of cognitive behavioural strategies to promote more positive thoughts, emotions and behaviours in substitute players. Specifically, study four examined the effects of three cognitive intervention strategies on mood, self-presentation and competitive anxiety in substitute players. Furthermore, this study was longitudinal in order to further examine findings from study two and study three that self-presentation concerns and the coach-athlete relationship may deteriorate the more often a player becomes a substitute.

Chapter 2: Literature Review for Study 1

A preliminary literature search (Table 2.1) revealed that eleven studies have been carried out that directly investigated the substitute phenomenon (Albinson & Hall 1999; Grove, Fish, Eklund, 2004; Hansen, 2003; Mandell, 1995; Munroe; Petrie, 1993; Rotella & Newburg, 1989; Smith, 1983; Simeone, 1987; Teipel, 1988; Wang et al., 2001). In addition, seven studies have either indirectly related their findings to the substitute role, or it is possible to infer from their findings that a substitute may experience certain responses (e.g., coping, stress, dissatisfaction, anxiety; Anshel Jamieson, & Raviv, 2001; Holt & Hogg, 2002; Kirkby & Liu, 1999; Morgan, 1980; Neu, 1995; Passer, 1983; Sewell & Edmondson, 1996).

Regardless of the specific aim of each research study, a common theme appears to be that substitutes are vulnerable to stress and subsequently a multitude of negative emotions (e.g., anxiety and dissatisfaction) that could affect their mental preparation for performance. Morgan's (1980) work appears to be the earliest piece of literature that refers to substitutes, and although he reports that starters may experience stress differently from substitutes, he does not provide any suggestion as to why this may be the case, and did not discuss this in relation to the substitute role in detail. However, his writing is concerned with personality; therefore it could be assumed that Morgan (1980) believed that players in team sports became substitutes as a result of an underlying personality factor. One such factor may be trait anxiety, as a study by Smith (1983) found that 'all star' high status players (starters) had significantly lower trait anxiety than substitutes; unfortunately Smith (1983), like Morgan (1980), did not draw out implications for the substitute role. One explanation may be that players who are high trait anxious are more likely to be substituted since according to Passer (1983), high trait anxious players expect to play less well and experience greater shame, upset and criticism following poor performance. Therefore, high trait anxious players fail to perform well, become a

substitute, experience intense shame and upset, and consequently find it difficult to regain their status as a starting player. However, this can only be assumed, as although Passer's (1983) study included soccer players, it is not clear if any of them were substitutes. Rotella and Newburg (1989) carried out three case studies on a female lacrosse player, a male basketball player and a male professional soccer player in an attempt to provide an insight into what it feels like to be a substitute player. Rotella and Newburg (1989) believed that since athletes identify strongly with their chosen sports, there must exist some void or conflict when an athlete is uncontrollably and involuntarily forced to take on board a new status or identity. That is when relegated to the bench, players merely become 'benchwarmers', thus lose their identity to a certain degree and experience a negative psychological and emotional blow (Rotella & Newburg, 1989). All three performers reported that becoming a substitute can have a strong negative psychological impact. Rotella and Newburg (1989) stated that when an athlete is prevented from performing it results in feelings of bitterness and rejection.

Although this early research (Morgan, 1980, Passer, 1983; Smith, 1983) is mostly concerned with trait rather than state psychological factors that may directly affect performance, it serves to draw attention to the fact that substitutes and starters in team sports may not be homogeneous, thus the role of the substitute warrants further study. More specifically these authors highlight the need for research to investigate the substitute role and develop understanding of the various aspects that may be associated with it.

Table 2.1 Summary of studies that either directly or indirectly investigated the experiences of the ‘substitute’ player in team sports.

Author(s)	Year	Direct/Indirect Study of Substitutes	Psychological Characteristics Addressed
Morgan	1980	Indirect	Personality
Smith	1983	<i>Direct</i>	Trait Anxiety
Passer	1983	Indirect	Trait Anxiety
Simeone	1987	<i>Direct</i>	None. Substitutes’ contribution to goal scoring
Teipel	1988	<i>Direct</i>	Coach/Substitute Relationships
Rotella & Newburg	1989	<i>Direct</i>	Emotional response and Social Identity
Petrie	1993	<i>Direct</i>	Trait Anxiety, Coping
Kerth	1995	<i>Direct</i>	Coach advice for dealing with substitute players
Mandell	1995	<i>Direct</i>	Role Status
Neu	1995	Indirect	Team Selection and Satisfaction
Sewell & Edmundson	1996	Indirect	State Anxiety
Kirkby & Liu	1999	Indirect	Somatic State Anxiety, Confidence
Munroe et al.	1999	<i>Direct</i>	Effects of team selection on college athletes
Anshel et al.	2001	Indirect	Coping
Wang et al.	2001	<i>Direct</i>	Coach Interaction and Team Cohesion
Holt & Hogg	2002	Indirect	Stress, Satisfaction
Hansen	2003	<i>Direct</i>	Coping
Grove et al.	2004	<i>Direct</i>	Athletic Identity and Team Selection

According to Endler (1981) different environments expose athletes to different stimuli, which can cause them to perceive and react differently. As substitutes are inactive watching the game unfold and starters are actively competing, it could be suggested that starter and substitute football players experience different competitive environments. However, this is speculation therefore there is a need to investigate what factors during competition, if any, are different for a player when they are a substitute in comparison with when they are a starter. It should also be established whether

substitutes perceive these factors as stressful. Research investigating sources of stress in sport has already reported that the act of becoming a substitute is in itself stressful and potentially threatening to performance (Anshel et al., 2001; Holt & Hogg 2002), therefore it may be speculated that situational factors associated with the substitute role could also be stressful.

2.1 Anxiety in Substitutes?

According to Lazarus (1991), stress is experienced when athletes appraise their situation as harmful or threatening to performance, or when they experience a deficit between situational demands and coping capabilities. Subjective appraisal of an event or situation as being physically or psychologically threatening is likely to result in anxiety (Lazarus, 1991; Spielberger, 1972). The greater the amount of threat perceived the more intense the anxiety reaction, and, the longer the person perceives threat, the more enduring the anxiety reaction may be. This suggests that by perceiving their role as threatening (Anshel et al., 2001; Holt & Hogg, 2002) substitutes are likely to experience increased state anxiety prior to performing. There is a need therefore to understand why or what causes athletes to perceive their environment as threatening. This is of particular importance as according to Dunn and Nielsen (1993) in order for anxiety theory to develop in competitive sport the characteristics of threatening situations must be determined.

Kirkby and Liu's (1999) study provides an example of such research with findings indicating that certain sports and certain positions may be more threatening than others. They compared athletes in team sports with individual athletes and concluded that individual athletes had higher somatic anxiety and significantly lower self-confidence. This could be related to the fact that team athletes benefit from team cohesion which can decrease anxiety intensity or cause anxiety to be interpreted as facilitative to performance (Eys et al., 2003b). It may be hypothesised that substitutes perceive themselves to be individual athletes within a group setting since according to Wang et al. (2001) they

are not treated as part of the team before the game. In addition Wang et al. (2001) indicated that goalkeepers have significantly higher levels of anxiety than players from any other position. Sewell and Edmondson (1996) suggest that this may be due to the fact that a major demand of this position is to perform during short periods of activity in between long periods of inactivity. It may be that substitutes are similar to goalkeepers in this respect in that they may be called upon to perform for a short period of time following a long period of inactivity (Wang et al., 2001). This may also provide support for Martens et al.'s (1990a) statement that individual sports players have higher state anxiety because of greater evaluation threat. Goalkeepers may be viewed as individual players due to the evaluation of threat associated with the position (Sewell & Edmondson, 1996). This may sometimes be the case with substitutes as they are expected to make a significant contribution to the game when they come on to play. Therefore, due to the specificity of their role (Kirkby & Liu, 1999), potentially not feeling part of the team (Wang et al., 2001), and the demands placed upon them (Sewell & Edmondson, 1996) substitutes may interpret their role as threatening, thus may subsequently experience anxiety.

Along with threat, control has also been considered an important factor influencing anxiety and thus performance. Jones (1995) states that control is a perceived degree of control that the performer exerts over both themselves and their environment. Jones (1995) developed this conceptualisation further to satisfy more recent findings that anxiety may be interpreted as either facilitative or debilitating, stating that anxiety may be interpreted as being either harmful or beneficial to performance depending on the degree of perceived control over both the environment and the self. It has been hypothesised that individuals who have the least opportunity to control themselves and their environment are prone to worry or cognitive anxiety (Borkovec, Metzger, & Pruzinsky, 1992; 1986; Eysenck, 1992) which will be interpreted as debilitating (Jones, 1995). Consequently, Jones' (1995) model appears to be appropriate to help explain competitive anxiety in substitutes, since depending

on their appraisal of their situation, substitutes may perceive that they have significantly less control than they would have had they started (Hansen, 2003).

2.2 Role of Anxiety and Definitions

As stated above anxiety is an emotional reaction to a stimulus perceived as threatening or to reduced perceived control over the environment (Spielberger, 1972) and can be a trait or state response.

According to Martens et al. (1990b) trait anxiety (A-trait) is an individual's predisposed tendency to perceive their environmental demands as threatening, resulting in an anxiety response. State anxiety (A-state) is a momentary anxiety response to specific situational demands caused by a discrepancy between demand and response capabilities. A-trait is a relatively stable characteristic and A-state is predicted by more immediate factors which pose a threat to the individual (Wandzilak, Potter, & Lorentzen, 1982). High competitive A-trait individuals have a tendency to perceive competitive situations as threatening, resulting in an elevated A-state reaction. It is feasible therefore to expect that trait anxious individuals experiencing changes to their competitive environment in comparison to the environment they usually experience will have a greater tendency to perceive their environment as threatening thus responding with either a greater intensity or frequency of A-state.

According to the multidimensional theory of anxiety (Martens et al., 1990c), anxiety is also represented by different symptoms, either cognitive or somatic. Cognitive anxiety is the mental component of anxiety where the individual is consciously aware of worries and unpleasant feelings (Morris, Davis, & Hutchings, 1981), caused by negative expectations about success or by negative self-evaluation (Martens et al., 1990b). Somatic elements of the anxiety response represent awareness and interpretation of autonomic arousal, which includes symptoms such as rapid heart rate, shortness of breath, clammy hands, butterflies in the stomach and tense muscles (Martens et al., 1990b).

According to the Multidimensional theory (Martens et al., 1990c) there is a negative linear

relationship between cognitive anxiety and performance and a curvilinear relationship between somatic anxiety and performance. The fact that anxiety can evoke such strong subjective feelings, responses and implications for performance caused Lazarus (2000) to report it as being “one of the most important emotions in human life” (p. 243). According to Masters’ (1992) conscious processing hypothesis, elevated anxiety may cause reduced performance because it causes athletes to internalise their focus of attention on skills relevant to the task. However in doing so this interferes with automatic processing of skills thus performance suffers. Whilst this hypothesis offers interesting explanation for anxiety causing reduced performance, research investigating the anxiety-performance hypotheses has been equivocal (Craft, Magyar, & Becker 2003; Woodman & Hardy, 2003). For example, a study by Rodrigo, Lusiardo, and Pereira (1990) on male professional soccer players found that both cognitive and somatic anxiety had a significantly negative correlation with performance score (operationalised as the mean subjective and objective evaluation scores). However, Maynard, Hemmings and Warwick-Evans (1995) suggest that the anxiety performance hypothesis can not be supported for semi-professional soccer players, since they are competing in an open skill sport whereby various other psychological variables may intervene. This proposal is supported by a recent meta-analysis by Craft et al. (2003) who stated that the relationship between anxiety and performance varies depending on whether participants are involved in open or closed skill sports (Kleine, 1990; Terry, 1995; Terry & Youngs, 1996). Furthermore, initial research on anxiety was based on intensity alone (Roderigo et al., 1990; Smith, 1983) which, according to Jones and Swain (1992), is a major limiting factor to understanding the effect of anxiety on performance.

In addition, anxiety may not always be interpreted as being debilitating to performance. There has been a lot of research that has identified that the nature of the relationship between anxiety and performance is dependent on individual interpretation (Eubank, 1997; Jones, Hatton, Swain, 1994; Wiggins & Brustad, 1996). That is, research suggests that individual differences in A-state are not

always represented by measures of intensity instead direction (i.e., interpretation of anxiety) plays a very important role. Positive perceptions of anxiety are facilitative for performance and negative perceptions are debilitating for performance. In addition, Wiggins and Brustad (1996) found that anxiety perceived as facilitative before competition was associated with higher expectations of performance. Furthermore research has attempted to identify factors which may influence anxiety interpretation concluding that high self-confidence and ability to cope with perceived stressors may lead to a more facilitative interpretation of anxiety (Jones, 1995; Hanton, Mellalieu, & Hall, 2004, Jones, Hanton & Swain, 1994; Mellalieu, Hanton & Jones, 2003). Therefore, it appears that it is more important to examine and understand anxiety direction/interpretation than anxiety intensity.

However, despite this recognition of the importance of the direction of anxiety, an effort must be made to understand specific situational factors that induce anxiety (Dunn & Nielsen, 1996; Wrisberg & Pein, 1992). Without studies that attempt to define the factors that influence anxiety a complete theory of competitive sport anxiety will remain limited as according to Dunn and Nielsen (1996) it is fundamental to consider influencing factors within the competitive situation when developing theoretical models dealing with emotional responses. Based on early work by, and recommendations from, Sokal (1974), Dunn and Nielsen (1996) sought to classify factors that bring about anxiety responses (although it must be noted that these authors did not consider direction of anxiety or its different components, cognitive and somatic anxiety). Four sports were examined: basketball; field hockey; ice hockey; and, soccer and were selected due to their similarities and the fact that they are all invasion games. Results highlighted the following situations as anxiety inducing, ongoing game situations such as game/score/time; criticality of situations; coach related situations and, miscellaneous factors (audience, officiating, team mates and opponents). On inspection of these factors it appears that most are beyond athletes' control. Further studies have identified team selection, (Gould et al., 1993; Scanlan et al., 1989; Woodman & Hardy, 2001), and perceived

readiness (Hanton & Jones, 1995; Jones, Swain, & Cale, 1990; Lane, Rodger, & Karageorghis, 1997; Lane, Terry, & Karageorghis, 1995b) as causes of anxiety in athletes. This is interesting since substitute players do not know when they will be substituted into the game, therefore, if they are not sufficiently prepared they may experience low perceived readiness, thus increased state anxiety, however this is speculation and further investigation is necessary.

2.3 The Impact of Perceived Threat and Perceived Control on Anxiety

2.3.1 Theory of Competitive Anxiety (Martens et al., 1990a).

Martens et al. (1990a) proposed a theory of competitive anxiety (Figure 2.1) in an attempt to predict levels of A-state among different individuals with varying A-trait in different competitive situations. The theory proposes that A-state is influenced by perceived threat, which is influenced by A-trait and the multiplicative interaction between two important factors: 1) perceived uncertainty of outcome and 2) perceived importance of outcome.

According to Martens et al. (1990a) both factors must be present for threat to exist. This prediction is based on the concept that the objective environment includes particular factors, not identified by the theory, that influence perception of threat and thus levels of A-state. Moreover, these factors also vary with each objective competitive situation, based on previous experiences and individual differences (Martens et al., 1990a), resulting in varied perception of threat.

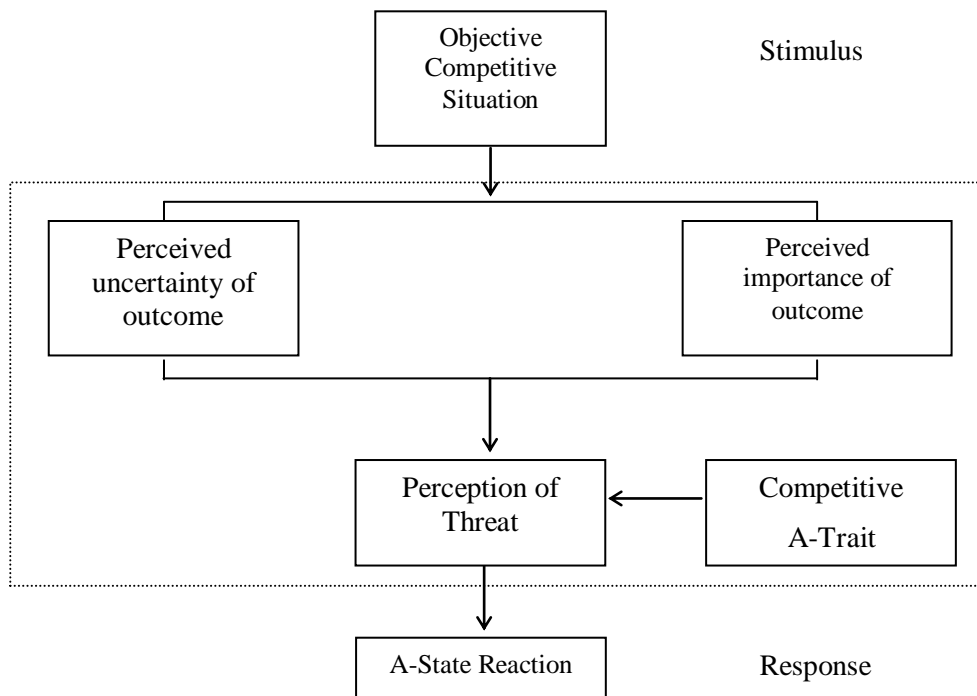


Figure 2.1 A theory of competitive anxiety (Martens et al., 1990a).

‘Outcome’ has been defined by Martens et al. (1990a, p. 219) as “obtaining a favorable or unfavorable evaluation with the standard defined by the competitive process to determine a winner or a loser”, but they also state that there are additional potential outcomes other than winning or losing, for example, being a regular player or a starter. Perceived threat increases when the outcome is perceived as important but uncertainty as to whether the outcome can be achieved is uncertain (Martens et al., 1990a). Importance is “the extent to which a person values attaining a favorable outcome” (Martens et al., 1990a, p. 222). Martens et al. (1990a) are careful to state that uncertainty of outcome is not perceived as threatening in all competitive situations, as it may be perceived as challenge. For example, more experienced athletes have access to more information concerning a situation of uncertainty based on past experience. Thus they are better equipped to judge whether or not the situation is threatening to performance and are likely to experience lower A-state than less

experienced athletes (Martens et al., 1990a). Furthermore challenge appraisal has been associated with more confident coping expectancy, lower perceptions of threat, and higher positive emotion (Skinner & Brewer, 2002). However, when individuals lack information regarding their own performance potential it may become difficult to estimate the probability of success at a particular outcome (uncertainty) resulting in perceived threat.

Marchant, Morris, and Anderson (1998) highlight the fact that up until 1998 only two published studies had been carried out to test the theory and these appear flawed. Firstly, Lox (1992) concluded that 'uncertainty' was related to cognitive anxiety and 'importance' to somatic anxiety. However, Marchant et al. (1998) believed these results to be inconclusive since measurements were taken on only one occasion. Multiple testing would have provided a more realistic understanding of the relationship between constructs since importance of outcome and uncertainty of outcome are susceptible to change depending on the objective competitive situation.

Secondly, Prapavessis, Cox, and Brooks (1996) measured the components of A-state, perceived uncertainty of outcome and perceived importance of outcome. Structural equation modelling was then used to analyse the results, which indicated that threat did not have a significant effect on somatic anxiety; however, it did have a minimal effect on cognitive anxiety, offering some support for Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory. Prapavessis et al. (1996) did propose an alternative model that was supported by the data. This model included the hypothesis that A-trait can directly affect A-state, in addition to perceived threat. However, despite the fact that A-trait now made a significant contribution to A-state, A-trait had no effect on perceived threat and perceived threat had no impact on A-state. Prapavessis et al. (1996) concluded that the reason for this limited support might have been that measures used to determine outcome uncertainty and importance were not appropriate. They also stated that threat is not simply a function of uncertainty and outcome importance thus the process leading to the perception of threat is not as simple as that outlined by Martens et al. (1990b).

There may in fact be further elements in the environment that contribute to the perception of threat in addition to uncertainty and importance of outcome (Prapavessis, 1996; Marchant et al., 1998).

Marchant et al. (1998) carried out a study to investigate how the construct of perceived importance of outcome influences A-state. Results of their study identified that both perceived importance and A-trait are significant predictors of A-state, offering partial support for the theory. However, despite this they stated that the theory needs to be developed further and tested fully as all constructs have not been included at once in any single study. Marchant et al. (1998) only included perceived importance of outcome in their analysis of the theory of competitive anxiety which is restrictive since according to Martens et al. (1990a) both importance of outcome and perceived uncertainty of outcome must be present for threat to exist. Furthermore, the inclusion of factors such as cognitive and somatic anxiety would quite possibly improve the prediction of A-state, as highlighted previously by Lox (1992) and Prapavessis et al. (1996). Williams, Frank, and Lester (2000) also tested this model studying the relationship between attitude towards winning (importance of outcome), certainty of success, and competitive anxiety in soccer and volleyball players (including substitutes and starters). Williams et al. (2000) found no support for the theory and did not offer any reason as to why this might be the case. One possible explanation could be that perceived threat is multidimensional and since perceived threat was not measured, it may not be possible to predict anxiety based on these three factors alone, as suggested by Prapavessis et al. (1996) and Marchant et al. (1998). Another reason may be that, as both contact and non contact sports were included in Williams et al.'s (2000) study there are many possible situational factors that could result in different perceptions of threat in these different sports. This is supported by Dunn and Nielsen (1993) who stated that different environments result in exposure to different stimuli, causing players to perceive and react differently to these environments.

2.3.2 A Control Model of Debilitative and Facilitative Anxiety (Jones, 1995)

The second model of interest in this research is Jones' (1995) control model of debilitative and facilitative anxiety (Figure 2.2), which resulted from a critical overview of the developments and issues in competitive anxiety research. Jones' (1995) work was directly influenced by Carver and Scheier (1988) believing it imperative to consider anxiety direction, emphasising the fact that some individuals may perceive anxiety intensity to have a positive effect on performance whilst others may perceive it to have a negative affect. Furthermore, his work highlights the factors which predict facilitative and debilitative anxiety. As Figure 2.2 shows, unlike Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory, Jones' (1995) model distinguishes between facilitative and debilitative A-state reactions.

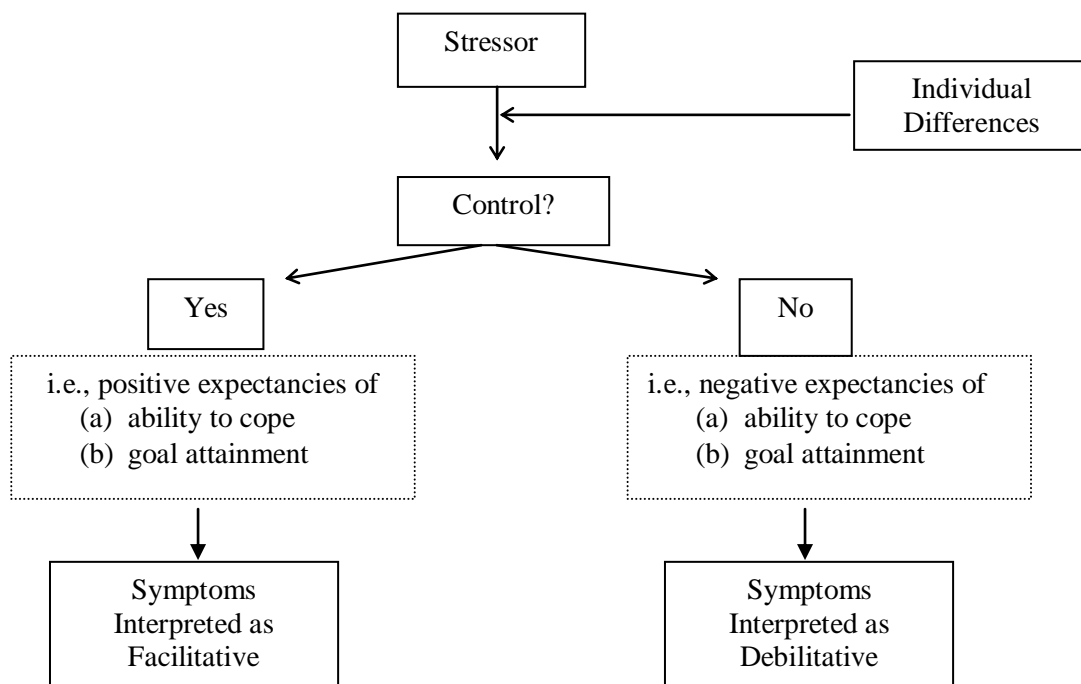


Figure 2.2 A control model of debilitative and facilitative competitive state anxiety (Jones, 1995).

The interpretation of anxiety as either facilitative or debilitative for performance is based on the following influential relationships. Initially the stressor in the competitive environment influences the degree of control an individual believes they have over both themselves and their environment. The

degree of control is also influenced by individual differences, a factor in this model that lacks definition and which will be discussed further below. If an individual perceives themselves as possessing control, then according to the model they will have positive expectancies of being able to cope and attain their goals. As a result, anxiety symptoms are interpreted as facilitative for performance, and the individual responds to anxiety with self-focus, task engagement, enhanced persistence, effort and possibly enhanced performance. However, negative expectancy of coping and goal attainment results in a self-deprecatory focus causing anxiety to be experienced as debilitating (Carver & Scheier, 1988).

Coping is, according to Anshel et al. (2001), a conscious reaction to stressful events in order to reduce potential for harm, and enhance resources for dealing with the situation. Anshel et al. (2001) also state that coping is influenced by various personal and situational factors, thus lending support for the individual differences construct in the model, despite the fact that Anshel et al. (2001) do not expand on these factors.

This model is not solely reliant on coping; a second focus of Jones' (1995) model is on behaviour in sport being directed toward attaining goals and expectancies of goal attainment. Therefore, Jones (1995) believes that expectancy of goal attainment, influenced by control, also affects direction, or interpretation, of anxiety, as either debilitating or facilitative. Results from a study by Jones and Hanton (1996) help to illustrate this. They found that individuals with positive expectancy of goal attainment experienced anxiety as being more facilitative than debilitating, and more facilitative than did individuals with negative expectancy.

Research testing Jones' (1995) model is extremely limited however, some support does exist from earlier studies. Earlier work has found that individuals who have little confidence in their ability to

control both themselves and their environment will experience debilitating anxiety (Borkovec et al., 1986; Carver & Scheier, 1988; Eysenck & Calvo, 1992; Jones & Hanton, 1994). More recently however, Jones and Hanton (1996) examined anxiety direction as a function of goal expectation in swimmers and found that positive goal attainment expectancy only predicted cognitive anxiety but not somatic anxiety offering partial support for Jones' (1995) model. However, as this research was based on swimmers who participate in a closed environment and the nature of goals set and perceptions of control may differ in athletes who compete in open skilled sports compared to closed skilled sports (Hanton, O'Brien & Mellalieu, 2003) Hanton et al. (2003) examined Jones' (1995) further using elite and non elite athletes from various open skilled sports. Hanton et al. (2003) also examined skill level and self-confidence as key individual difference variables influencing anxiety interpretation. However, results only provided moderate effect sizes for skill level as an individual difference variable. In fact since elite performers also reported debilitating anxiety interpretation, it may be the case that goal attainment expectancy is a more important mediator of anxiety direction than skill level alone (Hanton et al., 2003). Furthermore, Hanton et al. (2003) concluded that whilst little is known about the exact mechanisms by which perceived control outlined in Jones' (1995) model is obtained, their results offer some support for positive goal attainment expectancy leading to a facilitative interpretation of anxiety.

It is clear that this model, like Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory, will help to advance anxiety research since it is focused primarily on predicting anxiety, and not simply illustrating the relationship between anxiety and performance. It considers the direction of anxiety rather than intensity alone, and affords consideration to individual differences. The idea that individual difference factors are important to consider is emphasised by Jones (1995) who stated that by studying both personal and situational variables anxiety research may be developed further than its current focus. However, since Jones (1995) did not specify the construct 'individual differences' in the model, existing research is

utilised below to offer some potential individual difference factors that appear to influence anxiety direction, thus it is possible that they may be integrated into Jones' (1995) model. Potential individual difference factors include skill level (elite and non elite); positive and negative affect, and locus of control. An explanation of each can be found below.

Skill level: Jones et al. (1994) found no differences between elite and non-elite swimmers in terms of intensity of cognitive and somatic A-state symptoms, however, elite performers interpreted both states as being more facilitative for performance than did the non elite performers. Skill level (and more specifically competitive status; elite and non elite) is also supported more recently by O' Brien, Hanton, and Mellalieu (2002) as an individual difference factor, as they found that elite athletes interpreted cognitive anxiety as more facilitative for performance than did non-elite athletes.

Positive and negative affect: Positive affect is a mood dimension that reflects pleasurable engagement (Crocker, 1997) and negative affect is a general dimension of subjective stress. Jones and Hanton (1996) found that athletes who were high in trait levels of positive affect and low in trait levels of negative affect, reported their anxiety as being more facilitative than athletes low in trait positive affect and high in trait negative affect, which suggests the potential importance of trait affect as an individual difference factor in the model. This is further supported by the results of a recent study by O'Brien et al. (2002) who found that a group of elite performers with high levels of positive affect demonstrated the greatest degree of facilitative cognitive anxiety.

Locus of control: Locus of control is a trait construct concerned with the degree to which people report a sense of personal control over rewards and reinforcements (Kerr & Goss, 1997; Rotter, 1966). Results from a study by Ntoumanis and Jones (1998) showed that although there were no significant differences in intensity of cognitive and somatic anxiety, between those possessing an

internal and an external locus of control, internals viewed their trait anxiety as significantly more facilitative and less debilitating than externals. Individuals with an internal locus of control perceive positive and negative events in their lives as a result of their own actions (Rotter, 1966), and as a result believe that they have personal control over their actions and view anxiety as facilitative (Ntoumanis & Jones, 1998). Individuals with an external locus of control however, perceive positive or negative events as beyond their personal control (Rotter, 1966), thus they possess negative interpretations of their anxiety (Ntoumanis & Jones, 1998).

Both Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory and Jones' (1995) model offer a worthwhile basis for attempts to predict anxiety based on the following key constructs: perceived uncertainty of outcome; perceived importance of outcome; perceived threat; competitive A-trait; individual differences; control; expectancy of ability to cope, and, expectancy of goal attainment. However, to date these theories have gained only partial support from research. This may be explained by the fact that studies have failed to include all the stated constructs in a single investigation or, the measures used to assess these constructs have been inadequate (e.g. Marchant et al., 1998; Lox, 1992). Thus, this research is limited since it is perceived threat that directly determines A-state, and not perceived importance of outcome and perceived uncertainty of outcome. The effects of these constructs are indirect, being mediated by perceptions of threat. Research support for Jones' (1995) model is similarly limited to the extent that all key constructs were not included in any one study; moreover, this model has only been examined twice since it was devised.

The methodological flaws in studies examining Martens et al.'s theory (1990a) and Jones' (1995) model, along with the fact that both of these theoretical approaches to anxiety have received only partial support, emphasise the need for further investigation of their constructs. Moreover, as all previous studies have been quantitative, a qualitative approach providing detailed insight into substitutes' experiences may support or refute the importance of each construct in explaining anxiety.

Furthermore, it appears suitable to consider both Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory and Jones' (1995) model in the same investigation since according to Lazarus' (1991) stress response model, negative emotions are experienced when performers perceive themselves to have little control over eliminating or reducing perceived threat. Moreover, Craft et al. (2003) proposed that reduced control over performance also leads to increased uncertainty and increased state anxiety intensity, suggesting that perceived control and perceived threat appear to be theoretically linked. Thus anxiety may be experienced by substitutes who perceive their status to be stressful as a result of perceived uncertainty diminished control and perceived threat.

Extrapolating from previous research it can be suggested that becoming a substitute player has the potential to initiate stress (Anshel et al., 2001; Holt & Hogg, 2002), cause perceived threat (Dunn & Nielsen, 1996; Prapavessis, 1996; Williams et al., 2000) and result in a negative emotional response (Hansen, 2003; Rotella & Newburg, 1989; Wang et al., 2001). However, these proposals are yet to be exclusively examined in research or confirmed by substitute players in competitive sport. That is, existing research in team sports has focused on starters, or considered substitutes and starters as a homogeneous group; thus, there is a limited knowledge base about substitutes as a distinct population group. Nonetheless, according to Endler (1981), different environments result in exposure to different stimuli, causing players to perceive and react differently. Furthermore, a single situation can possess multidimensional threat characteristics (Dunn & Nielsen, 1993) therefore, it is important to state that as well as experiencing a different environment from starters, some substitutes may perceive their environment as more threatening than others. Therefore, it may be the case that substitute players, who are exposed to different environmental stimuli interpret their environment to be more threatening and stressful than it would be if they were selected to start the game. Therefore, the main aims of this study is to: 1) investigate the substitute experience and ascertain whether or not it is perceived as stressful, 2) identify what factors (if any) within a substitute's environment may be

perceived as stressful, and 3) understand substitutes' emotional responses to their environment using an inductive exploratory approach. In addition to these aims, this study will also investigate whether or not substitutes experience increased anxiety in response to the stressors they are exposed to. More specifically, this research will also investigate whether substitutes experience increased perceived threat and reduced perceived control in response to their playing status, which according to Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory and Jones' (1995) model will lead to elevated state anxiety. In order to do this a deductive approach will be used to examine whether constructs identified in Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory and Jones' (1995) model can explain the anxiety response in substitutes.

Thus, this study will address the following research questions; Do football players report becoming a substitute as stressful, and what factors do they perceive to be stressful as a consequence of becoming a substitute player? What emotions do substitute players experience in response to stressors? Do substitutes experience perceived threat, reduced control and increased state anxiety?

2.4 Research Methods for Study 1

Since there is limited body of research investigating the substitute role, a qualitative and more specifically a phenomenological approach was deemed appropriate to understand how substitutes interpret their experiences. According to Kerry and Armour (2000, p. 4) "the aim of phenomenology is to re-examine experiences that have been over looked or taken for granted". Thus a phenomenological approach was used in order to facilitate a thorough initial investigation of an overlooked phenomenon – the 'substitute role'.

The aim of phenomenological enquiry varies depending on the philosophical branch in question. A Husserlian or Ontological approach studies the consciously experienced, or objects or situations towards which the consciousness is directed in order to enhance understanding (Kerry & Armour,

2000). In contrast whilst Heidegger's Existential Approach does not develop a formula of understanding but illuminates the conditions in which the understanding takes place (Gadamer, 1976).

Husserlian phenomenology (Husserl, 1859-1938) is concerned with obtaining the meaning of human experiences through a process called phenomenological reduction. Phenomenological reduction consists of using textual language to describe what is observed and how it is experienced. In other words developing an understanding of the relationship between the phenomenon and the individual concerned (Kerry & Armour, 2000). Phenomenology is based on an epistemological approach which allows the researcher to clarify experiences using conscious awareness and reflective intuition to help describe these experiences (Morse, 1994). According to this epistemological approach it is essential that the researcher sets aside all preconceived notions in a process called 'bracketing' thus relying on intuition and imagination to obtain an unbiased picture of the experience (Creswell, 1998), before reduction can take place.

In addition, based on the assumptions that there are a multitude of potential factors that can influence the psychology of the substitute, and that Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory, Jones' (1995) model may help explain anxiety response in substitutes, it was determined that inductive and deductive analysis of interview data would best serve in helping to understand the psychological experiences in football substitutes. Although a combination of both types of analysis is seldom used, Bradley (1993) stated that it is a legitimate and appropriate method. Furthermore, the flexibility of qualitative data analysis allows for creativity (Locke, 1989) thus facilitating the use of both types of analysis.

2.5 Method for Study 1

2.5.1 Participants

Participants were male and female football substitutes (N=20), fifteen were semi-professional (12 males and 3 females) and five were professional (5 males). In some cases participants volunteered to take part in the study, in others, contact was made with their club requesting permission to interview players who fulfilled the study criteria. That is, purposive sampling was used whereby specific inclusion criteria guided selection of participants. These criteria were: the level of competition (only semi-professional or professional players were included) and time lapsed since being a substitute player (only players who had been a substitute within three months of participating in this study were included). According to Ritchie and Lewis (2003) this particular kind of purposive sampling is called theoretical sampling as participants are purposively selected based on their potential to contribute to the development and testing of theoretical constructs. Although there have been varying numbers of participants used for qualitative studies in the sport psychology literature; theoretical sampling typically continues until theoretical saturation is reached and no new information is forthcoming (Biddle et al., 2001; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003), which was the approach adopted in the current study. Cote, Samels, Baria, and Russell (1993) stress that collecting too much data to be analysed qualitatively increases the risk of error and since qualitative data collection is directed towards gaining individual perceptions of a phenomenon (Biddle, 2001) and not generalisation from the results, it is commonly carried out on the population to hand, with a relatively low participant number.

2.5.2 Procedures

University ethical approval was provided for this study.

2.5.3 Development of the interview schedule

The interview schedule (appendix 3) was developed as a result of completing both a bracketing interview and a pilot study.

2.5.4 Bracketing interview

Bracketing is a process by which the researcher attempts to identify their presuppositions about a phenomenon being studied then set them aside in order to develop an untarnished view of the phenomenon (Osborne, 1994). This reflective approach, according to Husserlian phenomenology, allows all assumptions to be removed by taking into consideration the researcher's consciousness concerning the phenomenon (Kerry & Armour, 2000). Thus theory can be generated from the standpoint of an observer who stands outside the situation (Koch, 1995). However, for the purpose of this research a bracketing interview was used in an attempt to acknowledge pre-understanding and existing knowledge in an attempt to reduce bias during the data analysis phase, thus fulfilling the aims of Husserlian phenomenology.

During the bracketing interview, the researcher was interviewed by an independent interviewer with five years of qualitative research experience, using the questions written by the researcher and intended to be used with the study participants. The interview lasted approximately 45 minutes and was transcribed verbatim (see Appendix 4). Questions that were repeated were removed from the schedule, and additional probe questions used by the independent interviewer were noted for later use.

2.5.5 Pilot study

Following this, a pilot study was carried out with five volunteers including three male (semi-professional n= 2, club level n=1) and two female (semi-professional n=2) football players. This was completed in order to ensure that the questions were appropriate and to eliminate any questions that

did not provide any beneficial information for this study. Each participant responded to all questions on the interview schedule, however, in many cases the order of questioning changed to some degree as the respondents were encouraged to speak freely about their experiences. In addition, topics raised by the respondents and not included in the original interview schedule were discussed and followed up in the same level of detail as those that were originally identified. Probing questions were also used to ensure complete understanding of comments made by the respondents. During the interviews respondents appeared relaxed and satisfied with the interview schedule, and when given the opportunity to provide additional information at the end of the interview, no further comments were offered.

2.5.6 Data collection

Each player participated in a semi-structured open-ended interview, which lasted between 25 and 45 minutes. Before being interviewed participants signed a consent form (appendix 2) and were informed of the interview protocol (appendix 1). Interviews were carried out at a convenient time for the participants at their training grounds on non-match days. All were ensured anonymity of both their personal identity and also that of their club especially when their responses were used in writing. Prior to being interviewed the participants were informed that the purpose of the interview was to understand how being a substitute affected performance and what, if anything, in their environment was different from being a starter. As in the pilot study, topics raised by the respondents and not included in the original interview schedule were discussed and followed up in the same level of detail as those that were originally identified. Appropriate probing questions were used to ensure complete understanding of comments made by the respondents. With the consent of each participant the interviews were tape recorded and subsequently transcribed verbatim.

2.6 Data Analysis

Both inductive and deductive content analysis were used to analyse interviews in this study. Content analysis is a term used to describe the process of analysing data and reducing them into meaningful themes or categories (Cote, Salmela, Baria, & Russell, 1993), however there are distinct differences between inductive and deductive analysis. That is, deductive analysis uses a set of pre-determined themes, categories or definitions to organise quotations (taken from transcripts), whereas an inductive approach allows themes and categories to emerge from the quotations and is not pre-determined (Cote, Salmela, Baria, & Russell, 1993; Scanlan, Ravizza & Stein, 1989).

Inductive analysis was conducted in order to address the first three aims of this study which were to: 1) investigate the substitute experience and ascertain whether or not it is perceived as stressful, 2) identify what factors (if any) within a substitute's environment may be perceived as stressful, and 3) to understand substitutes' emotional responses to their environment. This analysis involved categorisation of data themes that were not defined by previously determined concepts but instead were data driven. In order to ensure that this was the case information obtained during the bracketing interview was used to distinguish between the researcher's personal experiences and preconceptions and experiences that were pertinent to the substitutes in this study. That is, information was only included if it was a reoccurring theme in participants responses thus not driven by researcher bias.

In an attempt to further reduce researcher bias generated by studying the literature and establishing a theoretical understanding of the subject area (Krane et al., 1997), the literature review for this study was not extensively written until after the data were inductively analysed. That is, a rationale for this study was based on an initial search of the literature revealing that substitute players were an understudied population group within sport who nonetheless reported that becoming a substitute was potentially stressful and threatening to them, resulting in negative emotional responses including bitterness and rejection. Further reading and a comprehensive written account of this literature was

then suspended until inductive analysis was completed in the hoped that by limiting initial reading of the literature, it would reduce bias towards findings of existing research and allow true data driven statements to be identified using inductive data analysis.

Once data driven statements were identified they were coded according to the theme of the participant's statement. These themes were called raw data themes. Raw data themes were further categorised into lower order themes and finally general dimensions which were thought to represent the general feelings and reflections of the substitutes. Appendix 6 provides an example of inductive analysis carried out on participant A.

Deductive analysis was used to address the fourth aim of this study and involved the categorisation of data according to the predetermined themes based on constructs from Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory and Jones' (1995) model. These constructs are: objective competitive environment; perceived importance of outcome; perceived uncertainty of outcome; perceived threat; a-trait, and, a-state (cf. Martens et al., 1990a); stressor; individual differences; control; positive expectancies of coping and goal attainment; negative expectancies of coping and goal attainment; debilitating anxiety, and, facilitative anxiety (cf. Jones, 1995). These constructs were operationalised using the definitions provided by Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory and Jones' (1995) model.

Within the data analysis procedures secondary analysis was completed by an independent researcher who is familiar with both inductive and deductive content analysis, and has extensive experience of using qualitative research methods. Feedback was provided regarding theme identification, a process known as 'peer debriefing' (Guba, 1981). The secondary analyst also completed validity checks for themes and dimensions and, where discrepancies existed, peer debriefing continued until both parties agreed on titles and organisation of themes. The respondents were also provided with a copy of their

results, following analysis, and a summary of findings for their interpretation and confirmation that they were a true and accurate reflection of their response to being a substitute, a process referred to as respondent verification or member checks (Malterud, 2001; Meyer, 1998).

2.7 Results for Study 1

The aims of this study were to: 1) investigate the substitute experience and ascertain whether or not it is perceived as stressful, 2) identify what factors (if any) within a substitute's environment may be perceived as stressful, 3) to understand substitutes' emotional responses to their environment and 4) to examine whether constructs identified in Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory and Jones' (1995) model can explain the anxiety response in substitutes. Inductive analysis was conducted in order to address the first three aims and deductive analysis was used to address the fourth aim. Results of the inductive analysis are presented and interpreted first followed by those from the deductive analysis. Findings are presented in this order to provide the reader with an understanding of the substitute experience before attempting to use a theoretical perspective to understand anxiety in football substitutes.

2.7.1 Inductive analysis results

Data were classified into three distinct categories that emerged from the interviews; these are organisational factors, competitive factors, and individual difference factors. Organisational factors represent environmental and organisational aspects that participants reported to be unique to their experience as a substitute player, thus different from when they were a starting player. Competitive factors represent factors within the actual game that participants reported to be different in comparison with their experiences when they typically start a game. Individual difference factors represent substitutes' interpretation of their environment, that is, their perceptions and emotional responses to organisational and competitive factors.

Initial analysis also revealed that different organisational, competitive and individual factors were experienced for three distinct periods, these were classified as the pre-game phase, pre-performance phase, and performance phase; therefore, results are presented in accordance with these phases. The pre-game phase is the period between when the player was informed that they were going to be a substitute and the game beginning. The pre-performance phase is the period between the game beginning and the substitute being informed that they are going on to play. The performance phase is the period of time during which substitutes were actively involved in the game and no longer sitting on the bench, therefore, competitive factors as outlined above were only experienced during this phase.

2.7.1.1 Organisational factors experienced during the pre game phase

There were three organisational factors presented by the participants, these were: 1) receiving short notice, 2) being segregated from team mates and 3) experiencing poor coach communication (see Table 2.2). In total, sixteen participants reported that they received short notice that they were in fact substitutes and would not be starting the game. However, as Table 2.2 indicates, the duration of this phase varied for each player, with some cases receiving information as close as half an hour before the game. Thirteen participants reported that they were segregated in one way or another before the game began, whilst nine participants reported that they experienced poor communication between the coach and themselves, *“In the team talk we don’t...like he tells us the team and who the subs are and that we get changed and do our warm up and the eleven that are starting come back in and he talks to them while we’re still out warming up and whatever. So we don’t actually go”* (Participant A).

Table 2.2 Pre-game organisational factors reported by substitute players

Raw Data Themes	N	Lower Order Themes	General Dimension
1 Hour Notice	13	Received short notice 44%*	Pre-Game Organisational Factors
2 Hour Notice	2		
½ Hour Notice	1		
Left out of team talk	8	Segregated from team mates 33%*	
Segregated warm up	2		
Warmed up goal keeper	3		
No explanation	7	Poor coach/player communication 23%*	
No indication if would get subbed on	2		

*indicates the % of responses (raw data themes) that relate to that General Dimension.

The number of participants who referred to each raw data theme is represented by the number in the column denoted 'N'.

2.7.1.2 Individual difference factors experienced during the pre game phase

Inductive analysis of the pre-game phase revealed two higher order themes that represent individual difference factors for this phase. These are dissatisfaction with status as a substitute and self-presentation concerns (Table 2.3). A large percentage of responses (92.5%) indicated that football players experienced dissatisfaction with their status when they become a substitute whilst a smaller percentage (7.5%) indicates that some players also experience self-presentation concerns when informed that they are a substitute.

Dissatisfaction with status as a substitute

This higher order theme consists of five lower order themes as outlined in Table 2.3. These are 1) dissatisfaction with status as a substitute, 2) negative emotions experienced, 3) reduced perceived control over the coach's decision, 4) reduced motivation to prepare for the game, and 5) reduced perceived importance of the game when made substitute.

Dissatisfaction with status as a substitute: This lower order theme represents 42% of the individual difference factors experienced during the pre-game phase. During this phase participants generally expected to start and were more importantly very confident in their ability to start, "*Being left out*

after a run in the team is probably the worst thing because you just feel like you shouldn't be there, and to be honest you probably don't want to be there...there was a mixture of feelings really, maybe a little bit of anger but mostly disappointment and a little bit of resentment” (Participant D).

Consequently substitutes were dissatisfied with explanations provided by coaches and believed they had no other option but to accept his/her decision even though they did not necessarily agree with it: *“Well it wasn't great to tell you the truth. I was pissed off. I couldn't believe what he was saying. I respect him as the manager but sometimes it is difficult to see his reasoning” (Participant K).*

Negative emotions experienced: This lower order theme represents 23% of the individual difference factors experienced during the pre-game phase. These emotions were usually discussed quite strongly during interviews as participants tried to communicate their grievance at being a substitute. As a result of being dissatisfied with being a substitute players reported being upset, shocked, and withdrawn: *“I was absolutely gutted... that was the worst I felt all season...I was just literally shocked” (Participant B).* Stronger emotions included anger, annoyance, and frustration: *“I was pissed off about it because it was only a couple of games into the season so it's not even like I had a chance to mess up” (Participant U).*

Reduced perceived control over the coach's decision: Although this lower order theme only represents 4% of raw data themes for the pre-game phase it was reported by seven participants. They generally reported that the coach was responsible for deciding the team and there was nothing that they could do to change that, given that they felt they were not playing poorly, *“The season is coming to an end I know that, so I think I was finding it hard to keep up with the pace towards the ends of games. But I didn't make any mistakes or I haven't been playing badly... I would prefer to play midfield. But there is not a lot I can do about where I play. That's the manager's decision” (Participant K).*

Reduced motivation to prepare for the game: This lower order theme represents 13% of all raw data themes for the pre-game phase. Participants generally reported lower motivation levels as a result of being a substitute; this was represented by reduced effort during the physical warm up and reduced desire to listen in the team talk, *“I went out to warm up like usual but I didn’t put as much effort into it. I was still fuming about what he had said...if I was starting I would just be getting on with things and preparing for the game. When I am not starting then at the back of my mind I know I can warm up later so I can relax a little. Suppose you could say I was demotivated”* (Participant N).

Reduced perceived importance of the game when made substitute: This lower order theme represents 9% of all raw data themes for the pre-game phase. Participants who reported this generally felt that because they were no longer directly involved in the game it no longer held any importance for them. Some even stated that they would prefer to not be involved at all rather than play as a substitute, *“I was gutted really I just hate it, I don’t like watching football at all...I’d rather just not be involved than be a sub [sic]”* (Participant A).

Table 2.3 Pre-game individual difference factors

Raw Data Themes	N	Lower Order Themes	Higher Order Themes	General Dimension
Expected to start	11	Dissatisfied with status as a substitute 42%	Dissatisfaction with status as a substitute 92.5%*	Pre-Game Individual Difference Factors
Confident in ability	17			
Dissatisfied being sub	8			
Dissatisfied with explanation	5			
Disappointed	9			
Forced Acceptance	8			
Resentful of coach's decision	9			
Feels left out	7	Negative emotions experienced 23%		
Reduced confidence in ability	3			
Annoyed	4			
Angry	9			
Frustrated	4			
Upset	1			
Withdrawn	1			
Shocked	9	Reduced perceived control over coach's decisions 4%		
No control over coach decision	4			
Reduced control over coach decision	3	Reduced motivation to prepare for the game 13%		
Not listening in the team talk	2			
Reduced effort in the warm	11			
Reduced focus in the warm up	8	Reduced perceived importance of the game when substitute 9%		
Rather not play than be a substitute	2			
Reduced importance of status when substitute	4			
Reduced importance of the game when substitute	8	Perceived importance to prove ability 4%		
Important to play well and prove ability	2			
Eager to play well	5			
Concerned what family and friends think	2		Self-Presentation Concerns 7.5%*	
Concerned what team mates think	2			
Concerned with how coach perceives ability	1			

*indicates the % of responses (raw data themes) that relate to that General Dimension.

The number of participants who referred to each raw data theme is represented by the number in the column denoted 'N'

Self-presentation concerns

This higher order theme consists of two lower order themes. These are 1) perceived importance to prove ability and 2) concern with what significant others think.

Perceived importance to prove ability: This lower order theme represents 4% of raw data themes and these participants felt that it was significantly important that when they came on to play, they played well and proved their ability, *“Whenever you are made sub you feel, well I feel, you have more to prove. If you are coming on in a game where your team are not doing so well you can prove your ability because I believe you couldn’t play worse than your team mate had done”* (Participant Q).

Concern with what significant others think: This lower order theme represents 3% of the raw data themes. *“I was gutted and hate not playing but it doesn’t make me think any worse of myself. But in a way it makes me think, what does the boss think of me”* (Interview N). Five substitutes revealed that they were concerned with how they might be perceived by family or friends who had come to watch them play: *“I thought I played all right and because I live in a small village everyone had come down to watch this game, but it ended up I was on the bench so I was screwing I really was”*.

Embarrassment was also experienced which represents the degree of worry concerning how respondents felt their status had diminished since they became a substitute, *“I sort of felt embarrassed to be honest. I had to go into the changing room where the girls were putting on shirts and because they were trying to figure out what numbers to wear whilst waiting for the manager, they asked who the subs were. I was gutted because I had to say it out loud that I was a sub. That was weird because I didn’t want to say it, because I suppose I was embarrassed and disappointed”* (Participant L).

2.7.1.3 Organisational factors experienced during the pre-performance phase

There were three organisational factors cited by the participants for the pre-performance phase, these are: 1) being inactive, 2) experiencing a restricted warm up/physical preparation, and 3) experiencing poor coach/substitute interaction. It is clear from Table 2.4 that 18 of the 20 players reported that they were mainly inactive during this phase and even when they did attempt to physically prepare, their warm up was restricted or they did not have sufficient notice to prepare. Being inactive represents 23% of the organisational factors experienced during the pre-performance phase. This is

explained by the fact that once the game starts players that are substitutes must sit on the substitutes' bench unless they are warming up. Rules also state that players must stay within the technical area which is a marked off area around the substitutes' bench. As well as spending most of their time sitting, substitutes reported that there is a restriction to the number of substitutes that can warm up at any one time. Fifty four percent of the raw data themes relating to organisational factors are represented by experiencing a restricted warm up/physical preparation, indicating its importance. Furthermore substitutes can only use the space alongside the pitch which is quite small, allowing close contact with spectators which can be threatening if they are from the opposing team. Therefore substitutes take turns to warm up and cannot use a ball, *"there are a limited number of things to do because it is so close to the pitch and it is a small place, you can't go onto the pitch. It is basically a few short sprints and stretching. You can't really get the balls out"* (Participant G).

Fifteen of the substitutes interviewed reported that they only had a couple of minute's notice that they would be coming on to play. This was quite restricted in comparison to the time they receive when they are starting, *"Well from the actual shout that you are going on it is probably minutes. Probably two or three minutes. It's from when he (coach) makes his mind up so he wants you on as soon as possible from when he makes his mind up"* (Participant D).

Substitutes also reported that there was little interaction between themselves and their coach during the game (14% of the organisational factors experienced during the pre-performance phase). "I think that they are concentrating on the team and what to do". In addition four substitutes reported that whilst sitting on the bench they could hear the coach make negative comments about other players. In some cases foul or abusive language was used: "Coach is usually shouting or whatever and the subs just sit there...he is just telling them [players on the pitch] what to do or if he doesn't think they are doing enough he shouts at them and has a go at them and tells them to work harder" (Participant A).

Table 2.4 Pre-performance organisational factors reported by substitutes

Raw Data Themes	N	Lower Order Themes	General Dimension
Inactive	18	Inactive 32%*	Pre-Performance Organisational Factors
Short notice of when would play	15	Restricted warm up/preparation	
Restricted space to warm up	10		
Distracted by spectators	5	54%*	
Hear negative comments from coach	4	Poor coach/substitute interaction	
No interaction with the coach	4	14%*	

*indicates the % of responses (raw data themes) that relate to that General Dimension.

The number of participants who referred to each raw data theme is represented by the number in the column denoted 'N'.

2.7.1.4 Individual difference factors experienced during the pre-performance phase

Inductive analysis of the pre-performance phase revealed three general dimensions that represent individual difference factors (Table 2.5). These are: 1) dissatisfaction with status as a substitute, 2) perceived importance to perform well and 3) elevated state anxiety.

Dissatisfaction with status as a substitute

This higher order theme consists of four lower order themes as outlined in Table 2.5. These are: 1) dissatisfied with status as a substitute, 2) reduced perceived control during preparation, 3) reduced motivation to prepare for the game and 4) negative emotions experienced.

Dissatisfaction with status as a substitute: This lower order theme represents 10% of all raw data themes discussed by the participants during the pre-performance phase. During this phase participants generally reported that they were still disappointed and bored whilst sitting on the bench: “I was just preoccupied with being a substitute and a bit bored really” (Participant L). They also reported that they believed it is more difficult to play well as a substitute: “I think they (coaches) hope for you to change the game but it is difficult. It is one of the most difficult things to do – come on as a substitute” (Participant T).

Table 2.5 Pre-performance individual difference factors

Raw Data Themes	N	Lower Order Themes	Higher Order Themes	General Dimension
Aggrieved by coach's decision to make them substitute	2	Dissatisfaction with status as a substitute 10%	Dissatisfaction with status as a substitute 67%*	Pre-Performance Individual Difference Factors
Bored whilst on the bench	4			
Reduced performance expectancy	1			
Believes it is difficult to play well as a substitute	3			
Reduced importance of the game	1			
Frustrated watching the game	5	Negative emotions experienced 10%		
Self-questioning ability	1			
Upset at not playing	1			
Wanted to be alone	1			
Angry	1			
Annoyed	2	Reduced perceived control during preparation 18%		
Reduced perceived readiness on the bench	1			
Rushed warm up	3			
Feels helpless and uninfluential	2			
Perceive to have no control over game	8			
Uncertain when will be substituted on to play	6	Reduced motivation to physically prepare 29%		
Panics because not ready when called on	1			
Reduced effort/motivation during warm up	15			
Reduced focus during warm up	8			
Poor motivation to prepare	6			
Reduced importance of being physically ready	3	Self-presentation concerns 5%		
Reduced perceived importance of game	1			
Concerned about impression given concerning ability	4			
Wants to give a good impression with how they coped with being dropped	2			
Eager to play	5		Perceived importance to play well 15%	
Focused on game	5			
Confident could come on and play well	5			
Watches opposition to gain advantage	1			
Important to play well and win	1	Elevated state anxiety 13%*		
Nervous about coming on to play	7			
Excited when informed would be going on to play	4			
Nervous about coming on and playing badly	4			

* indicates the % of responses (raw data themes) that relate to that General Dimension.

The number of participants who referred to each raw data theme is represented by the number in the column denoted 'N'.

Reduced perceived control during preparation: This lower order theme represents 18% of raw data themes identified for the pre-performance phase. Participants felt as though they had less control during this phase, as they were unsure if or when they would be substituted on to play: *“I suppose I wasn't really warming up properly because I wasn't sure when I was going to be playing”*

(Participant K). As a result they felt that they did not feel ready and were rushed when it came to warming up before going on to play.

Reduced motivation to prepare for the game: This lower order theme represents 29% of raw data themes identified for the pre-performance phase. Substitutes reported decreased motivation to physically prepare, as they were unsure when they would be playing, *“I thought I can’t be bothered so when he says you are going on I’m not really ready. But if I am starting all I think about is the game and I am really up for it. But if I’m not then I am just totally the opposite really”* (Participant A).

Negative emotions experienced: This lower order theme also represents 10% of all raw data themes presented by the participants during the pre-performance phase. Substitutes continued to feel frustrated and upset at not playing, *“It is just frustrating. I can’t stand watching football. I don’t mind watching live men’s games or things like that, that is a bit different. But to go and watch your team mates playing when you are fully fit, that’s frustrating”* (Participant S). Two players reported that they continued to be angry and annoyed whilst they were on the bench *“I was screwing I really was but it is just the fact that when you are watching the game you know or I know I could do better than other people on the pitch”* (Participant T).

Perceived importance to perform well

This higher order theme consists of two lower order themes as outlined in Table 2.5. These are 1) self-presentation concerns, and 2) perceived importance to perform well.

Self-presentation concerns: Six substitutes reported that they were concerned about the impression they gave others concerning their ability, therefore they felt it was important to be seen to physically prepare well and play well if substituted on to play: *“I was just messing about with a ball because I didn’t want people watching to think she is a sub and so is crap. In a weird way I was trying to show them that I was good”*. (Participant L). The reasons for proving ability differed; in some cases it was to prove the coach wrong, in others it was about managing others’ impressions of themselves: *“If I can go on and play well then it makes me think that I proved myself right and I never should have been on the bench in the first place.”* (Participant M).

Perceived importance to perform well: This lower order theme represents 15% of the raw data themes for the pre-performance phase and indicates that substitutes felt strongly that they wanted to play and also perform well if substituted into the game *“you have just got to do your job right and play well, that is only thing that helps you”* (Participant D). Therefore, it was important to play well in order to prove ability, but also to increase the chance of regaining status as a starter player.

Elevated state anxiety

This higher order theme consists of one lower order theme and is represented by 13% of the raw data for the pre-performance phase. Fifteen of the twenty players reported that they became nervous immediately after being told that they were being substituted on to play and that up until this point they were not nervous at all. Four players reported it as excitement about playing whilst eleven referred to being nervous about making mistakes and settling in to play: *“I have nothing to be*

nervous about because I am not playing, “It’s when the manager calls you over that you might get a bit nervous. I think then ‘come on you have to play well’ and I suppose I put myself under some pressure to really play well in a short amount of time. So I get nervous that I might mess up or won’t stand out” (Participant N).

2.7.1.5 Competitive factors experienced during the performance phase

Sixteen substitutes described the situation that they found themselves in during performance as difficult (Table 2.6). Thirteen believed that the pace of the game was quite fast and consequently they found it difficult to settle in. Three felt that it was difficult to play well because there was only a limited amount of time left and it unfortunately took some time for them to settle in before they could make an impact on the game: “It is very very difficult particularly for a defender to come in if the game is at a high pace then it is difficult to get into it. It is never really good to come in as a defender because you can’t pick up the pace of the game when you are just coming straight on. Particularly in the latter stages of the game” (Participant D).

Table 2.6 Competitive factors for the performance phase

Raw Data Themes	N	Higher Order Theme
Little time left to influence the game	3	Difficult competitive environment
Game was high paced	13	

The number of participants who referred to each raw data theme is represented by the number in the column denoted ‘N’.

2.7.1.6 Individual difference factors experienced during the performance phase

Inductive analysis of the performance phase revealed one higher order theme entitled concerns during performance (Table 2.7). This higher order theme consisted of three lower order themes as outlined in Table 2.7. These are 1) impression motivation, 2) self-presentation concerns, and 3) reduced perceived control over performance.

Table 2.7 Individual difference factors for the performance phase

Raw Data Themes	N	Lower Order Themes	Higher Order Theme	General Dimension
Wants to give a good impression when playing	7	Impression Motivation 33%*	Concerns during performance	Individual Difference Factors for the Performance Phase
Wants to play well to impress coach	10			
Feels it is important to impress team mates	2			
Confident and wants to prove ability	17	Self-presentation concerns 42%*		
Perceives their role as sub to be insignificant to the outcome of the game	1			
Concerned with how might be perceived by talent scouts	1			
Concerned with how might be perceived by friends	2			
Concerned with how might be perceived by spectators	4			
Worried about making mistakes	1			
Pressure to play well	5			
Difficult settling into the pace of the game	13	Reduced perceived control over performance 25%*		
Reduced control as little time left to play well	1			

*indicates the % of responses (raw data themes) that relate to that General Dimension.
The number of participants who referred to each raw data theme is represented by the number in the column denoted 'N'.

Impression motivation: This lower order theme referred to substitutes' motivation to regulate other peoples' impressions of them and it represents 33% of raw data themes for this general dimension. Seven substitutes reported that they felt they had to give a good impression for themselves or team mates when playing: *"I feel that some of the girls don't really respect me as a player and don't think she's any good [talking about herself]. So I've just got a lot to prove really"* (Participant J). In addition ten wanted to play well to impress their coach as they tended to believe that by giving a good impression they would have more of a chance of starting next time: *"I felt like I had a point to prove...I just wanted to go out there and prove to him [coach] that he shouldn't leave me out"* (Participant B).

Self-presentation concerns: This lower order theme referred to concerns that substitute players had about how they might be perceived by significant others. Ten substitutes reported concerns about how they might be perceived by significant others, including family, friends, talent scouts and spectators. *“They [spectators] maybe think ‘oh he’s crap as he is on the bench’ or ‘he’s not a good player’ and that goes through your mind”* (Participant K). In some cases this had a knock on effect where substitutes became afraid of making mistakes thus put themselves under pressure to play well: *“I think my main thing is that I am worried about making mistakes on the pitch”* (Participant C).

Reduced perceived control over performance: Situational difficulties during the game such as difficulty settling in and little time remaining to influence the game caused substitutes to perceive that they had less control over their performance than they would have if they had started, *“The thing is about coming on is it takes so bloody long to get into the game. The other lads have been playing for a lot longer so are into the game and the pace is set. Coming on from cold is not easy and as much as you prepare it always takes time to get into the game”* (Participant K).

2.7.2 Summary of Inductive Findings

Participants reported that they experience different organisational, competitive and individual difference factors as a substitute player in comparison to when they typically start a game. Unlike starting players, substitutes experience organisational factors both before the game starts (pre-game phase) as well as whilst the game is in progress (pre-performance phase). These factors were generally interpreted by substitutes as being restrictive and inhibiting to preparation. That is, inductive analysis revealed individual difference factors, which reflect spontaneous feelings that participants’ reported about the pre-game and pre-performance phases. These consisted of experiencing dissatisfaction, self-presentation concerns, and elevated state anxiety. In addition, deductive analysis of pre-game and pre-performance phases indicated that substitutes also experienced reduced perceived control, perceived uncertainty and perceived threat. Thus individual

difference factors experienced during the pre-game and pre-performance phases (experiencing dissatisfaction reduced perceived control, perceived threat, reduced motivation, self-presentation concerns and elevated state anxiety) appear to be key factors in explaining substitutes' experiences in football. Consequently, it may be possible that the work of Jones (1995) and Martens et al. (1990a) can be used to explain anxiety in football substitutes; however, further support in the way of deductive analysis of the same interviews would further substantiate this proposal.

Overall, despite some variation in the organisational and individual difference factors experienced during pre-game and pre-performance phases, there was little difference in the description and interpretation of these phases with participants generally reporting their pre-performance experiences as stressful. Therefore, it is possible to speculate that organisational and individual difference factors may have contributed towards a negative perception of the performance phase by substitutes. That is, the majority of participants reported that the competitive environment they experienced as a substitute player was more difficult in comparison to when they were a starting player, due to the fact that they had a limited time to perform in a high paced setting. These competitive factors were interpreted as restrictive and concerning, therefore, it is clear that substitutes also experienced negative competitive and individual factors during the performance phase.

Although overall results indicate that there may be a relationship between substitutes' experiences before they perform and their experiences during the actual performance phase, a causal relationship cannot be supported by these qualitative findings. Nonetheless, these results clearly indicate that substitute players are inclined to experience a stressful environment and a negative emotional response to their situation before they go on to play, and once they do go on to play they generally experience a threatening competitive environment. Therefore, it can be accepted that the substitute experience is stressful and potentially threatening to performance.

2.7.3 Deductive analysis results

Deductive analysis was carried out for each interview in order to determine whether or not support for constructs from Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory (Figure 2.3) and Jones' (1995) model (Figure 2.4) could be identified. Strict definitions for each construct were used to decide if raw data could be used to support each construct.

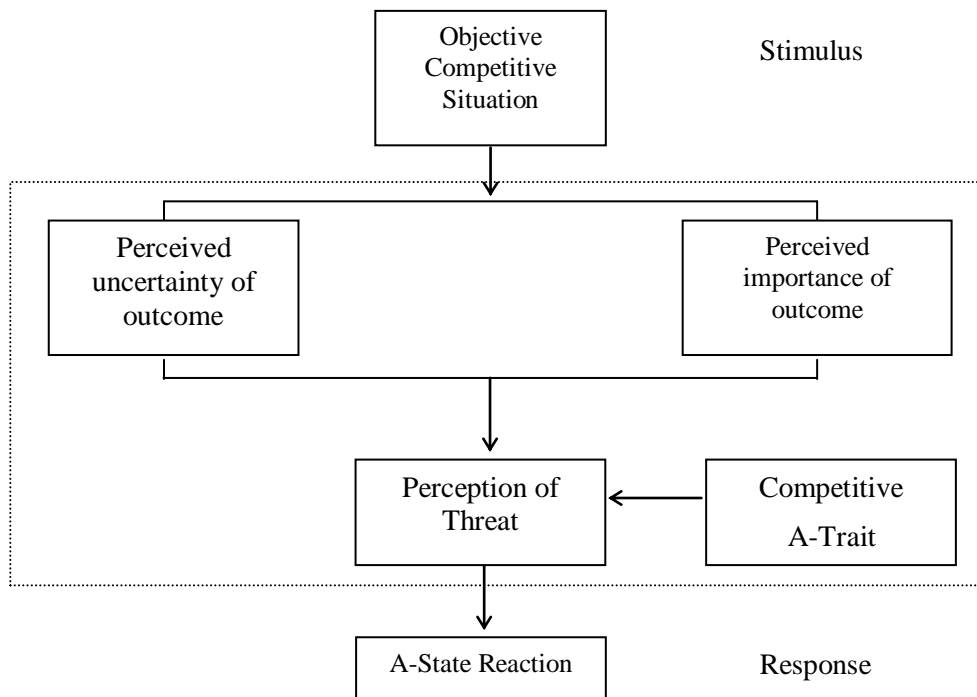


Figure 2.3 A theory of competitive anxiety (Martens et al., 1990a).

2.7.3.1 Results to support constructs in Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory of competitive anxiety

Objective competitive situation

Interviews were deductively analysed to describe the objective competitive situation that substitute players experienced. These factors are outlined in Table 2.8 and described below.

Table 2.8 Raw data themes that represent the objective competitive situation for all three phases of competition.

PRE-GAME Raw Data Themes	N	PRE-PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N	PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N
Informed by coach	19	Inactive	18	Settled into game easily	1
Informed by team captain	1	Unstructured warm up	4	Game was high paced	13
Informed one hour before the game	13	Received instruction before going on	1	Little time left to influence the game	3
Informed half and hour before game	3	Restricted warm up	10		
Informed two hours before the game	2	Hears negative coach comments	8		
Informed 4 days before game	2	Hears negative spectator comments	3		
Warmed up with the team	1	Limited preparation time	10		
Did not warm up	9	Limited interaction with coach	5		
Duties to do	3				
Not addressed in team talk	6				
Included in team talk	9				
Segregated warm up	1				
No explanation	7				
Received explanation	7				
Reduced intensity of warm up	3				

Pre-Game: During this phase players generally experienced quite short notice of the coach’s decision with eighteen out of twenty players reporting that they were informed on match day that they were not starting. In addition other situational factors that differed included whether or not, the player received an explanation, had duties to perform (such as warming up the goalkeeper), or experienced changes to their physical warm up. Table 2.8 indicates the frequency of responses in relation to these situational differences. **Pre-Performance:** Raw data themes for this phase describe the situational differences substitutes experience once the game starts and they are sitting on the bench. Not surprisingly 18 out of 20 players explicitly stated that they were mostly inactive during this time. Physical preparation was restricted or hampered as a result of being inactive; furthermore some players overheard negative comments made by their coach concerning team mates who were

playing at the time. **Performance:** Raw data themes for this phase describe the situational differences substitutes experience once they go on to play. Substitutes generally described the situation as difficult as they had less time to influence the game and the game was running at a fast pace which made it difficult to settle in quickly.

Perceived Importance of Outcome

Pre Game: Raw data themes for this phase indicate that the player felt that it was more important to start the game than to be a substitute (Table 2.9). Consequently substitutes reported reduced perceived importance since they were no longer satisfied with their status during this phase, *“I want to be playing; I’m in my mid twenties now so I’m looking to be a regular...the first thing is to be playing every week, that’s the most important thing.”* (Participant D). In addition physical preparation and team success were also interpreted as having reduced importance, *“it’s just I don’t see the point in stretching if you are not going on for another hour. I’d rather wait until I know I’m going on”* (Participant A). In addition, some substitutes reported perceived importance about proving their ability. **Pre-Performance:** Raw data themes here indicate that substitutes perceived that the most important outcome for this phase would be that they got on to play and play well once they are given an opportunity. They continued to believe that their status, physical preparation and outcome of the game had reduced importance: **Performance:** During performance phase substitutes perceived that it was important to play well and prove ability *“I want to go on and show the manager that he shouldn’t have left me out”* (Participant B). Some felt that status and team success had reduced importance, for example participant T said *“I think before the game kicks off it is about eleven players it’s not about subs if you know what I mean”* .

Table 2.9 Raw data themes that represent where importance of outcome was perceived, and also where reduced importance was perceived for all three phases of competition.

PRE-GAME Raw Data Themes	N	PRE-PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N	PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N
Reduced importance of status as substitute	9	Reduced importance of the game	2	Reduced importance of team success	2
Reduced importance of preparation	7	Reduced importance of status as substitute	2	Reduced importance of status as substitute	2
Reduced importance of focusing	4	Reduced importance of warm up	12	Important to play well when substituted on to play	12
Reduced importance of team success	2	Important to get substituted on to play	5	Important to win the game	1
Reduced importance of game	5	Team success is important	3	Important to prove ability	10
Important to start-dislikes being substitute	8	Important to play well	5		
Important to prove ability to coach	2				
Important to win	1				

Perceived uncertainty of outcome

Pre-Game: Before the game substitutes reported that they were uncertain why they were made substitute and if they would be substituted on to play at all. In addition some were unsure what position they would play in or if they would in fact play well (Table 2.10), “*you have just got to get on with it and hope to turn things around when you step out on the pitch*” (Participant G). **Pre-Performance:** During this phase uncertainty was centred on if or when the player would be substituted on to play (Table 2.10). That is, substitutes do not have much indication of when they may be called into play. “*I think you just watch people in your position and if they go down injured then you are on sort of thing... because you might go on in the first minute*” (Participant E).

Table 2.10 Raw data themes that represent when uncertainty of outcome was perceived.

PRE-GAME Raw Data Themes	N	PRE-PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N
Uncertain if would play	5	Uncertain if would be substituted on	7
Uncertain if would play well	2	Uncertain when would be substituted on	9
Uncertain what position would play in	3		
Uncertain why have been made substitute	8		
Uncertain of ability	1		

Perceived threat

Pre-Game: Before the game substitutes reported that their change in status was the most significant threat to them as it reduced their perception of control. *“I was gutted really I just hate it I don’t like watching football at all. I was quite annoyed as well and just thinking I can’t really do anything”* (Participant A). Some felt that their new status was not as important as their status as a starter and this was threatening to their chance of being selected in the future (Table 2.11). **Pre-Performance:** During this phase substitutes found various incidents threatening to their performance (Table 2.11). Waiting to play, watching the game unfold, not being able to influence the game whilst on the bench were perceived as threatening because players reported that they found this stressful and they had little control over outcomes. Less time to physically prepare and poor mental preparation were reported by substitutes as threatening to performance as they believed this may have affected their performance once substituted on to play *“It is difficult going on as sub as you have to get straight into it...you can’t even think about it, it is a bit of a rush”* (Participant J). **Performance:** Once substitutes were substituted into the game they reported several factors that were threatening to performance, the most distressing one being that the game was moving at a fast pace. Several substitutes reported that it took them some amount of time to settle into the game as a result, *“It is one of the most difficult things to do – come on as sub...Because the pace of the game is already alive, a hundred miles an hour. Whereas at the start of the game you are at the same pace as everyone else and you do you feel really tired the first five or ten minutes you come on as sub. You*

are like wow out of breath because you have been sitting on the side” (Participant C). They were also aware that there was limited time left in the game to make an impact, this was reported to be stressful because it takes time to settle in, time which they have not got. Consequently some players reported that they were worried about making mistakes and felt that they had less chance of playing well.

Table 2.11 Raw data themes that represent perceived threat in the performance phase.

PRE-GAME Raw Data Themes	N	PRE-PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N	PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N
Being a substitute (not being able to influence game) (PC)	11	Watching the team perform poorly (PC)	1	Limited time on the pitch (PC)	4
Short notice that they are not starting (PC)	1	Watching the game unfold (PC)	3	Little time to settle in (PC)	3
Pressure to play well (PI)	1	Less chance of playing (PC)	2	Difficult to adapt to pace of game (PC)	10
		Less time to prepare (PC)	4	Worried about making mistakes (PU)	6
		Not being able to influence the game (PC)	3	Less chance of playing well (PU)	3
		Waiting to play (PU)	1		
		Hearing negative coach comments (PI)	4		

Letters in brackets represent reduced perceived control (PC), perceived importance (PI) and perceived uncertainty (PU), factors which contribute towards perceived threat.

Trait and state anxiety

When asked about their general tendency to experience anxiety prior to competition, seven players reported low A-trait whilst nine reported high A-trait. However, fifteen players reported elevated A-state before performance suggesting that the moments just prior to being substituted into the game were anxiety provoking. Only one player reported reduced A-state as he felt that the game had reduced pressure and importance because of his status as a substitute. Six substitutes reported experiencing worry about making mistakes whilst they were performing.

2.7.3.2 Results to support constructs in Jones' (1995) control model of debilitating and facilitative competitive state anxiety

Deductive analysis was carried out to identify support for the constructs in Jones' (1995) model (Figure 2.4). Results are presented below.

Stressors

Stressors consist of organisational and competitive factors previously alluded to in the inductive analysis results that substitutes perceived to be threatening, or harmful to performance (Table 2.12).

Table 2.12 Raw data themes that represent stressors experienced by substitutes throughout the three phases of performance.

PRE-GAME Raw Data Themes	N	PRE-PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N	PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N
Being a substitute	9	Less chance of being subbed on	2	Limited time on the pitch	4
Watching and not influencing the game	1	Watching and not influencing the game	6	Not able to play well when come on as a substitute	3
Short notice that they are not starting	4	Not knowing when would be going on	2	Being evaluated when substitute	3
No explanation from coach	3	Hearing negative comments	4	Difficult adapting to pace of game	13
Being inactive	1	Poor mental preparation	1	Pressure to play well	3
Feeling left out	4	Less time to prepare	2	Worried about making mistakes	6
Expecting to start	1	Pressure to prove ability	2		

Pre-game: Stressors during this phase included actually being a substitute and the idea of having to watch and not being able to actively influence the game. In addition some players felt that being informed about their status close to the game was stressful because it did not give them enough time to deal with their emotions, *“It is not so good when you are told an hour and a half before the game when you are up for it”* (Participant E). **Pre-performance:** Watching the game unfold whilst on the bench was also stressful and frustrating, *“You probably don’t want to be there and just want the end of the game to come”* (Participant D). Four substitutes also reported that it was quite stressful hearing

the coach make negative comments or statements concerning mistakes made by players on the pitch. This may have had an effect on players causing them to feel pressurised to play well or worry about making mistakes once they go on to play, “they’ll [coach] be slagging you off on the sideline and you’ll never know. So that puts even more pressure on you when you go on because you don’t know if you are going to make a bad ball” (Participant H). **Performance:** Substitutes found the fast pace of the game stressful because it was difficult for them to settle in and play well. In addition, the fact that they generally had less time to influence the game once substituted on and they worried about making mistakes also contributed to this stress.

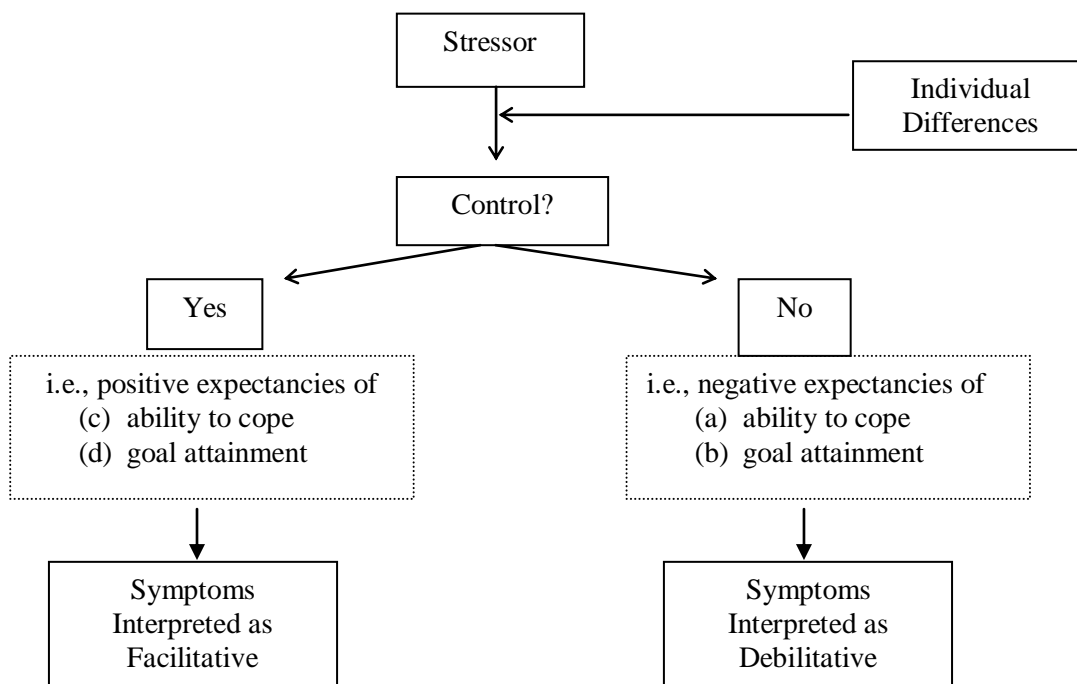


Figure 2.4 A control model of debilitative and facilitative competitive state anxiety (Jones, 1995).

Individual Differences

Pre-game: Eight players referred to whether they perceived themselves to have an internal or external locus of control (Table 2.13). Seven of these reported an internal locus of control by

indicating that their experiences are as a result of their own actions. For example, participant I acknowledged that he was tired thus believed his coach’s decision to make him a substitute player was warranted. However he also believe that he could play well despite feeling tired, “*Yeah I [agree with coach’s decision] did but I still think I would have been able to play despite feeling tired at the time...Yes I think I would have [played well if had started] as although I might have been tired I would have given as much as I usually do*”. In contrast, participant A felt that events were beyond his control and influenced by external sources. He felt that there was nothing he could do to influence his coach’s decisions, thus he could would not attribute becoming a substitute player to his own actions, “*Well I just think that **** (refers to coach) makes the decisions it’s not up to me at all if I’m in the starting line up or not*”.

Table 2.13 Raw data themes that represent individual differences experienced by substitutes throughout the three phases of performance.

PRE-GAME Raw Data Themes	N	PRE-PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N
External locus of control	1	Negative Affect (angry)	2
Internal locus of control	7	Negative Affect (frustrated)	2
Negative Affect (angry)	10	Negative Affect (sad)	1
Negative Affect (upset)	2	Negative Affect (concerned about how coach perceives them)	1
Negative Affect (annoyed)	6	Negative Affect (annoyed)	1
Negative Affect (disappointed)	8		
Negative Affect (shocked)	4		
Negative Affect (frustrated)	2		

It is clear that there were individual differences in the emotions players experienced when were informed that they were a substitute, however all emotions that were reported during the pre-game and pre-performance phases can be categorised as negative affect indicating subjective stress emotions (anger, annoyance, disappointment (concern), shock, sadness (upset), frustration) (Table 2.12). Examples of raw data (quotations) representing these emotions have been presented in inductive results above.

Control

Pre-game: Thirteen players reported experiencing reduced perceived control concerning their new status as a substitute (Table 2.14). They felt they had no control over the coach’s decision and that there was nothing that they could have done to influence their decision, *“there is nothing you can do about it (being sub) I was fit and everything but I was dropped”* (Participant B). **Pre-performance:** Reduced perceived control was also a theme for substitutes during the pre-performance phase. Substitutes felt that they had no control over the game since they were inactive on the bench, *“It’s so frustrating. Probably more frustrating than watching football on the tele because I should be playing, but when I am on the bench there is nothing I can do”* (Participant N). In addition they also had no control as to whether or not they would actually be substituted on to play. **Performance:** Once substituted into the game some players reported that they felt they had reduced control over the outcome of the game as they had little time to make an impact.

Table 2.14 Raw data themes that represent control experienced by substitutes throughout the three phases of performance.

PRE-GAME Raw Data Themes	N	PRE-PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N	PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N
Reduced perceived control (prevented from playing)	13	Reduced perceived control concerning influencing game	8	Reduced control over outcome of game	3
		Reduced perceived control concerning when would go on to play	4		

Coping strategies used

Pre-game: Before the game 14 players reported that they coped with their reduced status as a substitute by simply accepting the coach’s decision (Table 2.15), as they tended to believe that there was nothing they could do to change their coach’s mind, *“I should have started the game I thought well I wanted to in my eyes. But that is the way it goes”* (Participant F). Substitutes also preferred to

avoid thinking about becoming a substitute, *“I just kept quiet and didn’t speak to anyone and kept my head down. I kept thinking in my head ‘why am I sub?’ and working myself up a bit* (Participant F).

In some cases they used behavioural approach strategies such as working hard in the warm up in order to release pent up anger or frustration. **Pre-performance:** Once the game began nine of the substitutes reported using cognitive or behavioural approach coping strategies in order to deal with being inactive. Cognitive strategies included focusing their mind on the game being played in front of them, or focusing on playing well themselves.

Table 2.15 Raw data themes that represent coping strategies used by substitutes throughout the three phases of performance.

PRE-GAME Raw Data Themes	N	PRE-PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N
Avoidance strategy	2	Approach strategy (focused before playing)	5
Acceptance of coach decision	14	Approach strategy (focuses on playing well)	4
Approach strategy (cathartic release)	2	Approach focused on physical preparation	1
Approach strategy (focused during team talk)	2		

Goal Orientation

Pre-game: Ten players referred to whether they perceived themselves to have an outcome or performance goal orientation (Table 2.16). Four reported that they were still motivated to win, whilst six believed that performing well as an individual was more important than the outcome of the game.

Pre-performance: Six players commented that winning was no longer as important because they needed to perform well in order to regain their position in the starting eleven. **Performance:** Five reported being performance orientated and only two commented that they were motivated by the outcome of the game, thus winning was important.

Table 2.16 Raw data themes that represent goal orientations of substitutes throughout the three phases of performance.

PRE-GAME Raw Data Themes	N	PRE-PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N	PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N
Outcome orientated (wants to win)	4	Performance orientated	6	Performance orientated	5
Performance orientated (wants to play well)	6			Outcome orientated (wants to win)	2

Anxiety interpretation

Pre-performance: Table 2.17 illustrates substitutes' anxiety interpretation before being substituted on to play. Nine substitutes interpreted anxiety symptoms positively thus facilitative to performance whilst four reported symptoms as being debilitating for performance.

Table 2.17 Raw data themes that represent anxiety interpretation by substitutes before being substituted into the game.

PRE-PERFORMANCE Raw Data Themes	N	Anxiety Interpretation
Excited about going on to play	4	Anxiety interpreted as facilitative
Nerves have positive affect on performance	5	
Nerves cause them to play poorly	3	Anxiety interpreted as debilitating
Negative affect (not enough time to deal with them)	1	

2.7.4 Summary of Deductive Findings

Support that is presented here for individual constructs suggests that both Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory and Jones' (1995) model may be useful in explaining anxiety in substitutes. Support for the constructs in Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory can be seen as substitutes reported that being a substitute itself was threatening to performance as it prevented them from playing. In addition, being a substitute caused the player to experience a great deal of uncertainty about if or when they might be substituted into the game. Initially players reported reduced importance in status when they were first informed that they were a substitute. However as time went on it became important to them that they played well when substituted into the game. Consequently perceived threat was brought about

directly (preventing the player from playing) and indirectly as a result of perceived uncertainty and perceived importance regarding the substitutes' desired outcome, which was playing well in order to prove ability and regain status as a starting player. Further support is evident for Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory since some of the substitutes reported experiencing elevated state anxiety before they were substituted on to play.

The majority of substitutes also experienced reduced perceived control over their coaches' decisions that they would become a substitute. As indicated above, uncertainty about when they may be substituted into the game caused substitutes to perceive their preparation to be less under their control. Furthermore, substitutes reported performance and outcome goals consisting of wanting to win and wanting to play well. These type of goals reduce the possibility of goal attainment which is likely to lead to debilitating state anxiety (Jones, 1995). Therefore, although goal attainment expectancy was not reported per se, the type of goals substitutes set indicates that they may have low goal attainment expectancy as a result of reduced perceived control. Finally, further support for Jones' (1995) model is apparent as some substitutes reported anxiety to be facilitative for performance whilst others interpreted their anxiety to be debilitating for performance.

Overall, these deductive results indicate support for all constructs which suggests that both Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory and Jones' (1995) model may be useful for explaining the relationship between the substitute experience and anxiety. That is, the constructs 'perceived uncertainty of outcome' and 'perceived importance of outcome' from Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory, as well as reduced perceived control from Jones' (1995) model featured consistently in participant responses.

2.8 Discussion of Results for Study 1

Overall findings were consistent with existing research suggesting that becoming a substitute player in football is threatening (Dunn & Nielsen, 1996; Prapavessis et al., 1996; Williams et al., 2000).

Substitutes appear to have perceived their experience as threatening because it prevented them from performing, and exposed them to several undesirable organisational and competitive factors within their environment. These findings support research which proposes that different environments expose people to different stimuli resulting in different perceptions and reactions (Endler, 1981) and more specifically, that substitute and starters may experience different factors within a competitive setting (Morgan, 1980; Passer, 1983; Smith, 1983). These results suggest therefore that there may be a need to treat substitute and starter players as heterogeneous groups. Furthermore, these organisational and competitive factors were mainly interpreted as concerning and threatening to preparation and performance, resulting in individual difference factors such as, dissatisfaction, self-presentation concerns, reduced perceived control and elevated state anxiety, supporting research proposing that becoming a substitute results in a negative emotional response (Hansen, 2003; Rotella & Newburg, 1989; Wang et al., 2001). This sequence of events whereby substitutes interpreted factors within their environment as threatening, resulting in a negative emotional reaction, is synonymous with the Lazarus' (1991) stress response model. Thus, supporting the suggestion that the substitute experience is stressful, as suggested by existing research (Anshel et al., 2001; Fletcher & Hanton, 2003; Holt & Hogg, 2002; Woodman & Hardy, 2001).

Deductive findings supported constructs of Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory and Jones' (1995) model, with perceived uncertainty of outcome, perceived importance of outcome and reduced perceived control featuring consistently in participant responses. Coupled with the fact that reduced perceived control over the source of threat directly impacts competitive anxiety (Lazarus, 1991), this suggests that the anxiety response in substitute players may be an important finding of this research. However,

it is important to state that substitutes experienced various other emotional responses to their situation, not just anxiety. Hence, the most important points to derive from this study are that becoming a substitute player is stressful, resulting in negative organisational factors. Substitutes tend to interpret these as inhibiting to preparation and performance and thus experience a negative psychological response. These results also reinforce the suggestion that competitive and organisational stressors are prominent features in sport (Fletcher & Hanton, 2003; Hanton, Fletcher, & Coughlan, 2005; Woodman & Hardy, 2001).

2.8.1 Organisational and competitive stressors

Organisational factors identified in this research may be the equivalent to organisational stressors since according to Fletcher and Hanton (2003, p.190) “stressors that are associated primarily and directly with their appraisal of the structure and function of the sports organisation within which they are operating” may be termed organisational stressors. It appears that the main organisational factors that may be considered as sources of stress in substitutes were receiving short notice of team selection, being segregated, experiencing poor communication, inactivity, and restricted preparation. In addition to paralleling Woodman and Hardy’s (2001) finding that team selection is an organisational stressor, this investigation identified three additional organisational stressors specific to the substitute’s environment. Limited time, coach interaction and preparation for performance are clear examples of organisational stress, as outlined by Woodman and Hardy (2001) and Fletcher and Hanton (2003). Gilbert, Trundel, and Haughian (1999) reported that coaches tend to spend more time interacting with players who they perceived to be of greater ability. The circumstances in which substitutes may be required to play (e.g., to replace an injured player) also mean that current study participants tended to receive less time and structure to their physical preparation before being substituted on to play, resulting in reduced perceived readiness, a cause of anxiety in athletes (Hanton & Jones, 1995; Lane, Rodger, & Karageorghis, 1997; Lane, Terry, & Karageorghis, 1995; Jones, Swain, & Cale, 1990) as causes of anxiety in athletes. Poor coach communication which consisted of

the coach failing to explain to the player why they were a substitute during the pre-game phase, and limited verbal interaction with substitutes whilst they were on the bench during the pre-performance phase, supports Teipel's (1988) findings that there tends to be significantly greater communication between coaches and regular players than with substitutes. Effective communication is necessary in order for coaches and athletes to share expectations for performance (Shelley & Sherman, 1997) and poor communication is demotivating (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Turam, 2003) leading to conflict and uncertainty as well as lack of shared understanding between the coach and the athlete (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003). Recently Jowett et al. (2005) reported that players in team sports may experience a negative relationship with their coach when they become a substitute player due to trust and communication problems. However, this needs to be investigated further as current results only indicated evidence of poor communication in substitutes prior to and during competition. Research should examine more fully the implications of poor communication for the coach-substitute relationship.

Competitive factors may be synonymous with competitive stressors, since according to Hanton et al. (2005), competitive stressors are issues that have a direct impact on performance (e.g., such as the opposition). Competitive stressors experienced by substitutes in the current study included possessing limited time to perform and also performing in a high paced competitive environment.

The fact that stressors were experienced at different times in relation to the actual game is consistent with research investigating temporal patterning in stress (Cerin, Szabo, Hunt, & Williams, 2000). That is, the following organisational stressors: short notice and segregation, were experienced during the pre-game phase, whilst inactivity and restricted preparation were experienced during the pre-performance phase, and poor coach communication was reported during both phases. In contrast, competitive stressors were experienced by substitutes when they were substituted on to play. These

findings support Cerin et al.'s (2000) proposal for the need to explore temporal aspects of stress whereby an athlete's reaction stress is a process that unfolds over time.

Furthermore, since appraisal of stress is thought to affect quality of emotions and behaviours athletes exhibit (Lazarus & Folkman, 1991), individual athletes are likely to appraise organisational and competitive stressors differently (Lazarus, 1991) thus experiencing various individual emotional responses. Whilst it is not always the case that stress appraisal is always negative (Lazarus, 2000), results of the current investigation revealed spontaneous and negative responses to the substitute role, supporting research that suggests that becoming a substitute would result in negative emotions (Hansen, 2003; Rotella & Newburg, 1989; Wang et al., 2001). More specifically, this investigation identified precise emotions and individual difference factors that substitutes experienced in response to their stressful environment. That is, substitutes' interpretation of organisational and competitive stressors resulted in dissatisfaction, concerns about performance, self-presentation concerns, inhibited coach-athlete relationship, and elevated state anxiety.

2.8.2 Dissatisfaction and emotions experienced

Dissatisfaction with the substitute role and the substitute experience was frequently reported in the current investigation. This finding is consistent with research which states that team selection is a frequent cause for concern among athletes, with selected athletes experiencing more satisfaction than those who are not selected (Munroe, Albinson, & Hall, 1999; Neu, 1995). According to Chelladurai and Riemer (1997) satisfaction is displayed by an athlete when the athletic experience meets their personal standards or expectations. Failure to achieve one or perhaps all of these expectations will most likely result in dissatisfaction for a football substitute (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997). Thus dissatisfaction experienced by substitute players in the current research suggests they may perceive themselves as failing to fulfil their athletic expectations. Hansen (2003) proposed that substitutes' expectations are likely to consist of four key factors: 1) the ability to create and confirm their identity

as a good player, 2) to be part of a community and have a significant role in that community, 3) to earn money, and 4) to achieve positive ‘flow’ experiences when competing. Current findings provide support for factors 1, 2 and 4 as substitutes reported that being prevented from playing or inhibited from playing well were sources of dissatisfaction, although further examination of Hansen’s (2003) proposals is necessary.

Regardless of the specific causes of dissatisfaction, the substitute status and organisational stressors associated with this status, resulted in a negative emotional reaction in substitute players interviewed for this study. This supports Prapavessis’ (2000) proposal that pre-competitive playing status is a situational factor that is likely to impact mood state profiles. More specifically, Rotella and Newburg (1989) stated that when an athlete is prevented from performing this results in feelings of bitterness and rejection. Blinde and Stratta (1992) explain that this is the case because unexpected and uncontrollable situations are stressful resulting in negative emotions. Furthermore, Wang et al. (2001) stated that substitutes tend to experience negative emotions when they feel under pressure to prove their ability. However, in addition to bitterness and rejection as identified by Rotella and Newburg (1989) the current findings indicate that substitutes experience emotions such as anger, frustration, and shock during the pre-game phase, and although they no longer reported shock during the pre-performance phase, substitutes remained angry, frustrated and upset whilst sitting on the bench. That is, the immediate response to becoming a substitute instigated an initial negative reaction whilst further emotional reactions occurred in response to organisational stressors experienced during the pre-performance phase. This sequential emotional reaction reflects the unfolding stressful encounter that an individual is experiencing (Cerin et al., 2000). Understanding the sequence of emotions provides detail on the frequency and quality of emotions, thus a more complete understanding of the athlete’s experience than would be obtained had findings focused exclusively on anxiety (Cerin et al., 2000).

2.8.3 Self-presentation concerns

In addition to experiencing negative emotions some substitutes reported some concerns about how significant others (i.e., coaches, parents, and talent scouts) might view them because of their playing status. This supports Leary's (1992) suggestion that 'benchwarmers' in team sports are faced with self-presentation concerns due to the fact that their status casts undesirable impressions of their ability. Equally, Grove et al. (2004) reported that if a player perceives that being a substitute is synonymous with failure, he/she is more likely to change his/her self-presentation to promote a positive image of the self. Self-esteem maintenance and the development of identity are goals of self-presentation (Leary, 1990) and the degree to which an individual strives to achieve these goals when presented with self-presentation concerns is referred to as impression (self-presentational) motivation (Leary, 1990). Therefore, it is not surprising that the current findings indicate that substitutes experienced impression motivation during the performance phase, whereby they were mindful of giving a good impression of their ability when they performed. However, James and Collins (1997) state that each athlete is motivated to achieve self-presentation goals to varying degrees depending on the value of the desired outcome (James & Collins, 1997). If a substitute places high importance on proving their ability, thus achieving self-presentation goals, then they will have high levels of impression motivation, and work hard to attain their goals and regain a place as a starter within the team. Alternatively, they may use self-presentation strategies such as self-handicapping whereby they make excuses in order to protect their esteem and save face in the event of a negative performance outcome (Gould, Brounstein, & Sigall, 1977).

However, current findings revealed that substitutes were highly motivated to impression manage but also self-handicapped by not preparing for as they should for competition. Participants reported reduced motivation and reduced effort to physically and mentally prepare for competition when they were a substitute player. This is surprising since according to Leary and Kowalski (1990), when the desire to maintain self-esteem and identity is high, effort to attain goals and work hard should also be

high. The fact that this did not appear to be the case in substitutes may be explained by the reports by substitutes that they had high perceived ability even though they were not selected. This is in line with the suggestion by Wang et al. (2001) that some substitutes may possess high perceived ability therefore not believe that they must prove their ability. On the other hand, reduced motivation in substitutes may also be a form of self-protection, whereby they focus on potential self-handicaps such as lack of effort or unfavourable circumstances prior to performing in order to protect their perceived ability and facilitate self-enhancement should they under perform (Leary & Sheppherd, 1986; Levesque, Lowe & Mendenhall, 2001). Evidence of self-protecting by substitutes in this research includes reduced effort to prepare and focusing on competitive factors such as 'limited time to perform' and 'high paced game'. However, Prapavessis, Grove, and Eklund (2004) are careful to point out that it is difficult to know whether such claims reflect realistic obstructions or whether they are self-presentation ploys. Nevertheless, Higgins (1990) reported that self-handicapping is likely to occur in an environment where there is uncertainty about success and failure could threaten a performer's esteem. Thus, it may be suggested that given the environmental factors substitutes are exposed to, they are likely to make verbal claims that certain factors may interfere with performance in order to protect self-presentation goals (maintain self-esteem and develop identity). In fact, this is consistent with research by Grove et al. (2004) who found that non selected performers were more likely to use self-protecting strategies than their team mates who were selected.

In addition, the proposal that self-handicapping and self-presentation are linked to tension and apprehension especially when performers doubt their ability to achieve self-presentation goals during competition (Bray, Martin, & Widmeyer, 2000; James & Collins, 1997; Leary, 1992; Prapavessis et al., 2004; Wilson & Eklund, 1998) is supported in the current findings. That is, substitutes experienced self-presentation concerns and elevated state anxiety during the pre-performance phase. In fact, results also revealed factors other than self-presentation which may also have contributed

towards elevated state anxiety. Deductive analysis results revealed that substitutes also experienced perceived uncertainty of outcome, perceived importance of outcome, and reduced perceived control. Therefore suggesting that perceived threat (multiplicative product of perceived uncertainty and reduced perceived importance of outcome), a construct in Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory of competitive anxiety and reduced perceived control, a construct in Jones' (1995) control model of debilitating and facilitative anxiety, may also lead to increased state anxiety.

2.8.4 Anxiety

In addition to support for these precursors of anxiety, substitutes also reported that they experienced elevated state anxiety during the pre-performance phase. These findings suggest that both perceived threat *and* perceived control may be important for predicting anxiety. This would be in accordance with Lazarus' (1991) stress response model, whereby negative emotions are experienced when performers perceive themselves to have little control over reducing perceived threat. Moreover, Craft et al. (2003) proposed that reduced control over performance also leads to increased uncertainty and increased state anxiety intensity, suggesting that perceived control and perceived threat (consisting of perceived uncertainty of outcome and perceived importance of outcome) may be theoretically linked. If this is the case it may also explain why research (Jones & Hanton, 1996; Marchant et al., 1998; Prapavessis et al., 1996; Williams et al., 2000) that has investigated relationships between constructs in Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory and Jones' (1995) model was inconclusive. Furthermore, a model or theory of anxiety that includes both constructs may be more comprehensive.

Coping strategies appeared to be important in determining whether anxiety was interpreted as facilitative or debilitating. That is, anxiety intensity was not interpreted as debilitating to performance by all participants. This can be explained by the fact that the substitutes reported using adaptive coping strategies in response to their situation and also reported high perceived ability.

This is consistent with the proposals of Jones' (1995) model whereby positive expectancy of being able to cope is more likely to result in facilitative state anxiety and research which found that self-confidence can protect athletes from experiencing debilitating thoughts and feelings in relation to competition (Hanton et al., 2004, Jones, Hanton & Swain, 1994; Mellalieu, et al., 2003). Specifically self-confidence is proposed to protect against debilitating interpretation of anxiety by allowing the performer to focus on positive self-belief as well as rational thoughts about performance (Hanton et al., 2004). Furthermore, participants in Hanton et al.'s (2004) research also reported experiencing increased motivation and effort when they had high self-confidence. Therefore, findings of current research support existing research suggesting that self-confidence may be an individual difference factor responsible for mediating anxiety interpretation.

However, despite support for self-confidence as an individual difference factor, overall results did not support the individual difference factors put forward by literature in relation to individual differences outlined in Jones (1995) model, although affect may have been supported with substitutes reporting strong emotional reactions to their playing status. Research has suggested that negative affect and emotions are linked to debilitating anxiety and positive emotions and facilitative anxiety are linked (Jones & Hanton, 1996; O'Brien et al., 2002). However, current findings cannot confirm or disconfirm this proposal, merely provide support for the fact that negative affect was prominent response in substitutes.

2.8.5 Concerns during performance

Being a substitute may not only affect pre-competition state of mind, but also how the substitute feels whilst the game is in progress. Cognitive interference is disruptions to concentration or thoughts that individuals experience whilst executing a task and is not related to the execution itself (Sarason, 1984). According to Hatzigeorgiadis and Biddle (2002) an athlete must avoid being distracted by such factors in order to achieve optimal performance. It may be debateable whether or not a

substitute can experience cognitive interference since they are not actively participating in a task, however, they are required to physically prepare and warm up whilst on the sideline. Failure to focus on their warm up and dwelling on negative feelings related to their status may affect their performance should they get on to play. Cognitive interference is also more likely to occur when there are discrepancies between goals and behaviour. That is, if a performer fears that they may not achieve their goals, and there is little they can do to recover control over attaining their goals, they will experience interference and withdrawal thoughts (Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 2002). This may have occurred in substitutes because they reported setting performance goals which less controllable than task goals because they are externally and comparatively evaluated (Nicholls, 1984). Consequently, substitutes may be more likely to experience less goal attainment expectancy and cognitive interference by setting performance or outcome goals in an environment where they have reduced perceived control. By setting more task orientated goals substitutes would enhance control of themselves by focusing on the process that they need to fulfil rather than the end result, thus experience less cognitive interference (Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 2002).

2.8.6 Limitations and future research

Findings from the present research should be interpreted within the limitations of the study. Interviews were carried out on football players therefore responses and experiences may vary across sports depending on situational factors. Substitute players in sports such as field hockey and basketball are regularly substituted on and off for tactical reasons during the game. These players may know that they are likely to play; therefore, they may not experience the same organisational and competitive stressors or psychological responses as football substitutes. Furthermore, it is unclear whether substitutes interviewed in the present study were discussing their experiences based on the fact that they had become a substitute player just once or whether they were consistently a substitute player. Players who were consistently a substitute may have reported more negative emotions and

dissatisfaction due to the fact that they were consistently prevented from performing. Conversely, they may also have experienced less dissatisfaction if they were more familiar with substitute status.

As interviews were only carried out with substitute players and not starter players it may be possible that substitute players have similar experiences to starter players. Future research should investigate differences in mood and psychological responses to playing status between substitute and starter players, in order to establish whether results identified in this research are only manifest in substitute players. Furthermore, since results outlining negative response to becoming a substitute were based on recall, it may be more suitable to measure state responses prior to competition in order to ensure that considerable detail of substitute experience is obtained.

Finally, although results infer a relationship between the constructs in Jones' (1995) control model, and Martens et al's (1990a) theory of competitive anxiety, it is impossible to confirm reliable causality using a qualitative design. Whilst participants' responses provided rich descriptions of substitutes experiences, which facilitated verification of *a priori* assumptions and existing theoretical constructs (Strean, 1998), these results can not confirm relationships between these constructs therefore further research is required to do so.

Based on the findings and limitations of the present study, the remainder of this thesis will explore the substitute experience further by comparing mood, self-presentation concerns and state anxiety and self-confidence between substitute and starter players in study 2. Study 3 will investigate the coach-substitute relationship in order to examine the implications that reduced communication may have on the relationship between substitute players and their coaches. Finally, study 4 will consist of a longitudinal investigation of mood, self-presentation concerns, anxiety and self-confidence in

substitute players, examining the use of cognitive behavioural interventions for enhancing the substitute experience.

Chapter 3: Introduction for Study 2

3.1 Findings from Study 1

Overall findings from study 1 reveal that substitute and starter players in football may not be a homogeneous group despite the fact that they play the same sport. Participants in study 1 reported experiencing organisational factors whilst they were a substitute player which they perceived to be different from when they typically started a game. Consequently, substitutes reported experiencing more negative emotions than they experienced as a starter player, as well as increased self-presentation concerns and elevated state anxiety prior to performance. Therefore, the purpose of study two is to compare substitutes and starter players with specific reference to mood, self-presentation concerns, competitive anxiety and self-confidence. This will allow an examination of whether these factors are indeed prevalent in substitute players, and whether there are significant differences in mood, self-presentation concerns, anxiety and self-confidence between substitute and starter players in football.

3.2 Literature Review for Study 2

3.2.1 Playing status and mood

Mood is an enduring state or general feeling brought about by emotional responses to the environment (Ekman, 1994; Lane & Terry, 1999, 2000) which is likely to be impacted by team selection and playing status in team sports (Prapavessis, 2000). According to Prapavessis (2000) players who are selected to start a game potentially experience a positive mood profile because they experience less stressors in their environment thus perceive themselves to be exposed to less pressure than substitute players. Substitute players in study 1 reported experiencing various negative emotional reactions in response to organisational and competitive stressors within their environment, as well as actually being told that they were a substitute in the first place. Emotions included anger, frustration, annoyance, confusion, shock, and disappointment (Tables 2.3 and 2.5). Based on the

earlier definition that mood is an enduring state influenced by emotional responses (Ekman, 1994; Lane & Terry, 1999, 2000) findings from study 1 suggest that playing status may have a significant impact on the emotions thus mood state of performers in team sports. However, a direct comparison between substitutes and starters would provide greater support for these claims. Unfortunately, research that has investigated mood and team selection is limited to studies which have used team selection as a performance measure in order to distinguish between the mood states of successful and non successful athletes (Craighead, Privette, Vallianos, & Byrkit, 1986; Miller & Miller, 1985). That is, participants completed mood scales prior to team selection in an attempt to distinguish between successful (selected) and unsuccessful (non-selected) performers based on mood scores. Results indicated that there were no significant differences in mood between those who were selected and those who were not selected, which initially suggests that Prapavessis' (2000) claim that substitutes and starters should experience different mood profiles is incorrect. However, on closer inspection participants in these three studies (Craighead et al., 1986; Miller & Miller, 1985) completed the mood scales *prior* to team selection thus it is likely they were in fact exposed to the same athletic experience, providing an explanation for their similar mood profiles. Situational differences (Beedie, Terry, Lane, 2000; Terry, 1995) and competitive environments are more likely to impact mood state due to the changing nature of competitive environments and emotional responses to individual differences (Lane & Chappell, 2001; Prapavessis, 2000; Terry & Lane, 2000). Thus had mood been measured *after* team selection was made there may have been more differences apparent between selected and non selected athletes. As research has not yet sufficiently investigated Prapavessis' (2000) claims that playing status affects mood state, it may be beneficial to investigate the influence that team selection and becoming a substitute player may have on mood in performers of team sports.

The majority of early research investigating the impact of situational factors and individual differences on mood has been equivocal (Durtschi & Weiss, 1986; Dyer & Crouch, 1987; Riddick,

1984). However, recent studies suggest that team cohesion (Lowther & Lane, 2002; Terry, Carro, Pink, Lane, Jones, & Hall, 2000), satisfaction (Bartholomew & Miller, 2002; Lane, Jackson, & Terry, 2005) and goal achievement (Terry & Lane, 2000) can influence mood state. Terry et al. (2000) reported higher task and social cohesion lead to less depression, tension, anger and more vigour, thus a positive mood state. This suggests that performers who experience low task or social attraction to a team may experience increased depression, tension and less vigour which are representative of a negative mood state.

In exercise settings it has been shown that enjoyment and satisfaction of the chosen task can moderate changes in mood (Bartholomew & Miller, 2002; Lane, et al., 2005a). That is, a performer's perception of their situation may affect mood during exercise. Furthermore, Terry and Lane (2000) reported that mood responses were more positive in athletes who were more successful in achieving performance goals. This could mean that if substitutes are inhibited from achieving their goals they are more likely to experience a negative mood state. Findings from these studies (Bartholomew & Miller, 2002; Lane et al., 2005a; Lowther & Lane, 2002; Terry & Lane, 2000; Terry et al., 2000b) are consistent with the findings from study 1, whereby the majority of substitutes reported reduced satisfaction, uncertainty concerning achieving their goals, and some reported low task cohesion. Thus it may be suggested that these studies (Bartholomew & Miller, 2002; Lane et al. 2005; Lowther & Lane, 2002; Terry & Lane, 2000; Terry et al., 2000) offer indirect support for the proposal that emotions and more specifically mood may be different between substitute and starter players (Prapavessis, 2000).

According to Prapavessis (2000) athletes should possess appropriate emotions prior to competition to facilitate optimal mood and successful performance. The appropriateness of certain emotions in sport has been examined over the years using the Profile of Mood State (POMS) questionnaire devised by

McNair, Lorr and Droppleman (1971). The POMS (McNair et al., 1971) evaluates six emotions (anger, tension, depression, fatigue, confusion and vigour) to give an indication of a person's mood profile.

Morgan (1979, 1985) reported that athletes should generally display more vigour and less anger, tension, depression, fatigue and confusion when performing. This trend became known as the iceberg profile, as when presented graphically vigour is the only subscale to exhibit a peak in score. Research also indicates that each of the negative mood states are highly inter correlated (Grove & Prapavessis, 1992; Terry et al., 1999; Watson & Clark, 1997). Grove and Prapavessis (1992) reported that depression correlated with anger, confusion and tension, whilst anger was correlated with tension and confusion. Terry, Lane, Lane, & Keohane (1999) later demonstrated support for these findings, as they reported that depression correlated with anger, confusion, tension and fatigue, and anger correlated with confusion, fatigue and tension. Furthermore, Terry et al. (1999) also reported that vigour significantly correlated with positive affect (pleasurable engagement) whilst anger, confusion, depression, fatigue and tension all significantly correlated with negative affect (subjective stress). Due to the popularity of the POMS the majority of research investigating mood in sport has focused on the predictability of athletic performance based on mood profiles. Recently Lane and Terry (2000) stated that positive mood comprising of high intensity vigour also resulted in increased effort and goal attainment due to the link between vigour and heightened performance arousal. Consequently, individual and situational factors such as team cohesion and dissatisfaction that result in high intensity confusion, tension, anger, and depression, may result in reduced effort, less goal attainment and negative performance (Lane & Terry, 2000). If this proposal (Lane & Terry 2000) is accurate then findings from study 1 which indicate that substitutes experienced anger, depression, frustration, and tension, suggest that performance may be inhibited for substitute players. However, because the intensity of these emotions was not directly measured, it is not feasible to confirm that substitutes'

mood profile was considerably negative in response to their environment. Emotions vary in type and intensity (Close, 1994; Jones, 2003; Mahoney, 1989); therefore it is important to directly measure the intensity of the emotions reported by substitutes in study 1 to ascertain whether or not they are likely to have a detrimental effect on performance.

Mood state has been proposed to be an important indicator of performance in sport (Prapavessis, 2000) and a useful discriminating factor between successful and non successful athletes (Craighead, Privette, Vallianos, & Byrkit, 1986; Daiss, LeUnes, & Nation, 1986; Durtschi & Weiss, 1986; Grove & Prapavessis, 1992; Miller & Miller, 1985; Silva, Shultz, Haslam, Martin, & Murray, 1985; Wilson, Morley, & Bird, 1980). Silva et al. (1985) attempted to discriminate between qualifying and non qualifying wrestlers (qualifiers finished 1st or 2nd in their trials, non qualifiers finished 3rd or lower) and found that qualifiers were generally more positive and displayed a POMS profile that was consistent with the ice-berg profile, than non qualifiers. Thus supporting the notion that mood can help to discriminate between successful and non successful athletes. Wilson et al. (1980) also found that this was the case between marathon runners and recreational joggers, with marathon runners displaying more vigour and less depression anger, and confusion than joggers. The POMS was completed before the trials. However, despite this support for the ice-berg profile being able to discriminate between achievement and non achievement, some studies (Craighead et al., 1986; Daiss et al., 1986; Durtschi & Weiss, 1986; Miller & Miller, 1985) and more recent meta-analyses have concluded that mood responses do not reliably facilitate differentiation between different levels of athletic achievement (Beedie et al., 2000, Rowley, et al., 1995). However, Miller and Miller (1985) and Craighead et al.'s (1986) research used team selection as a performance measure in order to distinguish between successful and non successful athletes in terms of mood state. That is, mood state was measured prior to team selection in an attempt to ascertain whether or not there were significant differences for mood between players who were subsequently selected and those who were not.

Results indicated that there was no significant difference in mood state between those who were selected and those who were not selected suggesting the mood can not predict achievement in this instance. Nevertheless, as performers completed the mood scales prior to team selection it is likely they were experiencing the same athletic experience and therefore are likely to experience a similar mood. That is individual and situational differences (Beedie et al., 2000; Terry, 1995) are more likely to have an impact on mood and performance, therefore, had mood been measured after team selection was made, there may have been more apparent differences between selected and non selected athletes. This notion is supported by Rowley, Landers, and Kylo (1995) who stated that there may be other factors that influence mood initially and subsequently performance. Some of these factors include athlete experience (Rowley et al., 1995), athletes' training sessions prior to competition, and variables specific to the particular sport being played (Beedie et al., 2000; Prapavessis & Grove, 1991; Terry, 1995). One such variable may be playing status.

Therefore, it may be more important to understand the factors which initially alter mood in order to better understand the mood-performance relationship. Rowley et al. (1995) stated that it may be more appropriate to monitor athlete's individual differences or changes to mood in response to success, thus generating their own individual profile which may or may not reflect a classic iceberg profile. This is also supported by recent meta analyses by Beedie et al. (2000) who stated that it is possible to use mood to predict performance when using self-referenced criteria in open skilled sports of short duration. Furthermore, it has been suggested that individual emotions influencing mood may be more indicative of performance than an overall score for mood (Beedie et al., 2000). For example, anger may be interpreted as being facilitative for performance in some situations and not others. Similarly high vigour may inhibit performance in certain skills. Therefore, it is possible that by being aware of factors that influence mood as well as individual mood dimension scores may be more useful in predicting the mood-performance relationship in sport.

That is, the majority of research investigating mood in sport has focused on the predictability of athletic performance based on mood profiles, rather than investigating factors that may initiate a positive or negative mood in a performer. This is a major limitation of mood literature in sport, since pre-competitive situations are likely to impact mood state due to the changing nature of competitive environments and emotional responses to individual differences (Terry & Lane, 2000; Prapavessis, 2000). That is, situational differences have a significant influence on the intensity of mood responses in athletes (Terry & Lane, 2000), suggesting that moment-to-moment changes in the environment may alter emotional response, thus impacting mood state. Consequently, performance can be predicted based on mood scores only when situational factors that may impact mood scores have been accounted for (Terry, 1995). In order to do this, we must identify what these moderating factors are, however, there is little research into factors that affect/moderate mood thus influence performance. Although according to Beedie et al. (2000) such factors include type of skills, duration of the event, whether it is a team or individual event and finally the measure of performance that is used. Therefore, it is important that we are aware of situational factors such as playing status that may alter emotions in the first instance (Prapavessis, 2000).

3.2.2 Playing status and self-presentation concerns

Participation in sport provides an athlete with the opportunity to convey the image that they are a talented, skilled performer (Grove & Dodder, 1982). Conversely, it may also convey the opposite if the athlete is prevented from performing (Leary, 1992). That is, in addition to influencing mood, team selection may carry negative implications for impression management in athletes who are not selected to perform. Impression management refers to the process by which people monitor how they are perceived by others (Schlenker, 1980). In order to be perceived positively athletes must maintain their self-esteem and athletic identity (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). If an athlete is placed in a situation whereby these goals become threatened or indeed they are not achieved at all, the athlete will experience self-presentation concerns (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). Self-presentation concerns are

athletes' worries about how others may perceive them (Higgins, 1990; Leary, 1992; Leary & Kowalski, 1990). Non-selected performers may be required to engage in more impression management strategies if they are concerned that people may generate a negative impression of them based on their playing status (Higgins, 1990; Leary, 1992; Leary & Kowalski, 1990). That is, Leary (1992) proposed that substitute players may experience self-presentation concerns because non-participation conveys an impression to others that the athlete's ability and value to the team are limited, at least in the eyes of the coach.

Although direct examination of Leary's (1992) proposal has not been carried out, research has identified a link between threatened athletic identity and team selection. Research by Grove et al. (2004) revealed that athletic identity decreased significantly over time in athletes who were not selected to perform for their team in comparison with athletes who were selected to perform. In fact changes to identity were restricted to players who did not make the team, leading Grove et al. (2004) to conclude that situational factors such as team selection play an important role in the development of athletic identity. Therefore, team selection may also result in self-presentation concerns, as suggested by Leary (1992), because according to Leary and Kowalski (1990) athletic identity must be developed and self-esteem maintained in order to satisfy self-presentation (Leary & Kowalski, 1990).

3.2.3 Self-presentation concerns and anxiety

Self-presentation is also associated with competitive anxiety, as according to Leary (1992) competitive anxiety is a class of social anxiety that revolves around the self-presentational implications of competition. Consequently, anxiety increases when a performer perceives that presentation of the self has been threatened (Leary, 1992; Wilson & Bray, 1998). Several studies have found support for the relationship between self-presentation concerns and competitive anxiety, particularly cognitive anxiety in sport (Bray et al., 2000; Hudson & Williams, 2001; James & Collins, 1995; James & Collins, 1997; Wilson & Eklund, 1998).

James and Collins (1997) investigated the degree that self-presentation caused stress in athletes from both individual and team sports. Interview analysis revealed that self-presentation concerns were key sources of stress but more specifically self-presentational mechanisms accounted for almost 60% of statements regarding doubts and competitive anxiety. From these results James and Collins (1997) concluded that self-presentation concerns may lead to competitive anxiety when performers believe self-presentational goals have been threatened. Subsequent studies have found similar results but they also identified that the subcomponents of competitive anxiety may be experienced to varying degrees depending on the degree of self-presentational threat. Wilson and Eklund (1998) discovered that cognitive anxiety, in the form of worries about performing well, was associated with self-presentational threat during competition. In contrast somatic anxiety had a weak correlation with self-presentation concerns. Bray et al. (2000) found similar results when they examined the relationship between evaluative concerns and pre-competitive state anxiety in elite skiers. Bray et al.'s (2000) results revealed that worrying about what significant others may think in general was significantly related to cognitive and somatic anxiety. However, when skiers specifically worried about performing well when significant others were watching, these concerns were only significantly related to cognitive anxiety. Wilson and Eklund (1998) explained that the pattern of association between self-presentation and anxiety subcomponents may be explained by the fact that there are different antecedents of cognitive and somatic anxiety. Somatic anxiety is typically associated with non-evaluative environmental stimuli, whilst cognitive anxiety is related to the likelihood of achieving success (Martens et al., 1990b). Consequently, it may be more likely that self-presentation concerns associated with performing well or proving ability to others may result in increased cognitive anxiety.

However, anxiety is not only caused by self-presentation concerns, perceived uncertainty, reduced perceived control and perceived threat are also linked with increased state anxiety (Lox, 1992;

Marchant et al., 1998; Martens et al., 1990a; Prapavessis et al., 1996). More specifically, Lox (1992) reported that uncertainty was related to elevated cognitive anxiety, and Prapavessis et al. (1996) stated that perceived threat also had an effect on cognitive anxiety. Based on these findings (Bray et al., 2000; James & Collins, 1995; James & Collins, 1997; Leary, 1992; Lox, 1992; Prapavessis et al., 1996; Wilson & Eklund, 1998), along with the findings from study 1, it is feasible to suggest that substitute players who experience self-presentation concerns, perceived threat and perceived uncertainty may experience greater cognitive anxiety intensity than starter players. However, since sports performers also report directional perceptions of their anxiety symptoms (Fletcher & Hanton, 2000; Hanton & Jones, 1997; Jones & Swain, 1992; Jones, Swain & Hardy, 1993; Mellalieu & Hall, 2002; Wiggins, 1998) an investigation of the anxiety response to playing status must consider the fact that some substitutes may interpret anxiety as facilitative whilst others' interpretation is debilitating. That is, elevated anxiety intensity is not invariably negative as some athletes may interpret symptoms as excitement or perceived readiness (Hanton et al., 2005; Jones, 1995). Anxiety may be negative, thus perceived as debilitating to performance if athletes experience reduced perceived control, negative emotions, or reduced self-confidence (Hanton, Mellalieu, & Hall, 2004; Jones, 1995; Mellalieu, Hanton, & Jones, 2003). In a qualitative study by Hanton et al. (2005) debilitating anxiety in elite performers was symptomatic of preparation concerns and competition concerns, such as worrying about letting others down, or doubting race plans or strategies.

Debilitating anxiety may occur when the athlete experiences heightened negative emotions in relation to performance. Performers in Mellalieu et al.'s (2003) study who interpreted anxiety as facilitative experienced significantly more positive emotional states than individuals who interpreted anxiety as debilitating to performance. Furthermore, Hanton et al. (2005) found that fluctuating levels of self-confidence and reduced perceived control over cognitive and somatic symptoms of anxiety may also cause anxiety intensity to be interpreted as debilitating to performance. Self-confidence can protect

athletes from experiencing debilitating thoughts and feelings in relation to competition (Hanton et al., 2004) whilst anxiety symptoms which are perceived to be under personal control are related to facilitative interpretations (Hanton & Connaughton, 2002; Jones, 1995). Consequently, as substitutes in study 1 reported reduced perceived control and negative emotional reactions to their playing status, it is plausible to suggest that playing status may result in substitutes experiencing more debilitating anxiety than starter players due to reduced perceived control and negative emotions associated with their experience.

Therefore, the purpose of study two is to examine mood, self-presentation, anxiety and self-confidence in substitute players and to compare these components in substitute and starter players.

3.2.4 Hypotheses for study 2

1. Substitutes will experience significantly more negative emotions (depression, tension, fatigue, anger and confusion) than starters.
2. Starters will experience significantly more vigour than substitute players.
3. Substitutes will experience higher self-presentation concerns than starter players.
4. Specifically, substitutes will experience significantly more performance inadequacy concerns and concerns about appearing athletically untalented than starter players.
5. Substitutes will experience greater intensity levels for cognitive and somatic anxiety before competition than starter players.
6. Substitutes will interpret this anxiety intensity as being significantly more debilitating than starters.
7. Substitutes will experience significantly less self-confidence than starter players.
8. Substitutes will interpret self-confidence intensity as being significantly more debilitating than starters.

3.3 Methods for Study 2

3.3.1 Participants

Participants were 124 amateur club and collegiate football players consisting of 58 starters and 66 substitutes. In order to participate in this study all substitute players needed to be fit to compete and not substituted due to injury. All participants volunteered and provided informed consent to take part.

3.3.2 Measures

Mood State

Mood was assessed using the Brunel Mood Scale (BRUMS: Terry et al., 1999; 2003). The BRUMS is a modified version of the Profile of Mood States (McNair et al., 1971) that contains 24 items to measure six dimensions of mood: anger, confusion, depression, fatigue, tension and vigour. Each item is rated on a five-point scale anchored by *not at all* (0) and *extremely* (4). Although originally developed to assess mood in adolescent populations (Terry et al., 1999) support has been found for the use of the BRUMS with adults (Terry et al., 2003). Validation studies have demonstrated support for the psychometric integrity of the BRUMS. The factor structure and internal consistency of this instrument have been confirmed (Terry et al., 1999; Terry et al., 2003) with Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from 0.76 to 0.90 for the six subscales.

Self-Presentation Concerns

Self-presentation concerns were assessed using the Self-Presentation in Sport Questionnaire (SPSQ: Wilson & Eklund, 1998). This is a sport specific measure of self-presentation concerns consisting of 33 items and four subscales (self-presentation concerns about performance inadequacies (CPI), appearing fatigued (CAF), physical appearance (CPA), and appearing athletically untalented (CAU). Respondents use a scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always) to indicate their degree of self-presentation concern with specific reference to being a 'substitute' or a 'player'. That is, the response

set for the SPSQ was modified to measure state self-presentation concerns. The factor structure and internal consistency of this instrument have been confirmed with Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from 0.90 to 0.93 for the four subscales, however its convergent validity and temporal stability have not yet been examined.

A-State

The Competitive State Anxiety Inventory–2 (CSAI–2: Martens et al., 1990a), as modified by Jones and Swain (1992) was used to assess intensity and directional perceptions of cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety, and, self-confidence. The same 27 items (9 for each of cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety and self-confidence) are used to assess intensity and directional perceptions of anxiety, with differing instructions and response formats for each anxiety dimension. Respondents use a scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 4 (*very much so*) to indicate their anxiety intensity, thus scores on each of these subscales range from 9 to 36. Martens et al. (1990a) have demonstrated the internal reliability of this measure with Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from 0.79 to 0.90 for the 3 subscales. Respondents indicate their directional perceptions of anxiety by considering the degree to which they feel their intensity level of anxiety on each item will be facilitative or debilitating for performance. A scale ranging from –3 to +3 is used, with possible scores on each subscale ranging from –27 to +27. Facilitative perceptions are indicated by positive, and debilitating perceptions by negative, scores on these items. Internal reliability has been demonstrated for the cognitive and somatic anxiety direction subscales with alpha coefficients ranging from, respectively, 0.80 to 0.89, and, 0.72 to 0.84 (Jones & Hanton, 1996; Swain & Jones, 1996).

3.3.3 Procedures

Ethical approval was obtained from a university ethics committee prior to the commencement of data collection. Each participant was given a pack of three questionnaires (BRUMS, SPSQ and Modified

CSAI-2) and asked to return completed questionnaires anonymously in the post which allowed data to be randomly entered into an excel spread sheet. Initially participants were asked to complete all three questionnaires at least one hour before competition; however, during the early stages of data collection it became evident that participants were not motivated to complete three questionnaires due to time constraints. Therefore, in order to maximise the response rate participants were subsequently requested to complete as many questionnaires as possible (but ideally all three) at least one hour before games commenced. As a result, not all participants completed all three questionnaires resulting in disproportionate totals for each questionnaire (see. 3.4.1 in Results section). Furthermore, prior to data analysis samples, for starters and substitutes were disproportionate for each questionnaire. Brace, Kemp, and Snelgar (2000) stated that equal sample sizes and a reasonable number of participants in each group will protect against violations that may inhibit the use of multivariate analysis. Therefore, in order to achieve equal sample sizes for data analysis some data were not included in the final analysis and as data was randomly entered they were subsequently randomly omitted.

3.3.4 Data Analysis

Multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVAs) were used to examine differences between substitute and starter players for mood, self-presentation concerns and anxiety. Specifically three separate MANOVAs were conducted to examine differences between substitutes and starters for subcomponents of the BRUMS (anger, confusion, depression, fatigue, tension and vigour), the SPSQ (self-presentation concerns about performance inadequacies, concerns about appearing fatigued, physical appearance concerns, and concerns about appearing athletically untalented) and the modified CSAI-2 (intensity and directional perceptions of cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety, and, self-confidence). Multicollinearity was investigated using correlation analysis. Univariate analysis and discriminant function analysis were to determine which of the dependent variables maximally differentiated between substitute and starter players. For the SPSQ each subscale has a different

maximum score. That is the maximum score for performance inadequacy concerns and fatigue concerns is 40, whilst the maximum scores for concerns about appearing athletically untalented and physical appearance concerns are 28 and 24 respectively. The maximum score for each of the six subscales for the BRUMS is 24. Finally, scores for CSAI-2 intensity range from 9-26 whilst possible scores for CSAI-2 interpretation range from -27 to +27.

3.4 Results for Study 2

3.4.1 Demographics for questionnaire completion

A total of 192 questionnaires were completed by 124 participants. This consisted of sixty Modified CSAI-2 questionnaires, completed by 30 substitute players (mean age 19.93 ± 3.05) and 30 by starter players (mean age of 20.1 ± 4.52 years). Seventy four players completed the SPSQ consisting of 37 substitutes (mean age 20.19 ± 3.21 years) and 37 starter players (mean age 21.38 ± 4.6 years). Fifty-eight players completed the BRUMS questionnaire consisting of 29 substitutes and 29 starters (mean age 19.7 ± 3.9 years).

3.4.2 BRUMS results

All raw scores for BRUMS questionnaires were transformed into standardised T-scores which can be compared with original normative data established by McNair et al. (1971). This was achieved using the following formula:

$$T = 50 + \frac{10(n-m)}{s}$$

<p>n = raw score m = mean s = standard deviation</p>
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Using this formula, all scores can be compared with scores on the standardised scale with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 (Terry & Lane, 2000).

3.4.2.1 Correlation

Initial correlations testing for multicollinearity revealed significant correlations between dependent the six constructs in the BRUMS (see Appendix 9). Therefore, both multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and discriminant analysis (exploring these underlying relationships) were completed (Field, 2005). Combined scores for substitutes and starters revealed significant positive correlations between depression and anger ($r=.73$, $n = 58$, $p<0.01$), tension and fatigue ($r=.29$, $n=58$, $p<0.05$), tension and confusion ($r=.38$, $n=58$, $p<0.01$), anger and confusion ($r=.47$, $n=58$, $p<0.01$) and a significant negative correlation was found between depression and vigour ($r=-.33$, $n=58$, $p<0.05$).

3.4.2.2 MANOVA

Despite Box's test of equality of covariance indicating that the homogeneity assumption for BRUMS was violated (Appendix 10), equal sample sizes were used in this analysis, thus allowing a more robust multivariate test called Hotelling's Trace to be used (Brace et al., 2000; Field, 2005). Results indicated an overall multivariate effect for BRUMS ($F_{(6,51)}=.523$, $p<.001$; Hotelling's Trace = 4.445; partial eta squared = .343, See Appendix 10 for outputfiles). Partial eta squared indicated a small effect size (>0.2 , Cohen, 1988). Follow up univariate analyses using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of 0.017 (Brace et al., 2000) indicated significant differences between substitutes and starters (Table 3.1) for depression ($F_{(1,56)} = 21.00$, $p = .000$) and anger ($F_{(1,56)} = 11.88$, $p = .001$). Substitute players were significantly more depressed and angry than starter players (Table 3.1). Tension was significant at the 0.05 level ($F_{(1,56)} = 4.90$, $p = 0.48$) but not significant using the Bonferroni adjusted p value.

In comparison with standardised scores for BRUMS whereby a score of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 represent the norm (Terry & Lane, 2000), substitutes scores for all subscales are in line with norm values. Starters on the other hand appear to have below average scores for depression and anger and slightly higher than average scores for tension, vigour, fatigue and confusion.

Table 3.1 Descriptive statistics and results from univariate analysis for the BRUMS questionnaire

BRUMS Subscale	Substitutes (N=29) Mean ±SD	Starters (N=29) Mean ±SD	Sig.
Tension	49.93±10.45	56.68±14.66	.048*
Depression	50.13±9.97	40.96±4.09	.000**
Anger	49.86±10.23	42.17±6.28	.001**
Vigour	50.03±9.98	53.20±9.18	.213
Fatigue	49.82±10.04	52.13±14.10	.475
Confusion	49.89±10.11	51.44±15.33	.651

*p<0.05 **p<0.01

3.4.2.3 Discriminant function analysis

A discriminant function analysis was performed with playing status (substitute and starter) as the dependent variable and BRUMS subscales (tension, depression, anger, vigour, fatigue and confusion) as the predictor variables. A total of 58 cases were analysed (see Appendix 11).

Univariate ANOVAs revealed that substitute and starter players differed significantly on tension, depression and anger ($p < 0.05$). A single discriminant function was calculated and the value of this function was significantly different for substitute and starter players ($\chi^2 = 22.29$, $p < 0.05$). The correlations between predictor variables and the discriminant function suggested that depression (.72) and anger (.44) were the best predictors of playing status. Correlations are positive indicating that players with higher scores for depression and anger are more likely to be a substitute player. Overall the discriminant function successfully predicted status for 77.6% of cases with accurate predictions being made for 65.5% of the players who were substitutes and 89.7% of the players who were starters.

3.4.2.4 Summary

There were significant differences between substitutes and starters in depression and anger with substitutes reporting more pre-competition anger and depression than starters. Also, standardised

correlation coefficients for substitutes revealed a significant strong correlation between depression and anger (.76, $p < 0.01$) and a moderate correlation between anger and confusion (.68, $p < 0.01$) suggesting that substitutes who are depressed before competition are also likely to experience anger and confusion. Discriminant function analysis revealed that scores for depression and anger were the best predictors of playing status as players with high scores were more likely to be substitute players.

3.4.3 SPSQ results

3.4.3.1 Correlation

Initial correlations testing for multicollinearity revealed significant correlations between dependent variables (the four subscales in the SPSQ; see Appendix 12). Therefore, as dependent variables for SPSQ were correlated (Appendix) both multivariate analysis of variance (see Appendix 13) and discriminant analysis (exploring these underlying relationships) were completed (Field, 2005). Combined scores for substitutes and starters revealed significant positive correlations between performance inadequacy concerns and concerns about appearing fatigued ($r = .72$, $n = 74$, $p < 0.01$), and performance inadequacy concerns and concerns about appearing athletically untalented ($r = .64$, $n = 74$, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 12). Concerns about appearing fatigued were positively correlated with appearance concerns ($r = .64$, $n = 74$, $p < 0.01$) and concern with appearing athletically untalented ($r = .47$, $n = 74$, $p < 0.01$). Concerns about physical appearance was positively correlated with concerns about appearing athletically untalented ($r = .53$, $n = 74$, $p < 0.01$).

3.4.3.2 MANOVA

Box's test of equality of covariance indicating that the homogeneity assumption for SPSQ was not violated, and multivariate results revealed an overall multivariate effect for SPSQ ($F_{(4,69)}=.27$, $p<.001$; Hotelling's Trace = 4.820; partial eta squared =.218, see Appendix 13). Partial eta squared indicated a small effect size (>0.2 , Cohen, 1988).

Table 3.2 Descriptive statistics and results from univariate analysis for the self-presentation in sport questionnaire (SPSQ)

SPSQ Subscales	Substitutes	Starters	Sig.
	(N=37) Mean \pm SD	(N=37) Mean \pm SD	
Concerns about performance inadequacies (CPI)	21.08 \pm 7.58	24.51 \pm 7.44	.053
Concerns about appearing fatigued (CAF)	16.75 \pm 6.47	18.54 \pm 5.56	.201
Concerns about physical appearance (CPA)	9.29 \pm 4.49	11.67 \pm 4.47	.026*
Concerns about appearing athletically untalented (CAU)	16.24 \pm 7.34	15.16 \pm 5.46	.475

* $p<0.05$

Follow up univariate analyses using an alpha level of 0.05 indicated significant differences between substitutes and starters appearance concerns ($F_{(1,72)} = 5.19$, $p = .026$) at the 0.05 alpha level (Table 3.2).

3.4.3.3 Discriminant Function Analysis

A discriminant function analysis was performed with playing status (substitute and starter) as the dependent variable and SPSQ subscales as the predictor variables. A total of 74 cases were analysed (See Appendix 14).

Univariate ANOVAs revealed that substitute and starter players differed significantly in their concerns about physical appearance ($p<0.05$). A single discriminant function was calculated and the value of this function was significantly different for substitute and starter players ($\chi^2 = 17.24$,

$p < 0.01$). The correlations between predictor variables and the discriminant function suggested that the score for concerns about physical appearance (.89) was the best predictor of playing status. A positive correlation indicates that players with higher scores for concerns about physical appearance are more likely to be a starting player. Overall the discriminant function successfully predicted outcome for 74.3% of cases with accurate predictions being made for 78.4% of the players who were substitutes and 70.3% of the players who were starters.

3.4.3.4 Summary

There were significant differences between substitutes and starters for concerns about physical appearance revealing that substitutes were less concerned about how others would perceive their appearance than starters. Discriminant function analysis revealed that scores for concerns about physical appearance was the best predictor of playing status as players with low scores were more likely to be substitute players.

3.4.4 Modified CSAI-2 results

3.4.4.1 Correlation

Initial correlations testing for multicollinearity revealed significant correlations between CSAI-2 intensity variables (see Appendix 15). Combined scores for substitutes and starters revealed a significant positive correlation between cognitive anxiety intensity and somatic anxiety intensity ($r = .48$, $n = 60$, $p < 0.01$), and significant negative correlations between cognitive anxiety intensity and self-confidence ($r = -.56$, $n = 60$, $p < 0.01$), and somatic anxiety intensity and self-confidence ($r = -.49$, $n = 60$, $p < 0.01$).

Tests for multicollinearity also revealed significant correlations between CSAI-2 interpretation variables (see Appendix 16). Combined scores for substitutes and starters revealed a significant

strong positive correlation between cognitive anxiety interpretation and somatic anxiety interpretation ($r = .77, n = 60, p < 0.01$), and significant positive correlations between cognitive and somatic anxiety interpretation and self-confidence interpretation ($r = .54, n = 60, p < 0.01$ and $r = .43, n = 60, p < 0.01$).

3.4.4.2 MANOVA

Box's test of equality of covariance indicating that the homogeneity assumption for CSAI-2 was not violated (Appendix 17) and multivariate results revealed no overall multivariate effect for CSAI-2 intensity scores ($F_{(3, 56)} = .052, p = .413$; Hotelling's Trace = .971; partial eta squared = .049, see Appendix 17). Partial eta squared indicated a moderate effect size (> 0.4 , Cohen, 1988). However, there was an overall effect for CSAI-2 interpretation scores ($F_{(3, 56)} = .233, p < .05$; Hotelling's Trace = 4.34; partial eta squared = .189, see Appendix 18). Follow up univariate analyses using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of 0.017 (Brace et al., 2000) indicated significant differences between substitute and starters for self-confidence interpretation ($F_{(1, 58)} = 8.76, p = 0.04$), see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 A comparison of CSAI-2 intensity and interpretation scores between substitute and starter players

CSAI-2 Subscales	Substitutes (N=30) Mean \pm SD	Starters (N=30) Mean \pm SD	Sig.
Cognitive Anxiety Intensity	22.06 \pm 5.37	21.86 \pm 4.79	.880
Somatic Anxiety Intensity	16.30 \pm 4.81	17.93 \pm 4.27	.170
Self-Confidence Intensity	24.16 \pm 6.01	23.30 \pm 5.24	.527
Cognitive Anxiety Interpretation	0 \pm 10.4	0 \pm 8.11	1.000
Somatic Anxiety Interpretation	1.06 \pm 8.65	4.33 \pm 6.19	.793
Self-Confidence Interpretation	10.93 \pm 10.52	7.63 \pm 9.18	.004**

** $p < 0.01$

3.4.4.3 Discriminant function analysis for interpretation scores

A discriminant function analysis was performed with playing status (substitute and starter) as the dependent variable and CSAI-2 interpretation subscales as the predictor variables. A total of 60 cases were analysed (see Appendix 19).

Univariate ANOVAs revealed that substitute and starter players differed significantly for self-confidence interpretation ($p < 0.01$). A single discriminant function was calculated and the value of this function was significantly different for substitute and starter players ($\chi^2 = 11.81, p < 0.01$). The correlations between predictor variables and the discriminant function suggested that the score for self-confidence interpretation (.80) was the best predictor of playing status. A positive correlation indicates that players with higher more positive scores self-confidence interpretation are more likely to be a substitute player. Overall the discriminant function successfully predicted outcome for 73.3% of cases with accurate predictions being made for 66.7% of the players who were substitutes and 80% of the players who were starters.

3.4.4.4 Summary

There were no significant differences between substitute and starter players in cognitive anxiety intensity, somatic anxiety intensity or self-confidence intensity scores (Table 3.3). However, there were significant differences between substitutes and starters for self-confidence interpretation with substitutes interpreting their self-confidence as being more facilitative than starter players.

Discriminant function analysis revealed that scores self-confidence interpretation was the best predictor of playing status as players with lower and less positive scores were more likely to be starter players.

3.5 Discussion of Results for Study 2

Overall findings support the hypothesis that substitute and starter players experience a different mood state profile during the pre-competition phase, but not the hypotheses that self-presentation concerns and competitive anxiety would be different. Substitutes and starters experienced different mood states before competition with substitutes reporting significantly more depressed mood and anger than starter player. However, substitutes did not experience significantly more performance inadequacy concerns or concerns about appearing athletically untalented than starter players, thus did not have greater self-presentation concerns than starter players. Furthermore, substitutes did not experience greater intensity levels for cognitive and somatic anxiety or interpret anxiety to be more debilitating than starter players. Finally, substitutes did not experience significantly less self-confidence than starter players. In fact substitutes interpreted their self-confidence as being more facilitative than starter players. Consequently, these results support and inform study 1 finding, confirming that mood is significantly different between substitute and starter players but highlighting that anxiety and self-presentation concerns experienced during the pre-game phase are similar between substitute and starter players. These results support Cerin et al.,'s (2003) statement that an athlete's emotional experience cannot be thoroughly or accurately described in terms of presence or lack of anxiety symptoms. Substitutes' response to their environment included anger and depressed mood, not only anxiety, which supports the proposal that athletes' emotional response to competition is dynamic and complex including many emotions not just anxiety (Cerin et al., 2003; Lane & Terry, 2000).

3.5.1 Mood

Between-subject group findings for mood supported the hypothesis that there were differences in mood state profiles depending on playing status. Specifically, substitute players reported a more negative emotional response than starter players, with higher scores for anger and depression before the game. These findings confirm and add to existing research claims that playing status is a

situational factor which is likely to impact mood state profile in performers (Rotella & Newburg, 1989; Prapavessis, 2000). That is, this study explains that becoming a substitute influences mood as a result of greater anger and depression. Increased anger and depression may be explained by the fact that substitutes experience different and potentially more stressors in their environment than players who are selected (Prapavessis, 2000). Furthermore, dissatisfaction associated with playing status may also have lead to a negative mood profile (Bartholomew & Miller, 2002; Lane et al., 2005; Study 1 Findings). According to Lazarus (2000) anger is experienced when an individual perceives his/her situation to be demeaning. Since study 1 identified that in some cases substitutes were dissatisfied with their playing status to such an extent that they would rather not play at all than be a substitute player, it is perhaps not surprising that substitutes experienced significantly more anger than starter players.

Depression was also significantly greater in substitute players compared with starter players.

Depression is an emotional consequence of despair or lack of hope that is characterised by distress (Lazarus, 2000). Consequently, the fact that substitutes experienced significantly more depression than starters is consistent with findings from study 1, where some substitutes reported experiencing reduced perceived control over the coach's decision believing there was nothing they could do to change their situation. Experiencing such negative emotions can have detrimental consequences on performance preparation as according to Lane and Terry's (2000) conceptual model of mood anger experienced in combination with depression may lead to reduced effort and motivation (Lane & Terry, 2000; Lazarus, 2000). Although motivation was not measured in the current study, this proposal is in line with results of study 1 whereby substitute performers reported reduced motivation to warm up and prepare for competition. Therefore, the pre-competition anger and depression experienced by substitute performers prior to competition in relation to dissatisfaction and organisational stressors, may lead to reduced effort and motivation to prepare for performance.

However, further research is needed to investigate this claim, since anger and depression could also lead to enhanced performance if the performer tries to compensate for the incident that evoked anger in the first instance by increasing effort (Lazarus, 2000). Nevertheless, despite the consequences of negative mood for performance, current findings have identified playing status as an individual difference factor that impacts mood and potentially performance in sport (Beedie et al., 2000; Rowley et al., 1995; Terry, 1995).

3.5.2 Self-presentation concerns

Descriptive statistics for SPSQ subscales revealed that substitutes did not experience greater self-presentation concerns than starter players during the pre-game phase. These findings do not support the a priori hypothesis or the suggestion that self-presentational concerns may occur in response to non participation in sport (Grove et al., 2004; Leary, 1992). However, these findings may be due to a methodological flaw in the timing of data collection. Leary (1992) proposed non-selection would result in self-presentation concerns in substitutes because their status conveys an impression that the coach may perceive their ability and value to the team as insufficient. Since data for the current study was collected during the pre-game phase, substitutes were not yet 'on display' to significant others, meaning that they did not have to be concerned about being evaluated just yet. This may be reflected in the results as substitutes experienced significantly less concerns about physical appearance than starter players. Thus becoming a substitute player may not necessarily lead to self-presentation concerns unless the substitute is exposed to a situation where he/she perceives they are being evaluated (Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Van Raalte, Cunningham, Cornelius, Brewer, 2003). Therefore, future research should examine self-presentation concerns in substitute players during the pre-performance phase, when the game has commenced thus substitutes' inactive status is more likely to convey a negative impression of their ability and value to the team.

Furthermore, as data was only collected once from each substitute in the current study the effect of time on self-presentation concerns is unaccounted for. Grove et al. (2004) and Leary (1992) hinted that self-presentation concerns may worsen the more often a performer becomes a substitute player. According to Leary (1992, p.347) the “chronic benchwarmer” may portray an undesirable image regarding their ability. Whilst Grove et al. (2004) revealed that athletic identity decreased significantly over time in athletes who were not selected to perform for their team in comparison with athletes who were selected to perform. So not only might self-presentation concerns increase in response to unfolding threatening environment substitutes are exposed to, self-presentation concerns may get increasingly worse for performers who become a substitute player repeatedly over the course of a competitive season.

3.5.3 Components of CSAI-2

Despite evidence from study 1 that football players experienced greater perceived uncertainty when they became a substitute, thus greater anxiety intensity according to Martens et al. (1990a), current findings revealed that there were no significant differences between substitute and starter players for cognitive or somatic anxiety intensity. In fact, although somatic anxiety intensity was normal, both substitutes and starters experienced elevated cognitive state anxiety scores which were greater than published norms for collegiate athletes (Martens et al., 1990a). Since cognitive anxiety is the mental component of anxiety that reflects awareness of worry and unpleasant feelings (Morris et al., 1981), and is caused by negative expectations about success or by negative self-evaluation (Martens et al., 1990a), current findings suggest that starters and substitute players had similar expectations and self-evaluations. Furthermore, Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory proposes that A-state is influenced by perceived threat, which is influenced by the multiplicative interaction between two important factors: 1) perceived uncertainty of outcome and 2) perceived importance of outcome both of which must be present for threat to exist. Therefore, current findings suggest that substitutes and starters were experiencing similar levels of perceived threat, perceived uncertainty and perceived importance of

outcome. This is interesting since findings from study 1 revealed that substitutes experienced different pre-game organisational stressors from when they were a starter, which according to Dunn and Nielsen (1993) may cause players to perceive and react differently to their environment. Therefore, current findings suggest that despite experiencing different environments, substitutes and starters experienced similar cognitive and somatic anxiety intensities thus although different environments possessed different sources of anxiety they appear to have been equally threatening. Findings from study 1 help to explain this by identifying several sources of organisational stress in substitute's environment. Further research should perhaps carry out a direct comparison between substitutes and starters with regards to sources of stress during the pre-game phase. However, whilst it is interesting to note that despite not actually performing from the start of the game, substitute players experienced similar cognitive and somatic anxiety intensities as players who were selected to start, Martens et al. (1990a) stated that uncertainty of outcome and perceived importance of outcome may be perceived as challenge. This is supported by Jones and Swain (1992) who suggested in order to fully understanding a performer's anxiety intensity, interpretation of anxiety must be considered.

Jones' (1995) model states that facilitative anxiety occurs when performers perceive themselves to have positive expectancies of ability to cope and attain goals because they have *confidence* in their ability to control both themselves *and* their environment (Borkovec et al., 1986; Carver & Scheier, 1988; Eysenck & Calvo, 1992; Jones & Hanton, 1994). In fact, based on this information and findings from study 1, it was hypothesised that substitute players would experience less facilitative anxiety than starter players due to experiencing reduced perceived control their playing status and certain organisational stressors (i.e. environmental factors). However, this hypothesis was not supported as despite elevated scores for cognitive anxiety intensity, there were no significant differences between substitutes or starters for somatic or cognitive anxiety interpretation. In fact, cognitive anxiety was interpreted to be neither positive nor negative by substitutes or starters, whilst

somatic anxiety was reported as being slightly facilitative to performance despite the fact that both substitutes and starters reported high self-confidence. Consequently, these findings only provide partial support for research stating that self-confidence can protect athletes from experiencing debilitating thoughts and feelings in relation to competition (Hanton et al., 2004, 2005) as only somatic anxiety was facilitative to performance. However, it is not clear from these results whether participants were highly confident in their ability to control both themselves and their environment, or if they were only confident in controlling either themselves or their environment.

Since substitutes reported reduced control of their environment in study 1, high self-confidence (identified in study 1 as well as current findings) may represent confidence in controlling the *self*. Consequently, substitutes' confidence in control of the self appears to have protected against the debilitating effects of reduced control of the environment on anxiety interpretation. Therefore, it may be assumed that despite high self-confident scores for substitutes in this study reduced confidence in controlling the environment (according to substitutes in study 1) may have contributed to anxiety not being interpreted as facilitative as literature suggests. Therefore, further research is required to examine the relationship between self-confidence, perceived control and anxiety interpretation in sport.

3.5.4 Limitations

As already mentioned results may have occurred due to the fact both substitutes and starters completed questionnaires at the same moment in time, when performance was imminent for starters but not so imminent for substitutes. During this time (pre-game phase) substitutes had probably just been informed that they were not starting which would explain why mood was significantly different. Furthermore, self-presentation concerns and anxiety may not have been different between starters and substitutes until the pre-performance phase. That is, as discussed in chapter 2 competitive emotions occur in response to the unfolding stressful encounter being experienced (Cerin et al., 2000; Ekman,

1994; Lane & Terry, 1999, 2000; Parkinson, 1996). Thus substitute players may experience greater anxiety than starters when they are about to play, likewise they may only experience self-presentation concerns when they are sitting on the substitute's bench and vulnerable to being evaluated by significant others. Therefore one limitation of this study is the fact that data was not collected from both substitutes and starters immediately before performance. Had this been done substitutes may have responded differently. Furthermore, data was not specifically collected from substitutes who had been substituted more than once. Self-confidence may be lower and self-presentation concerns may be greater in players who have been a substitute consistently over a time. Thus it may be more insightful to investigate self-presentation and anxiety in players who have been substituted continuously.

In addition, some questionnaires may have been completed by substitutes who were promoted from their reserve team. If this was the case these substitutes may have experienced inflated self-confidence scores as sitting on the bench as it meant that they were in fact improving. Finally, each substitute did not complete all three questionnaires (only did 2 each) which means could not do correlations between scores for mood and self-presentation concerns or anxiety and self-presentation concerns. Thus the fact that anxiety and self-presentation concerns did not appear to be related in these findings should be interpreted with some caution. Future research should examine these relationships more appropriately.

3.5.4 Summary of key findings

This study highlights the importance of examining individual difference factors between substitute and starter players in team sports. Specifically, it has identified that mood is somewhat different between substitute and starter players with substitutes experiencing significantly more anger and depression than starters which could have a detrimental effect on effort and motivation (Lane & Terry, 2000; Lazarus, 2000). Substitutes did not experience significantly more performance

inadequacy concerns or concerns about appearing athletically untalented than starter players, thus did not have greater self-presentation concerns than starter players. Furthermore, substitutes did not experience greater intensity levels for cognitive and somatic anxiety or interpret anxiety to be more debilitating than starter players. Finally, substitutes did not experience significantly less self-confidence than starter players. In fact substitutes interpreted their self-confidence as being more facilitative than starter players. Consequently, these results support and inform study 1 finding, confirming that mood is significantly different between substitute and starter players but highlighting that anxiety and self-presentation concerns experienced during the pre-game phase are similar between substitute and starter players. However, data for this study was collected before the game, substitutes' experiences of self-presentation concerns and competitive anxiety may be different during the pre-performance phase when competition is more imminent and athletic identity is on display.

Chapter 4: Introduction to Study 3

Findings from study 1 indicate that substitute and starter players in football may not experience the same quality of interaction or communication with their coach. This is consistent with research stating that coaches of team sports are less likely to provide feedback and interpersonal contact to performers who may be perceived to be under performing (Noblet & Gifford, 2002; Wang et al., 2001). Furthermore, the dynamics of team sports make it difficult for coaches to communicate with each player on an individual basis potentially causing mistrust and misunderstanding. This poor interaction and communication between the coach and athlete may have a detrimental impact on the success of their coach-athlete relationship (Barrott, & Henshen, 2002; Jowett, 2003; Jowett et al., 2005; Jowett & Cockerill, 2002; Jowett & Meek, 2000; Poczwadowski). Athletes in team sports must also contend with team selection which may cause substitutes to question whether they are trusted or understood by their coach which may weaken the relationships they have with their coach (Jowett et al., 2005). It is also possible that the substitutes' behaviour will also impact the relationship. That is, a negative emotional reaction by a substitute in relation to team selection could result in feelings of frustration and disappointment (see Study 1) as well as increased anger and depression (see Study 2) that are directed towards the coach. Finally, research has also reported that poor or unsuccessful interpersonal relationships may be perceived as stressful (Noblet & Gifford, 2003; Woodman & Hardy, 2001), resulting in role ambiguity (Shelley & Sherman, 1997), dissatisfaction (Noblet & Gifford, 2002; Shelley & Sherman, 1997), sub-optimal preparation for competition (Woodman & Hardy, 2001) and feelings of frustration, anger and isolation that lead to distress and detachment in both coaches and athletes (Jowett, 2003). Conversely interpersonal satisfaction is achieved by developing trust, commitment and understanding between the coach and the athlete (Jowett & Meek, 2000). Based on this literature and the results of studies 1 and 2, it is plausible that poor interaction, communication and trust between coaches and substitute players may have a detrimental effect on their relationship. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to further

investigate the finding from study 1 that poor communication exists between coaches and substitute players in football and understand the impact this may have on the coach-substitute relationship.

Effective interactions are formed when the coach and athlete share knowledge and establish a coordinated view (Jowett & Cockerill, 2002). In order to share information both the coach and the athlete must communicate since a successful relationship requires two-way interaction (Poczwardowski et al., 2002). The type and frequency of interaction that exists between people may have an impact on their relationship and could potentially cause the athlete to drop out from their sport (Butt, 1987; Poczwardowski et al., 2002). Interaction is also influenced by interpersonal issues such as the degree of liking and trust that exist between the coach and athlete (Jowett et al., 2005). For example, the quantity and quality of feedback differs between athletes depending on the coach's expectations of athletic achievement for each performer (Smith, Fry, Ethington, & Yuhua, 2005; Solomon Kosmitzki, 1996, 2002), and whether or not they are a starter or a substitute player (Wang et al., 2001). This is supported by Gilbert et al. (1999) who identified that there is a tendency in team sports for coaches to interact more with high ability team members and avoid interpersonal relationships with players perceived to be of lesser ability. If it is the case that coaches and substitute players experience less interaction, as implied by the results of study 1 and results presented by Wang et al. (2001), poor interaction in the coach-substitute relationship may reveal detached, withdrawn, isolated and demotivated behaviour between coaches and substitutes (Carron & Bennett, 1977; Turam, 2003).

Furthermore an environment that places emphasis on more successful performers promotes an ego oriented climate whereby some athletes are more likely to experience negative reactions from coaches, worry, and less enjoyment and satisfaction in the team (Boyd, Yin, Ellis, & French, 1995; Ommundsen & Roberts, 1999; Treasure & Roberts, 1994). Thus, interpersonal relationships suffer as

social support and feedback become limited, creating incompatibility between coaches and their athletes. In contrast trust and respect between the coach and the athlete (Jowett & Meek, 2000) result in a greater tendency for them to share information and voice concerns in order to facilitate problem solving (Jowett et al., 2005). Effective communication skills are therefore fundamental in order for coaches to motivate, manage conflicts, provide instruction (Haselwood, Joyner, Burke, Geyerman, Czech, Munkasy, & Zwald., 2005) and convey their goals and expectations for the team (Shelly & Sherman, 1997). Therefore, it seems plausible that if poor communication and interaction exist between substitutes and coaches, there is potential for conflict in their relationship, resulting in reduced motivation and uncertainty in relation to goals and expectations (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003).

Whilst it is important to recognise that interaction and communication make a significant contribution to the coach-athlete relationship, it is clear that they are not the sole components (Jowett & Meek, 2000; Poczwadowski et al., 2002). Existing literature reports that the coach-athlete relationship is complex and influenced by many factors that also contribute to its outcomes (performance, satisfaction and persistence). According to Poczwadowski et al. (2002) emotional closeness and sense of care between the coach and the athlete must be considered. This is supported by Jowett and Meek (2000) who state that acknowledging a person on an affective level and sharing an emotional closeness is fundamental to the coach-athlete relationship in sport. Furthermore, the cognitions and behaviour of athletes and coaches should compliment each other in order to facilitate successful interaction (Jowett & Meek, 2000).

Jowett and Meek (2000) conceptualised that interpersonal relationships are interactions between two people's emotions, thoughts and behaviours. This means that focusing on one person's perspective of a relationship would be negligent, leading Jowett and Meek (2000) to address the concept of a coach-

athlete dyad. The term dyad is of Greek origin meaning two alike persons or things that are to be understood as a whole (Jowett & Meek, 2000). Jowett and Meek (2000) hypothesised that coach-athlete dyads would encompass closeness (feelings/emotions), co-orientation (cognitions), and complementarity (behaviours) the three Cs (Figure 4.1). Later this concept was expanded to include a fourth component called commitment, thus the 4 Cs (Jowett & Ntoumanis, 2004). Jowett and Meek's (2000) conceptual model of the coach-athlete relationship was based on Kelley et al.'s (1983) work which highlighted the importance of considering a relationship as a reciprocal process whereby both individuals contribute equally highlighting that a give and take nature is vital if a successful relationship is to be achieved (Jowett, 2005).

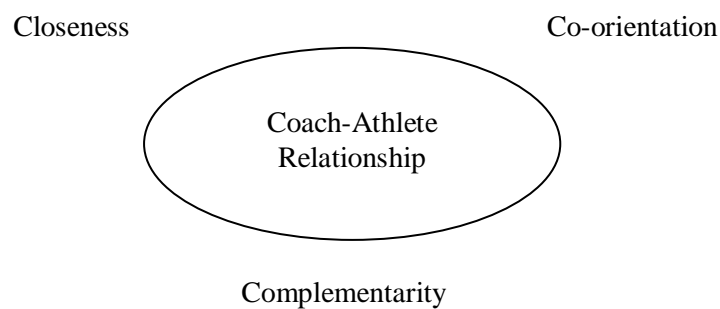


Figure 4.1 Conceptual Model of the Coach-Athlete Relationship (3Cs, Jowett & Meek, 2003).

Jowett and Meek (2003) investigated the effectiveness of their initial conceptual model (3Cs) for understanding interpersonal relationships between coaches and athletes. Their findings provided support for the model with the 3Cs and revealed that communication played a fundamental role in facilitating closeness, co-orientation and complementarity. However, although Jowett and Meek (2003) did not declare communication as an independent construct within the model, it was acknowledged as an underlying yet significant component of coach-athlete relationships. That is, communication contributed to emotional closeness and facilitated co-ordinated thoughts, shared knowledge and understanding (co-orientation) which in turn promoted common direction

(complementarity; Jowett & Meek, 2003). These findings are supported by, Jowett and Cockerill (2003) who found that lack of communication resulted in restricted shared understanding and less co-operative acts of interaction between coaches and athletes.

4.1 Closeness

According to Jowett and Meek (2003, p. 159) closeness refers to “an affective or emotional interdependence” between coaches and athletes allowing them to feel familiar with each other (Jowett, 2003). Positive relationships are characterised by strong emotional qualities as coaches and athletes reported emotional closeness as being a significant contributor to the coach-athlete relationship (Jowett, 2003; Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000; Philippe & Seiler, 2006). Feelings such as liking, trust, respect, belief, admiration and in some instances love (relationships between father-son, mother-daughter, married couples) were indicative of a close coach-athlete relationship. Conversely, lack of emotional closeness consisted of feelings of frustration, anger and isolation leading to distress and detachment in both coaches and athletes (Jowett, 2003).

Coaches and athletes can also be close on a generic or personal level (Jowett & Meek, 2003). When athletes and coaches express feelings of trust, intimacy and liking they are said to be personally close. On the other hand mutual respect, belief, admiration and appreciation towards one another (Jowett, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000; Jowett et al., 2005) are characteristics of generic closeness. Both personal and generic closeness contribute towards a successful relationship, however, generic closeness is said to be more common than personal closeness. Personal closeness is more likely to occur in coach-athlete relationships between married couples or parents and their children (Jowett & Meek, 2003). Nonetheless it is not surprising that emotional closeness is present in relationships when two people are required to work together towards a common or similar goal (Jowett & Meek,

2003; Jowett et al., 2005). Equally it is also not surprising that negative emotions are experienced by and shared between coaches and athletes at times, since in sport athletes experience success and failure, there may be times when coaches and athletes experience negative emotions towards each other because of these failures. Such an example can be seen in team selection, where quite often coaches must select who they perceive to be the best players for the team which according to Jowett et al. (2005) may impact on the trust between the coach and substitute player. Furthermore, the evidence indicating that coaches spend less time with substitute players (Gilbert et al., 1999; Smith et al., 2005; Solomon & Kosmitzki, 1996; Wang et al., 2001) than with starters may cause substitutes to experience less closeness and more negative emotions such as isolation, anger and frustration (Jowett, 2003), threatening the coach-athlete relationship.

4.2 Co-Orientation

A co-orientated relationship is one whereby both parties share similar (co-oriented) views of their relationship, goals and expectations (Jowett & Meek, 2000), thus it can be said that they are in a state of co-orientation. Co-orientation was operationalised by Jowett and Meek (2000, p. 159) as “the coach and athlete’s verbal interactions whereby its [shared understanding] exact nature is sought and addressed”. Co-orientation is achieved through information exchange, self-disclosure and acceptance (Jowett, 2003), where verbal and non verbal communication play an important role (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000). As a consequence of co-orientation shared understanding is enhanced and creation or escalation of conflicting issues between coaches and athletes can be prevented (Jowett, 2003, Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000). Recent research stressed that interpersonal communication consisting of technical instruction, verbal interchange, problem resolution and reassurances were fundamental in defining an ideal relationship between coaches and athletes (Philippe & Seiler, 2006). In fact these elite swimmers reported that communication accounted for 90% of the sub domains identified for co-orientation (Philippe & Seiler, 2006). Thus,

open and free flowing communication is fundamental to achieving a co-orientated relationship (Jowett, 2003; Philippe & Seiler, 2006).

Co-orientation is also concerned with interpersonal perception or the way in which the coach and the athlete understand and perceive one another. In a co-orientated relationship both parties possess common perspectives about how they perceive each other and the way they think others perceive them (Jowett, 2005). By understanding and comparing coaches' and athletes' personal perspectives, a clearer picture of their relationship can be gained. It can also help to identify points of agreement versus disagreement and understanding versus misunderstanding (Jowett, 2005; Jowett & Cockerill, 2002) thus truly establishing whether a co-orientated relationship exists

4.3 Complementarity

Complementarity is operationalised as “the type of interaction that the dyad perceives as co-operative and effective” (Jowett & Meek, 2000, p.160). Put more simply, complementarity is effectively people's co-operative actions and interactions towards one another (Jowett, 2003). According to coaches and athletes interviewed by Jowett and Meek (2003) co-operative activity where the coach instructs or guides and the athlete follows without doubt or opposition is indicative of a complementary relationship. Both parties work and act in unison, without conflict or by using negotiating actions and behaviour so that their coordinated efforts will be successful (Jowett & Meek, 2000). Thus, lack of communication is likely to result in less co-operative acts of interaction (complementarity) because neither the coach nor the athlete can be aware of common goals.

In a complementary relationship coaches are perceived to be skilled, knowledgeable teachers who convey knowledge so that the athlete can follow in order to become a competent performer (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000). Athletes in a study by Jowett and Cockerill (2003) reported

that it was important for coaches to provide instructions that were followed by the athletes. However, as stated earlier, relationships involve two way interaction, thus, complementarity consists of reciprocal behaviour and helping transactions whereby relationships are also based on a 'give and take' principle (Jowett, 2003). This is evident in a study by Philippe and Seiler (2006) which investigated the coach-athlete relationship. Swimmers reported that they must be more open minded, accepting and make use of differences of opinion, allowing new ideas to facilitate progression and development in performance (Philippe & Seiler's, 2006). Thus, it appears that the 'give and take' principle may facilitate satisfaction for both the coach and the athlete so that a positive two way relationship can be maintained. Another example can be seen in Jowett and Cockerill's (2003) research whereby athletes identified that complementarity existed when both the athlete and the coach worked hard in achieving improved performance.

Studies by Jowett and colleagues (Jowett, 2003; Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000) clearly identify the existence of closeness, co-orientation, complementarity and communication in positive and negative coach-athlete relationships (Jowett, 2003; Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000; Philippe & Seiler, 2006). Positive relationships are characterised by strong emotional qualities with feelings such as liking, trust, respect, belief, admiration and in some instances, love, representing a close coach-athlete relationship (Jowett, 2003;; Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000; Philippe & Seiler, 2006). Conversely, lack of emotional closeness consists of frustration, anger, and isolation leading to distress and detachment in both coaches and athletes (Jowett, 2003). Lack of co-orientation may result in disagreement, unequal needs, inadequacy and imbalance between coaches and athletes due to inadequate shared knowledge and understanding (Jowett, 2003). Lastly, lack of complementarity brought about by unhelpful transactions or un-cooperative behaviour may lead to power struggles and incompatibility in the coach athlete relationship.

Support has also been found for the interaction between the 3Cs, highlighting the interdependent nature of the coach-athlete relationship in sport (Jowett, 2003; Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000). The strongest association between constructs reported by Olympic medallists (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003) was between co-orientation and complementarity where athletes reported that shared knowledge increased the amount of co-operation between them and their coach. They also reported that closeness is associated with complementarity as when coaches and athletes are emotionally close they are more likely to engage in greater effort for one another. Finally closeness was reported, although to a lesser extent, to contribute to athletes and coaches obtaining a co-oriented view of the situation. Negative associations also exist, including lack of closeness, lack of co-orientation and non-complementarity (Jowett, 2003). Jowett (2003) found that lack of co-orientation or mutual understanding resulted in non-complimentary behaviours. For example, an athlete who reported that she felt misunderstood by her coach subsequently became injured because she was being overworked; however her coach was not aware of how hard she was already working.

4.4 The 4th C - Commitment

Based on existing research (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000) commitment was considered as part of the construct called closeness. However, when examining the construct validity of the coach-athlete relationship questionnaire (CART-Q) designed to measure the 3Cs (closeness, co-orientation and complementarity) of the coach-athlete relationship, it was discovered that commitment is an independent construct. Following principal component analysis Jowett and Ntoumanis (2004) discovered that items initially expected to load onto closeness in fact loaded onto an unknown component; these items more suitably represented commitment. Based on these findings Jowett and Ntoumanis (2004) suggested that commitment should be measured separately to evaluate the cognitive aspect of the coach-athlete relationship rather than the affective aspect closeness. Jowett and Ntoumanis (2004, p. 249) defined commitment as, “coaches’ and athletes’ intention to maintain

their athletic relationship and implies the athletic dyad's cognitive orientations for the future". Thus, commitment is not only influenced by closeness, it influences shared understanding between the coach and the athlete, suggesting commitment is associated with closeness and co-orientation.

Team selection may affect closeness, complementarity, co-orientation, commitment and communication in the coach-substitute relationship as it is unlikely that many players in team sports will have direct input into whether or not they start a game. According to Gordon (1988) coaches of team sports prefer to use autocratic decision making styles for team selection which do not allow for co-operative interaction between the coach and the athlete. Therefore, complementarity may be difficult to achieve since the coach may be unwilling to compromise (Jowett & Meek, 2000). Thus substitutes may be prevented from expressing their opinion, which (based on the findings from study 1), is quite probably different from that of their coach concerning their de-selection. That is, coaches may believe that the substitute is not good enough to start, however, the majority of participants in study 1 believed that he/she should be starting, thus there is incongruence between parties. This lack of shared understanding is likely to create disagreement (Jowett & Cockerill, 2002; Jowett et al., 2005;) which is not conducive to a successful relationship (Chelladurai, 1984; Kenow & Williams, 1999) and inhibits co-orientation, complementarity and commitment between both parties (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003). Furthermore, dissatisfaction may arise as several research studies have stated that athlete's beliefs must be consistent with those of their coach in order for satisfaction to be achieved (Chelladurai, 1984; Jowett & Ntoumanis, 2004; Kenow & Williams, 1999).

4.5 The Impact of Team Selection on the Coach-Athlete Relationship

According to Gilbert et al. (1999) team selection decisions constitute a unique type of interaction between coaches and performers as they have potential to impact greatly on team organisation and success. Gordon (1988) examined congruence between preferred and perceived decision making

styles in soccer players. Results indicated that both coaches and athletes agreed that decisions regarding team selection should be autocratic. However, according to Smoll and Smith (1989) autocratic decisions may be perceived differently by different players as perceived coach behaviour is mediated by individual differences such as age, gender, goals and motives. Consequently as Gordon's (1988) study only included starters it is possible to suggest that substitute players may not be as satisfied with the use of an autocratic decision making style to select a team. If there is incongruence between a substitute's preferred decision making style and the coach's actual decision style for team selection, complementarity may be threatened which may influence the degree of closeness, commitment and co-orientation between the athlete and his/her coach (Jowett & Cockerill 2003; Jowett, 2003). Therefore, playing status could be considered an individual difference factor that mediates preferred decision making style, as suggested by Smoll and Smith (1989).

Perception of coach behaviours may be more positive if the athlete is satisfied that he or she and the coach and themselves are working towards the athlete's best interests. However, if either party believes that the other is not committed to the same goal or performance plans are not congruent (Jowett, 2003) then the give and take principle may suffer (Jowett & Ntoumanis, 2004) and relationships can become disorientated (Jowett, 2003). Thus, it is important that substitute players are aware of the factors that the coach has considered in making his or her decision. This discourse may help substitute players to understand the decision and accept it with no resulting impact on the coach athlete relationship. If athletes can understand how and why coaches have made decisions in a certain way, they may be more likely to be satisfied (Gordon, 1988).

In order for satisfaction to be achieved coaches should communicate how they have made decisions. The ability to openly communicate helps the athlete and the coach to coordinate their thoughts, thus preventing creation or escalation of conflicting situations (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek,

2000) and facilitating similar interpersonal perceptions between the coach and the athlete. Co-orientation was reported by athletes as shared knowledge and understanding facilitated by formal and informal conversations about goals, training, competition and other sport related issues (Jowett, 2003; Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000). It is reported that such discussions contribute to achieving goals (Jowett, 2003). However, since team selection is deemed an autocratic behaviour that does not require input from athletes (Gordon, 1988) and coaches engage in less interpersonal contact with substitute players (Wang et al. (2001), coaches may not feel obliged to discuss their rationale for team selection with substitute players. Findings from study one indicated that this resulted in confusion and uncertainty on the part of players as to why they have become a substitute player. Thus, it is unlikely that the coach and athlete will have shared understanding or co-orientation. Furthermore, coaches who expect players to perform poorly will convey messages of mistrust, emphasise mistakes and ignore any success these performers have in order to protect their judgment (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003). Consequently, these performers may suffer reduced motivation, distraction and inevitably performance problems (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003).

Therefore, it seems plausible that a limited understanding of the coach's decisions (Jowett & Cockerill, 2002; Poczwardowski et al., 2002) brought about by poor communication and interaction (as identified in study 1) may contribute to poor co-orientation. Furthermore, since the 3Cs has been presented as an integrated model, poor co-orientation may be associated with poor complementarity and poor closeness (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000). Thus the coach-substitute relationship could possibly present characteristics reflective of a negative coach-substitute relationship (Jowett et al., 2005).

However, to date there is little research that examines the dynamics of coach-athlete relationships within team sports and more specifically no research has investigated the coach-substitute

relationship. Furthermore, Jowett and Cockerill (2003) stated that current research is limited by not investigating negative aspects of interpersonal relationships from both coaches' and athletes' points of view. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the nature of communication and the coach-athlete relationship between coaches and substitute players in football. In order to achieve this, the following research questions will be addressed; how do coaches and substitute players communicate? What is the nature of communication, closeness, co-orientation, complementarity and commitment between coaches and substitute players? And, what type of relationship exists between coaches and substitute players in football?

4.6 Methods for Study 3

4.6.1 Participants

Four coach-substitute dyads were investigated for this study which consisted of two coaches and four football players. Contact was made with one male and one female football team asking for volunteers to participate in the study. The men's team was a semi-professional team coached by a male coach whilst the women's team was an amateur team coached by a female coach. Interviews were carried out on one coach and two substitute players from each team. For the purpose of this study it was important that coaches who were included had played a key role in team selection and that substitute players had been substituted most frequently for their team, for reasons other than injury, within one month of being interviewed.

The male coach (Coach A) who participated in this study was 45 years of age, possessed the highest professional coaching qualification in football (A-licence). He also has 17 years coaching experience and has worked with his current team for one and a half years. The female coach (Coach B) was 32 years of age and possessed an A-licence coaching qualification in football. She has six years coaching experience and has worked with her current team for 4 years. The two substitutes coached by Coach A were male, the first player (substitute A1) was 22 years of age and the second player

(substitute A2) was 24 years of age. The two substitutes coached by Coach B were female, player one (substitute B1) was 23 years of age and player two (substitute B2) was 21 years of age.

4.6.2 Procedures

Ethical approval was obtained from a University ethics committee prior to the commencement of data collection (see Appendix 20 for information sheet and Appendix 21 for consent form).

4.6.3 Development of the interview schedule and bracketing interview

The interview schedule was developed based on responses given by substitutes in study one describing organisational variables that they perceived to be different in comparison with when they started a game. These included coach communication and coach interaction. Additional areas that were covered and derived from literature review included questions about commitment, team selection/decision making and expectations for substitute players.

Once the interview schedule (see Appendix 22) was produced a bracketing interview was carried out to establish the researcher's pre-existing biases. The researcher was interviewed by an independent interviewer with several years experience of carrying out qualitative research, using the questions intended for use with the study participants. The bracketing interview lasted approximately 45 minutes and was transcribed verbatim (see Appendix 23). Questions that were repeated were removed from the schedule, and additional probe questions used by the independent interviewer were noted for later use.

4.6.4 Pilot Study

Following the bracketing interview a pilot study was carried out with two male volunteer football coaches (one semi-professional and one amateur level) coach. This was completed to ensure that the questions were appropriate and to eliminate any questions that did not provide any beneficial

information to this study. Each participant responded to all questions on the interview schedule, however, in many cases the order of questioning changed to some degree as the respondents were encouraged to speak freely of their experiences. In addition, topics raised by the respondents and not included in the original interview schedule were discussed and followed up in the same level of detail as those that were originally identified. Appropriate probing questions were used to ensure complete understanding of comments made by the respondents. Finally both coaches made comments which suggested that their relationship with their substitute players may be somewhat different from their relationship with starter players. Therefore, questions based on specific constructs from Jowett and Ntoumanis (2004) 4Cs (co-orientation, closeness, complementarity and commitment) were included in the final interview schedule in order to develop greater understanding of the coach-athlete relationship.

4.6.5 Data Collection

Each coach and substitute participated in a semi-structured interview which lasted between 25 and 40 minutes. Coaches were interviewed first followed by their substitutes. The same questions were used for all participants but re-worded in order to place the emphasis on the coach or the substitute depending on who was being interviewed (see Appendix 22). Before being interviewed participants signed a consent form and were informed of the interview protocol. Interviews were carried out at a convenient time for the participants at their training grounds. All were ensured anonymity of both their personal identity and also that of their club. Prior to being interviewed the participants were informed that the purpose of the interview was to understand how coaches decision making with regards to team selection may influence interaction between coaches and substitute players.

In addition, as in the pilot study, topics raised by the respondents and not included in the original interview schedule were discussed and followed up in the same level of detail as those that were originally identified. Appropriate probing questions were used to ensure complete understanding of

comments made by the respondents. With the consent of each participant the interviews were tape recorded and subsequently transcribed verbatim.

4.6.7 Data Analysis

Following transcription, interviews were analysed using deductive content analysis. Deductive analysis involved the categorisation of data according to predetermined concepts. These were communication, co-orientation, closeness, complementarity and commitment. Secondary deductive analysis was completed by four independent researchers who are familiar with deductive content analysis, and have experience of using qualitative research methods. Each analyst was given a list of raw data and asked to match each piece of data to a construct that makes up the coach-athlete relationship (i.e. communication, co-orientation, complementarity, closeness and commitment). Following this, feedback was provided regarding theme identification, in a process known as 'peer debriefing' (Guba, 1981). During debriefing analysts reported some difficulties assigning certain pieces of raw data to a theme. When there was a consensus that raw data were difficult to classify, they were eliminated from the overall results. Raw data were successfully classified into a raw data theme when an overall consensus was achieved.

Each respondent was also provided with a copy of their results, to ensure that they were a true and accurate reflection of their response to being a substitute, a process referred to as respondent verification or member checks (Malterud, 2001; Meyer, 1998).

4.7 Results for Study 3

Overall results revealed that communication was inadequate between coaches and substitute players, co-orientation was limited, and there was evidence of poor closeness, poor commitment and poor complementarity. Detailed results are presented below in two separate case studies. Each case study

describes raw data representing communication and each of the 4Cs (communication, co-orientation, complementarity, closeness and commitment) that were obtained by means of deductive analysis.

4.7.1 Case Study 1: Team A (Male Team)

4.7.1.1 Communication

Raw data themes for communication consisted of short notice, poor explanation, and limited interaction. These results indicate that communication was poor between coach A and his substitute players. Coach A informed players quite close to the game commencing that they were not playing, *“I tell them [that they are a substitute] say at quarter to two or two o'clock and kick off is at three”*. According to substitute A2 players were not informed that they were a substitute until they were in the team changing room, *“It was in the changing rooms just after we got changed. He'd get everyone to sit down and then he'll read off his one to eleven basically and then read off number twelve, thirteen and fourteen”* (Substitute A2). Such short notice did not allow the coach to adequately explain their decision to substitute players.

Both substitutes playing for team A explained that their coach was not usually forthcoming with an explanation for why they were not selected to play, *“A lot of the time he doesn't (explain) which he should do, because it means players have to approach him”* (Substitute A2). Coach A confirmed this providing the following description of how he explains his decision to substitute players, *“You just say to them 'you're not in the team, this is why you're not in the team. Thank you' then perhaps they'll come to see you after the game to discuss it”* (Coach A).

In addition, substitutes invariably had less interaction and opportunity to communicate with their coach especially once the game had started. Most of the time coaches did not speak to substitutes at all as they spent their time focusing on the game, *“There is not normally much interaction between **** [coach] and his assistant they normally stand to one side and confer between themselves and*

give out information to the players on the pitch". In fact, Coach A only communicated with substitute players a couple of minutes before they were substituted on to play. According to substitute A1, *"you normally get told to go and warm up you only have a couple of minutes to go and then you're back. You'll just run off and do a couple of sprints and get your shin pads on then you come back in because you are going on"*. This appeared to occur because Coach A wanted to focus on the game rather than spend time interacting with substitute players: *"At the end of the day I am relying on my member of staff to arrange that [warm up for substitutes] for me. I don't want to be looking around worrying about them [substitutes] all the time when the game is going on and you have pressing things to be thinking about there"*.

4.7.1.2 Co-orientation

Raw data themes for co-orientation consisted of misunderstanding the team selection process and shared understanding. Incongruence between the coach and substitutes with regards to team selection decisions and expectations for substitutes were indicative of limited shared understanding.

Misunderstanding the team selection process

According to coach A he likes to select a team by consulting with his assistant manager then making the decision final himself, *"I am in charge but my assistant manager and I will speak and we'll make decisions."* He explained that when making this decision he, *"monitor[s] them [substitutes] in training sessions to see how they respond to that [being dropped]"*, he also considers, *"Their current form of how they have been playing over a period of time"*; finally, he also considers the form and performance of the current team. According to Coach A *"If you have got a winning team you rarely change it"*. Substitute A1 disagreed with this last statement believing that that the coach did not always choose the same team following a victory: *"For many managers if the team wins it will probably be the same team for the next game, but not here...He's a man of his own decisions"* (Substitute A1). Furthermore, both substitutes disagreed with the coach's statement that training

influenced selection. According to substitute A2 the “[head coach in question] *doesn't take the training session. He might watch it but he doesn't take the session...so it can be quite difficult to make an impression.*”

However both substitutes did agree that performance during games was important in helping a player get selected to start. Substitute A1 stated, “*If you are not scoring goals (as a striker) if I'm not scoring goals then he has got to look to one of the other strikers to come in and do that role*” and substitute A2 stated: “*I think they look at just how well you are doing in games*”. Finally, substitute A1 believed that the opposition and specific skills of certain players influenced selection, “*I think he looks at the team we're playing (against)... then he looks at what types of players he has got*” (Substitute A1).

Shared understanding

It appears that Coach A only listens to his substitutes when they have a shared understanding and he agrees with their point of view, “*I try to listen to them. If someone has got an opinion I will listen to that opinion. If I didn't like it, it would go in one ear and out the other ear. But, if they had a genuine opinion and say yeah you're right*”. When it comes to team selection both the coach and substitute players in team A have a similar belief that being dropped must simply be accepted as part of the game. Thus it is expected that substitute players accept the fact that they are not playing without complaint “*being dropped is part of the game so they have just got to get on with it*” (Coach A). Substitute A1 appeared to agree with this perspective accepting that his coach has a difficult job to do “*I don't think it is completely his fault. I think the system in general means there is not enough time [to communicate with substitute players]*”. Substitute A1 went on to say that he values his coach's decisions and despite not agreeing when he becomes a substitute player he is willing to accept it,

“You trust him because he’s hoping for the best and if he thinks it’s the best way to do it then he’s got to do that. But you just don’t always like it. So yeah, you just agree to disagree”.

Coach A expected substitute players to demonstrate increased effort, to perform better than usual and to make an impact on a game when substituted on to play, *“You want them to work hard and train hard and prove to me that I was wrong to make that decision”*. Both substitutes had similar perceptions of their coach’s expectations, believing they were expected make an impact on the game. Substitute A2 said, *“They’re desperate [coaches]. I think basically they want the subs to have a positive influence on the pitch to change something...they want some kind of positive influence.”* Whilst substitute A2 stated the same opinion, he also added that it was somewhat difficult to achieve, *“I think every manager expects 'Roy of the Rovers' to come out and perform some heroics depending on the situation. It doesn’t always happen. Sometimes it does...They obviously make substitutions because they see that someone is starting to get tired so if that’s the case then they want you to come on and do exactly as they have been doing or even better”* (Substitute A1). Coach A appeared to agree with this stating that expectations were actually somewhat difficult and down to chance *“I think going on as a substitute is chance...That’s [player scoring or playing well] just total luck well at least from the manager’s point of view”*.

4.7.1.3 Complementarity

Complementarity consisted of just one raw data theme called acceptance which summarised co-operative interaction between coach A and his substitute players.

Shared understanding and co-orientation meant that Coach A and substitute A1 had similar thoughts concerning the behaviour substitutes were expected to display. As a result, substitute A1 explained that rather than sulking about not playing, he just accepted the decision and behaved appropriately, *“I*

do respect his decisions whether I like them or not is another thing but I just get on with it”

(Substitute A1). This meant that he did not argue or question his coach’s decision, but remained quiet and behaved as expected *“he makes the decisions and you have to go with them”* (Substitute A1).

4.7.1.4 Commitment

Raw data themes for commitment consisted of lack of commitment and commitment associated with communication

Lack of commitment

Coach A’s commitment towards substitute players was affected when he thought substitutes were not responding as he would like. *“Sometimes it is difficult because you are not getting the response that you want from them because of that ‘I’m not in the team attitude’ sort of thing. So you are looking at the guys who are interested.”* (Coach A). Reduced coach commitment was reflected by substitute A2 who felt that his coach did not have much interest in substitute players at training *“There wasn’t much coaching going on really, subs need to know ways that they can improve their game.”* (Substitute A2).

Commitment associated with communication

Poor substitute commitment appeared to occur in conjunction with poor communication. Substitute A2 said that after a while his effort declines and he stops caring and communicating with his coach. When this happens he questions his commitment to his coach and considers leaving the team, *“It (level of interest) does drop right off. I think your self-esteem goes with regards to your football. You sometimes get frustrated and sometimes communication ceases really. Then you don’t really want to play for the manager and you tend to want to just go after a while.”* (Substitute A2)

4.7.1.5 Closeness

Raw data themes for closeness represented trust, respect and honesty.

Trust

When asked about trust and closeness with his substitute players, Coach A did not appear to believe closeness was important. He interpreted closeness as being synonymous with favouritism and stressed that he selected a team based on performance not closeness or favouritism. *“No I wouldn’t [be closer to starters more than substitutes]. A lot of people say that managers have favourites but the way I look at that is I have players who perform week in week out that’s why they’re in the starting line up. If that’s what you call being favourites then I would turn around and say not they’re not my favourites they’re my best players”.*

Respect

Nonetheless Coach A expressed respect for his substitute players, *“Well you need your subs. At the end of the day we have a squad of 16 or 18 players. Every player is important whether be the 17th or 18th man or in the 1-16. Substitutes are important”.* He also appreciated the sacrifices they made to play only to become a substitute player, *“I do appreciate sacrifices they make. Because at the end of the day some of them involve me taking them away on long bus trips to a game and when we get there I tell them they’re not involved”* (Coach A). Equally substitute A1 expressed that he trusted his coach and respected his decisions, *“Yeah I trust him and respect his decisions... whether I like them [decisions] or not is another thing but I just get on with it”.* Although this last quote also appears in description of complementarity above, it is also included here because it indicates that because of respect for his coach substitute A1 responded with co-operative behaviour by sustaining his efforts.

Honesty

Conversely substitute A2 found it frustrating that the coach lies and would prefer if he was more honest. *“Sometimes you do have to tell little white lies”* (Coach A). That is, coaches were less honest with players they liked because they did not want to damage their confidence, *“Well it just makes you more frustrated really at the end of the day. Subs just want the truth really and don’t want to be fobbed off. I know that sometimes he doesn’t want to hurt a player by saying I don’t think you’re good enough he’ll probably say ‘you’re not in my plans at the moment, you’re not quite fitting into the team’ rather than saying I don’t think you’re good enough”* (Player A2).

4.7.2 Summary of case study 1

The coach-athlete relationships in team A consisted of poor communication and misunderstanding with regards to the team selection process. Complementarity was under represented suggesting that co-operative interaction is less prevalent in the relationships than the other constructs. There was also evidence of reduced commitment as both the coach and athletes reported experiencing reduced commitment to each other at some point. However, there was evidence of shared understanding with the coach and substitute players expressing similar expectations for substitute players. Finally, although closeness was quite positive between the coach and substitutes, substitute A2 did experience frustration as a result of his coach’s dishonesty.

4.7.3 Case Study 2: Team B (Female Team)

4.7.3.1 Communication

Raw data themes for communication consisted of short notice, poor explanation, and limited interaction.

Short Notice

Communication was poor between coach B and both of her substitute players with substitutes quite often receiving information that they were not starting the game quite close to kick off, *“The player won’t know until Sunday morning when they arrive. It’s usually a two o’clock kick off and the girls arrive at half twelve”* (Coach B). Both players confirmed this was the case but stated that in their experience they were usually informed in the changing room just before the game commenced. In fact, substitute B1 commented that in some instances she is not directly informed by her coach, as team selection is written on the tactics board, *“[I find out] on match days either just before I get in the changing room or in front of everyone when she’s putting it up on the board”* (Substitute B1).

Poor explanation

Both substitutes and coaches reported that there was limited communication between substitutes and coaches before the game. Substitutes reported that they often received insufficient explanation as to why they were not starting the game. *“No not usually at the time if I ask then she may offer a reason most of the time she hasn’t given me one”* (Substitute B1). Coach B explains that she finds it difficult to explain honestly to a substitute player exactly why they are not playing. As a result she does not tell them the truth, choosing instead to provide a less hurtful explanation. *“Do I be that honest with them that I lose them for that game? No. I can’t be that honest with them. So often times I will give them a reason close to the real reason”* (Coach B).

Limited interaction

Communication and interaction were also limited when the game was in progress and substitutes were sitting on the substitute’s bench. Substitute B1 reported, *“I don’t usually interact with her when I’m on the bench because she’s watching the game and so am I. The only time we might interact is if I’m being brought on or if she tells me or us to go and warm up”*. Finally, substitutes and coaches

reported difficulty communicating effectively with each other, in fact Coach B felt that over time communication tended to cease between her and substitute players altogether, *“What stops first me going to them or them coming to me, I don’t know. But it just stops”*. This cessation of communication was supported by substitute B2 who said, *“I stopped talking to her. I thought she had become so involved in her own little world there was no point”*.

When substitute B2 experienced resistance from her coach with regards to sharing information she avoided communicating stating, *“she [coach] was so negative when I gave her feedback about preseason I was just put off speaking to her.”*

4.7.3.2 Co-orientation

Raw data themes for co-orientation consisted of misunderstanding the team selection process, shared understanding of expectations, and lack of shared understanding

Misunderstanding the team selection process

Coach B reported using an autocratic decision making style when selecting her team, choosing to make the final decision about team selection herself despite consulting other members of coaching staff, *“Ultimately I will seek advice from others but it is my decision at the end of the day as to who starts and who goes on the bench”* (Coach B). In doing so Coach B reported referring to a number of factors when selecting a team. These included a player’s form, *“I suppose a number of factors come into it when choosing a side. The first decision is to do with current form. Current form would be based on last week’s game, the week before’s game, the training that week”*, performance at training, *“through their effort in training... it is their attitude, approach and application through the training session. Are they doing everything that I ask of them?”*, and qualities of the opposing team when

deciding to make them a substitute player, *“If we are playing a team with a strong midfield then we need a strong midfield, therefore the midfield player who is stronger will start”*.

There appeared to be some incongruence between factors Coach B reported to influence team selection decisions and factors substitutes believed influenced team selection decisions. Although substitute B1 guessed that her coach’s decision was influenced by positive form, attitude, and performance, she was also of the opinion that coach B used favouritism to select the team, *“Sometimes I wonder what she sees when she picks certain players and drops others. I also think some players have to work harder for their place than others whether that is because of lack of competition in certain positions or something else I don’t know”*. Substitute B2 believed that she worked hard and was loyal to her team thus believed that this was sufficient to facilitate being selected to start for the team. Consequently, when she became a substitute, she became confused and did not understand her coach’s decision, *“I think she looks for hard work in training and on the pitch. She obviously looks for her best players and specific skills for each position. She always said loyalty to the club is important but I don’t think she considers this anymore...I thought that by committing to the club and doing as well as I could in pre-season by putting in lots of effort would mean that I had done everything I could to be selected. Now I just don’t know, I don’t know what it takes to be selected these days.”*

Expectations for Substitutes

Both the coach and substitutes from team B agreed that substitutes are generally expected to deliver a good performance during competition and generally display high levels of effort. Substitute B1 accurately identified that her coach expected her to make an impact on the game once substituted on to play, *“I think they would and should expect a player to make an impact but if it’s anything under 20 mins I think it’s unrealistic for a player to make a significant impact”* (Substitute B1). However, coach B also reported certain expectations which substitutes were not aware of. Coach B expected

substitutes to demonstrate increased effort, to perform better than usual and to make an impact on a game when substituted on to play, *“If the truth be known I am looking for that little bit extra...they have to give me their normal game plus that little bit extra to show me that they are better than the player who has replaced them”* (Coach B). Coach B also continued to say, *“I want them to better the team. I want them to go out with a positive attitude. I think it is very simple. I don’t think it is as complicated as a player would like to make out. They just have to play their normal game but show a massive amount of work rate and effort. Fight and battle for every ball, I don’t expect them to win every ball but I do expect them to fight for it”* (Coach B).

Substitute B2 believed that they simply needed to play better than the player who they were replacing, and this would be enough to impress their coach, *“I don’t think she expects too much impact from a defensive player. I think she just expected me to replace and do the job of the player I was replacing. Nothing more really. As long as I do that, that’s all she can expect”* (Substitute B2).

Lack of shared understanding

Coaches and substitutes in team B expressed different views and lack of understanding concerning perceived ability. Coach B also felt substitutes did not understand her views or seek clarification about what was expected of them, *“some of them [substitutes] just don’t see it [weakness in their performance]. They just don’t see it at all and that does my head in...I say it don’t I, we both go to a cinema we’re both watching the same film, but I’ve seen a horror and you’ve seen a comedy. That is what it feels like. How can they not see it?”* (Coach B).

Both substitute players also expressed disagreement and misunderstanding between themselves and their coach. Substitute B1 stated, *“I didn’t agree with a lot of her views and actions particularly her man management not just with regards to myself but also other people in the club.”* Substitute B1

also felt misunderstood by her coach stating *“I don’t think ***** [coach] even knew where she wanted to play me. She said that herself, and the amount of different positions and roles I’ve played for her while at the club demonstrate that”* (Substitute B1).

Substitute B2 also had difficulty understanding why she was a substitute player attributing this to a disagreement she had with her coach earlier in the season. She seemed to think that by disagreeing with her coach’s opinion she was more likely to become a substitute player, *“I don’t know why I was dropped to this day but I did have a disagreement with the manager during pre-season about the formation of the team and training...But it just seems like if you give her any negative feedback she can’t take it. That’s the only thing I can think of – well other than she’s too spineless to drop other players and she thought I’d say nothing and get on with it”* (Substitute B2).

Poor communication also contributed to less shared understanding between the coach and the substitute *“Sometimes I do and sometimes not [feel that substitutes understand]. I hope that they’d seek clarification if they don’t understand and I always say to a player ‘do you get what I mean, do you understand? And they’ll say yeah, yeah, yeah. Then you watch them in the following training session and you realise they don’t actually”* (Coach B).

4.7.3.3 Complementarity

Complementarity consisted of just one raw data theme, lack of complementarity, which summarised the limited co-operative interaction between Coach B and her substitute players. Neither the coach nor substitutes interviewed from team B reported incidents where they worked together or interacted co-operatively. In fact, Coach B acknowledged that whilst she may appear to be listening to her players, she is actually dismissing their opinion, *“I will always listen to their views and I am not afraid of taking on their views, but I have my views. It’s the old Brian Clough thing, you can talk for*

ten minutes and then at the end of the conversation you'll realise I was right". This is reflected in experiences of substitute B1 who experienced poor support from her coach when she became a substitute player, *"I don't feel that she made any sacrifice or effort for me as I was not really included in that team this season"* (Substitute B1). Substitute B2 did not experience co-operation from coach B either, stating instead that *"It felt like she [coach] went out of her way to ignore me in order to avoid confrontation"*. Failure to experience co-operative interaction or channelled efforts led substitute B1 to experience limited closeness with her coach, *"I knew from the way she was with me that I wasn't in her plans and quite often I found her unapproachable"*.

4.7.3.4 Commitment

Raw data themes for commitment consisted of lack of commitment and commitment associated with communication.

Lack of commitment

When players were substituted consistently over time, effort appeared to decline because they did not feel it was a worthwhile investment of energy. Substitute B1 reported working hard *"in the beginning because I thought it [effort] would earn me a place but then I just started to resent training because I didn't think it was making a difference...as time went on I began to feel like it didn't matter what I did, I just wouldn't be picked so I started to lose interest"*.

Coach B also reported losing interest when substitutes did not demonstrate improvement over time *"it [losing interest in a player] will happen over a period of time. It won't ever be over a number of weeks. It will probably be over a number of months... I'll start to think for whatever reason they're just not getting it"*. When this happened Coach B dedicated her time to other players, *"if I can't get the best out of them, I start to lose interest in them and start to think that I need to shift my interest to*

a player who is similar to that player, lesser ability but who will take on the instructions” (Coach B). Reduced commitment was associated with reduced communication as Coach B spent less time interacting and coaching substitute players, “I think if they have been dropped over a number of months the communication is probably little to none...If they can’t return to that form and I am giving instructions and they are not taking them on board, or the player who has replaced them is playing much better than them, there is not a lot that can be said, so therefore, it isn’t said”.

4.7.3.5 Closeness

Raw data themes for closeness consisted of dishonesty, lack of trust, and lack of respect.

Dishonesty

Substitute B2 believed that her coach was extremely dishonest and tended to lie a lot, *“she cannot stop lying...the woman does not know how to tell the truth. Even when she was confronted when I told her I was leaving she spouted a load of lies not just to me but to other players to keep them on side”*. Substitute B1 felt the same *“I don't know why but ***** [coach] seems to lie all the time, even about little things”*.

Lack of trust

Because of dishonesty both substitutes had less trust in their coach, *“I don’t trust her because I think she lies...a lot, I don’t trust a word she says, its all lies (Substitute B1)*. Furthermore lack of trust was prevalent between Coach B and her substitute players. Coach B reported trusting starters more so than substitute players, *“Trust is a really important word. Any player that walks out and wears the starting strip has got my complete and utter 100% trust”*. Interviewer: *And those who don’t? Coach B: Then they don’t have. Or there are times when players are close in ability and there are two or*

three but I'll trust to put on one over another. I think there are players that I do trust to do a job.

Interviewer: So have players who are consistently sub lost your trust? Yeah possibly”.

As a consequence of distrust for her coach and a belief that her coach was being dishonest substitute B1 stopped communicating as much as she had previously, *“I think after a while because of things mentioned before, such as her honesty I didn't always feel that there was much point in communicating with her”.*

Closeness associations

Misunderstanding and reduced commitment were associated with reduced closeness between Coach B and her substitute players. Substitute B2 felt that because she was misunderstood by her coach, it meant that the coach was unfamiliar with how she felt about becoming a substitute, *“I don't think she understands me at all. She apparently had no idea that I was unhappy sitting on the bench and annoyed at her”* (Substitute B2). Thus, lack of understanding appeared to lead to lack of familiarity and closeness between the coach and substitute player. Coach B explained that reduced sense of closeness or sense of care towards substitute players resulted in a lack of effort and commitment, *“The second I stop coaching you that's when you need to be worried. Because actually I've stopped caring and I've stopped bothering about you”.*

4.7.4 Summary of case study 2

Poor communication appeared to contribute to poor shared understanding between the coach and both substitute players in team B. Poor communication meant the coach and substitute players had different understanding of factors which influenced team selection. It also contributed to incongruence between the coach's expectations of players once substituted into the game, and substitutes' perceptions of these expectations. Results also indicated that there was little co-operative

behaviour (complementarity), reduced commitment and overall lack of closeness between Coach B and her substitute players.

4.8 Discussion for Study 3

The focus of this study was to investigate communication and the relationship between coaches and substitute players in football. Separate case studies were used to present results from a male semi-professional team and an amateur female team. Both case studies revealed that coaches and substitutes experienced inhibited co-orientation, reduced commitment and little complementarity, whilst lack of closeness was evident in case study two. In addition, communication appeared to play a significant role in the relationships that were investigated, with lack of communication contributing to diminished co-orientation, complementarity, commitment and closeness. Furthermore, incongruence between coaches and substitutes with regards to team selection decisions and expectations in relation to substitutes' performance contributed towards limited co-orientation in some cases. These findings provide support for Jowett and Ntoumanis' (2004) conceptual model of the coach-athlete relationship (4Cs; complementarity, closeness, co-orientation and commitment) and indicate that both coaches' and substitutes' experiences are reflective of a negative coach-athlete relationship (Jowett et al., 2005; Poczwardowski et al. 2002).

4.8.1 Communication

There was evidence of poor communication and interaction between coaches and substitutes supporting findings from study 1 as well as existing research evidence that coaches spend less time communicating with substitute players (Gilbert et al., 1999; Smith et al., 2005; Solomon, 2002; Solomon & Kosmitzki, 1996; Wang et al., 2001). Communication was often late and included insufficient detail concerning the coaches' team selection decisions. Communication was sometimes inappropriate, for example, delivering the selection decision in front of the rest of the team or providing a dishonest explanation as to why a player has become a substitute. Thus, the quantity and quality of feedback was clearly reduced for substitute players, as predicted by Wang et al. (2001).

Research has shown that such limited interpersonal contact has implications for uncertainty, role ambiguity and shared understanding leading to dissatisfaction and conflict (Jowett & Meek, 2000; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Shelley & Sherman, 1997; Wang et al., 2001). More specifically, lack of communication inhibits co-orientation (Jowett & Meek, 2000). This is supported in current findings with substitutes from both case studies experiencing misunderstanding regarding team selection process and female substitutes in case study two experiencing conflicting opinions with their coach concerning perceived ability and what is expected of them once substituted into the game.

4.8.2 Co-orientation

Disagreement and misunderstanding between a coach and his/her athlete is characteristic of poor co-orientation in their relationship. Lack of co-orientation was represented as disconnection and contention by an Olympic athlete and his/her coach in Jowett (2003). Disconnection, consisting of disagreement and inadequacy between coaches and athletes was evident in current findings as coaches and substitutes disagreed about perceived ability and the importance of training for re-selection. Contention, which comprises unequal needs and an imbalanced influence, was also evident as there was an imbalance between the amount of information desired by substitutes and the feedback coaches were willing to provide. According to swimmers in Philippe and Seiler's study (2006) when performers are not aware of factors that have influenced the coach's decision, they are less likely to understand and accept it, consequently impacting on the coach-athlete relationship (Philippe & Seiler, 2006). Effective communication is required in order for coaches to communicate specific goals and expectations for performers (Shelley & Sherman, 1997) and since communication between coaches and substitute players was limited in the current study, coach and athlete expectations concerning the role of the substitute in performance were semi-congruent.

Autocratic behaviour by coaches in this study may have contributed to limited communication and feedback that was provided to substitutes causing incongruence between the coaches and the performers' shared understanding. Poor understanding of the team selection decision by substitutes in this study resulted in substitutes developing a different view of factors that contributed to the decision. For example, coaches reported 'form' and 'performance in training' as significant factors that contributed to team selection whereas substitutes for team A tended to believe that training did not influence selection at all. Furthermore, both coaches agreed that the substitute was expected to perform well and make a significant contribution to the game if they are substituted on to play. Substitutes on the other hand believed that they needed to play better than their usual performance in order to regain a place in the starting line-up. Thus although all substitutes felt that they were expected to make an 'impact' on the game by performing well, they did not report exactly how well they would need to play. Lack of shared understanding about expectations will result in less give and take or complementarity between coaches and athletes.

4.8.3 Complementarity

Complementarity can be maintained if both the coach and the athlete have co-orientated understanding and common goals (Jowett & Meek, 2000). However, in the case studies examined here there was lack of congruence in substitute expectations, suggesting that coaches and substitutes had somewhat dissimilar goals. In addition coaches and substitutes described little in the way of co-operation between them. Substitutes in both teams reported that coaches provided limited positive feedback, were unwilling to negotiate with regards to their selection decision, and were less committed to coaching substitutes than starting players. One substitute in team A reported that his coach did not provide adequate assistance to substitute players in order to help them regain their position in the team. According to Jowett (2003) lack of commitment may cause coaches or athletes to demonstrate 'opposed behaviours' that are incompatible causing power struggles and 'ineffectual

support' whereby there is a distinct lack of assistance for the performer (Jowett, 2003). Thus, lack of complementarity between coaches and substitutes may be attributed to the fact that they spent less time together with the coaches tending to focus their attention on starter players. Participants in Jowett and Cockerill's (2003) study reported that if coaches did not provide sufficient adequate technical instruction in a supporting and inspiring way the psychological and physical well being of the athlete could be threatened. According to Jowett and Meek (2000) common goals (co-orientation) may help overcome these situational demands, thus allowing coaches and substitutes to work together in a common direction. However, in addition to lack of co-orientation, lack of commitment may have contributed to non complementary behaviours between coaches and substitutes.

4.8.4 Commitment

Jowett and Ntoumanis (2004) suggested that commitment reflects the cognitive aspect of the coach-athlete relationship rather than the affective aspect of closeness. However, current findings suggest that commitment may also reflect the behavioural aspect of the relationship, whereby the degree of effort behind coaches' and athletes' actions and behaviours may influence the relationship.

Coaches experienced reduced commitment over time due to miscommunication, lack of understanding and non-complementary behaviours, thus highlighting the reciprocal nature of the relationship between constructs. Poor communication lead to reduced effort because coaches did not understand substitutes' lack of improvement, and substitutes did not understand the coach's decision to deselect them. Both coaches reported that they were not willing to work with substitutes who are not demonstrating 'a required response' (complementary behaviour) to becoming a substitute. However, their commitment was high when substitutes made suitable improvements or their efforts remained high. This suggests that when substitutes' behaviour was co-operative in the eyes of the coach, coaches were more likely to remain committed. Substitutes became less committed when they

believed their efforts were not appreciated or acknowledged. These findings are in agreement with Jowett and Meek (2000) who identified associations between communication and commitment and commitment and co-orientation.

4.8.5 Closeness

Emotional closeness is characterised as feelings of love, care, respect, trust and mutual value in the coach-athlete relationship (Jowett & Meek, 2000; Jowett et al., 2005). However, Jowett and Meek (2000) reported that salience and intensity of closeness may be different in different coach-athlete relationships. This is supported in current findings as coaches reported that they did not need to be intimate with athletes or in fact like them in order to have a successful relationship. These results only provide partial support for the proposal that personal feelings of intimacy, liking and trust may be less influential to the coach-athlete relationship (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003), because coaches believed that it was extremely important to trust their players. Coach B explained she had complete trust for starter players but trusted substitute players to a lesser extent. As substitutes for team B also expressed distrust and a lack of respect towards their coach, it may be suggested that they shared a negative relationship, as lack of trust, respect and honesty are reflective of an incompatible coach-athlete relationship (Jowett, 2000; Jowett & Meek, 2000). Lack of trust may have been caused by misunderstanding and reduced commitment that already existed in their relationships, as according to research poor closeness is associated with reduced co-orientation and commitment (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000). According to Carron and Bennett (1977) the need for inclusion, closeness and feeling part of the dyadic relationship is the only dimension that differentiates between compatible and incompatible coach-athlete relationships. Based on this statement, it could be assumed that substitute players in team A had a compatible relationship as they reported respect and trust for their coach. However, these substitutes also experienced reduced co-orientation, reduced communication and reduced commitment. Thus, these results question the value

of Carron and Bennett's (1977) statement, and offer support for the more holistic characteristics of Jowett and Ntoumanis (2004) conceptual model consisting of the 4Cs.

4.8.6 Conclusion

Overall findings provide support for the importance of communication and commitment in addition to the 3Cs originally proposed by Jowett and Meek (2000) as components of coach-athlete relationships. Furthermore, there was evidence of interaction between constructs supporting the concept of the 4 Cs being an integrated model (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000). Communication was associated with co-orientation which in turn affected complementarity and closeness, whilst commitment was associated with co-orientation, complementarity and closeness. By acknowledging these associations this study helps to provide a clearer picture of the holistic nature of the coach-substitute relationship (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003). Most importantly this research has identified the detrimental effect that poor communication can have on various subcomponents of the coach-athlete relationship, thus confirming that communication is a key component to establishing a successful coach-athlete relationship. Consequently, future research should consider the long term effects that reduced communication can have on coach-athlete relationships and examine whether poor communication can lead to effective and successful athletic performance. Furthermore, coach-substitute relationships in different sports need to be examined in order to ascertain whether similar results may exist in different sporting environments.

4.8.7 Limitations

Firstly, by using a qualitative analysis and a multiple case approach whereby different perspectives were used to describe the coach-substitute relationship, overall conclusions only reflect the experiences of specific cases and cannot be generalised to a wider population. Nonetheless, this approach offers detailed understanding of the relationships discussed.

Secondly, results may have been diluted by only using one off interviews. Since indicated that a failure to compromise or sacrifice over a longer time period may have been the cause for deterioration of the relationship between coaches and players who were long term substitute, future research should consider a longitudinal approach to investigating the impact of becoming a substitute on performers in team sports. Furthermore, people often under-report negative experiences that include undesirable, sensitive or threatening information (Pope, 1997) and although participants in this study did report negative experiences, it may have been more useful to carry out more than one interview over time in order to establish a rapport with participants.

Chapter 5: Introduction to Study 4

The three previous studies examined substitutes' thoughts (study 1-3), emotions (study 1 and 2) and behaviours (study 1 and 3), and revealed that becoming a substitute may result in negative emotional reactions and maladaptive behaviours towards performance. These findings concur with existing research that becoming a substitute player may be threatening and stressful (Dosil, 2006; Holt & Hogg, 2000). Specifically, study 1 indicated that worrying thoughts, self-presentation concerns and negative emotions were experienced by substitute players. Study 2 revealed that substitutes experienced emotions such as depression and anger, but remained confident and experienced low self-presentation concerns and facilitative anxiety. Finally, study 3 revealed that diminished communication may impact shared thoughts, commitment and effort between coaches and substitute players. The apparent relationship between thoughts, emotions and behaviours in substitute players is explained by Lazarus (1991, 2000) who states that cognitive appraisal of the environment as negative or threatening will result in a negative emotional reaction. Furthermore, thoughts/cognitions are related to behaviours, whereby changes to one will bring about a response in the other (Lazarus, 2000; McCann, 2000). Therefore, if players experience negative thoughts in relation to their playing status, they are also likely to experience debilitating emotions and behaviours. However, if players can increase awareness and control of their thought processes they will have greater control of behaviours (McCann, 2000) and emotions (Lazarus, 2000). Cognitive-behavioural strategies may facilitate this as they are used to alter thoughts and behaviours ensuring that they are beneficial to performance (Anderson, 2000).

Research has found that there is a positive relationship between the use of cognitive behavioural strategies and performance in successful athletes, by allowing them to consistently manage emotions and improve performance and satisfaction (Hall & Rodgers, 1999; Kendal, Hrycaiko, Martin, &

Kendal, 1990; Mamassis & Doganis, 2004; McCaffery & Orlick, 1989; Orlick & Partington, 1988; Ryska, 1998; Savoy, 1993, 1997, Savoy & Beitel, 1997; Silva, 1982). According to the matching hypothesis, strategies chosen for a psychological skills training package should be based on the athlete's characteristics and specific performance requirements (Hardy, Jones, & Gould, 1996; Savoy, 1997; Terry, 1995). As negative thoughts and behaviours were reported by substitutes, cognitive behavioural strategies may help the performer to overcome a negative mental state (depression, anger) and behaviour (reduced motivation) that is associated with their playing status. However, in order to successfully manage substitutes' thoughts, emotions and behaviours, more detailed understanding of substitute experience is necessary. That is, whilst findings from studies 1, 2 and 3 provide information concerning substitutes' thoughts, emotions and behaviours, they are limited by the timing of data collection and the number of times that each participant had been a substitute player.

As previously discussed in chapter 3, data collected (for study 2) during the pre-game phase may have resulted in reduced self-presentation concerns because competition was not imminent, thus athletic identity was not on display. Likewise pre-performance anxiety interpretation may differ from pre-game anxiety interpretation reported by participants in study 2. Therefore, in order to facilitate a more positive experience for substitute players it is important to fully understand their thoughts, emotions, and behaviours during the pre-performance phase.

Furthermore, none of the three studies in the current programme of research established how often participants had been a substitute player at the time of data collection. Findings in study 3 indicated that the coach-substitute relationship deteriorated over time resulting in reduced commitment and effort by substitutes. Therefore, players who frequently become a substitute may experience more debilitating thoughts, emotions, and behaviours in response to their playing status. Consequently, a

longitudinal investigation incorporating data collection during the pre-performance phase may provide a clearer understanding of football players' responses to the substitute role. Therefore, given these limitations and the evidence that substitutes experience negative thoughts, emotions and behaviours in response to their playing status, the purpose of this study is to carry out a longitudinal investigation of substitutes' experiences and implement cognitive behavioural interventions to overcome debilitating thoughts, emotions and behaviours that may arise over time.

5.1 Literature Review for Study 4

5.1.1 Relationship between substitutes' thoughts and behaviours

Low motivation to train and perform was reported quite often by substitutes in studies 1 and 3, especially when they were persistently substituted. This is in line with a recent statement by Dosil (2006) stating that low motivation and effort are prevalent in substitutes. For example, players in study 3 commented that they stopped trying after a period of time when they believed their efforts were futile. This is in line with research that suggests low motivation may also arise when athletes are concerned about performance outcome believing the task to be too difficult or unattainable (Humphreys & Revelle, 1984). Support for this proposal is evident in the results from studies 1 and 3 as substitute football players reported that they experienced some concerns about their status and often worried about proving their ability and performing well. These worries appear to be triggered by role ambiguity, uncertainty, role dissatisfaction, and a poor relationship with their coach.

However, regardless of whether or not negative thoughts and motivation are causally related, it is still evident that substitutes actually experience negative thought processes, reduced goal expectancy and reduced motivation, at a time when their ability is perhaps most highly scrutinised by their coaches and team mates. Their thoughts, emotions and behaviours appear linked in a downward spiral, which may have a negative impact on them achieving their goal of getting re-selected. Dosil (2006) recommended that sport psychologists could enhance substitutes' motivation by encouraging a more

professional approach to their preparation and performance. However, the elimination of worrying thoughts that can inhibit motivation and potentially performance must also be addressed. To facilitate enhanced mental state and improve performance in substitute players, research is needed that examines processes and techniques that can be used for this purpose. Therefore, it seems appropriate to examine cognitive behavioural strategies that have been used to address similar problems to those experienced by substitutes.

5.1.2 Cognitive behavioural strategies

Goal setting, self-talk, and performance routines are cognitive behavioural strategies that have been used extensively in sport in order to regulate behaviour and enhance performance (Anshel, Weinberg, & Jackson, 1992; Anshel & Wrisberg, 1993; Jackson, 2003; Locke & Latham, 1985, 1990; Orlick & Partington, 1988; Swain & Jones, 1995a; Swain & Jones, 1995b). Existing research has demonstrated that athletes often employ goal setting and self-talk together as performance enhancing strategies (Defrancesco & Burke, 1997, Thiese & Huddleston, 1999) by improving attention, drive and effort. Goal setting is a cognitive behavioural technique that regulates behaviour by focusing athletes' thoughts on a target or aim in an attempt to enhance performance (Anshel et al., 1992; Locke & Latham, 1985, 1990; Orlick & Partington, 1988; Swain & Jones, 1995a). Self-talk is a key cognitive component of sports performance (Thomas & Fogarty, 1997) involving self-made statements by the athlete which can alter emotional state and attentional focus (Jones, 2003). Finally, pre-performance routines consist of pre-determined behaviours that facilitate the skill rehearsal prior to actual performance (Czech, Ploszay, & Burke, 2004) thus drawing attention to the task and potentially eliminating distraction (Anshel & Wrisberg, 1993; Jackson, 2003; Wrisberg & Anshel, 1993). These strategies appear to compliment each other since once goals have been set, self-talk and performance routines can be used to remind or reinforce these goals to the performer prior to as well as during performance (Anshel & Wrisberg, 1993; Landin & Herbert, 1999; Wrisberg & Anshel, 1993, 1997; Zeigler, 1987).

5.1.1.1 The effects of goal setting and self-talk on motivation (behaviour) in sport

Motivation for task development can be enhanced using goal setting which encourages focus, regulates effort and directs the performer's activities towards enhanced persistence, inevitably leading to greater performance achievement (Locke & Latham, 1985). Goal setting triggers an initial internal drive to reach a desired target (set goal) that will have a motivational reaction on the performer (Anshel et al., 1992; Locke & Latham, 1985). This initial motivational effect also has an indirect impact on performance (Hall & Byrne, 1988; Jones & Swain, 1995) by improving concentration on a specific task, as well as increasing self-efficacy (Burton, 1989; Kingston & Hardy, 1997), perceived ability (Anderson, Crowell, Doman, & Howard, 1988; Burton, 1988), perception of success (Burton, 1989; Miller & McAuley, 1987), and facilitative anxiety experiences (Jones, 1995; Jones & Hanton, 1996).

Athletes have also reported using self-talk to enhance their motivation to achieve their goals (Hardy, Gammage, & Hall, 2001a; Hardy, 2006). Hardy et al. (2001a) found that athletes used motivational self-talk to remind themselves of their goals and increase their levels of effort in relation to these personal goals. This is explained further by Hatzigeorgiadis, Theodorakis, and Zourbanos (2004) who identified that self-made statements facilitate the maintenance of effort during a task when phrased in a motivational tone and context. Therefore, self-talk, when used appropriately, may also enhance motivation towards achieving goals.

5.1.1.2 The effect of goal setting, self-talk and performance routines on attention (cognitions) in sport

Goal setting can facilitate attentional focus by encouraging performers to focus their thoughts (cognitions) on appropriate relevant information in order to achieve their goals (Kingston, Hardy, & Markland, 1992; Locke & Latham, 1985). Locke and Latham (1985) stated that by focusing on short term controllable goals whilst under pressure, performers can experience enhanced concentration and focus on important aspects of the required skill(s). This is supported by Swain and Jones (1995a) who found that although goal setting primarily regulated persistence and effort during a basketball task, it also lead to enhanced performance by improving focus and concentration. Participants reported that whilst they were initially motivated by the goal setting intervention, this motivation also caused them to focus on appropriate elements of the task in order to achieve their aim. More specifically, if a performer tries to achieve a process rather than an outcome goal, they may in fact attend to relevant external stimuli (e.g. technique) rather than irrelevant internal stimuli (e.g., performance outcome concerns) during competition. According to Kingston et al. (1992) process goals require the athlete to focus on technique development which can enhance performance in otherwise stressful situations changing the athlete's focus from irrelevant to relevant cues. Process goals also provide the most control to the performer because they are not influenced by the environment as much as performance or outcome goals (Kingston & Hardy, 1997). Consequently it may be more appropriate for substitutes to be more task orientated focusing on process goals which are more controllable and more likely to enhance both self-efficacy and actual performance. Conversely, outcome goals relate to the outcome of a sporting event, and are based on social comparison (Hardy & Jones, 1997) which usually but not always constitutes winning or losing. For example, with regards to substitutes their desired outcome is not always related to winning or losing but to be selected as a starting player in the future. In order to fulfil this outcome goal they must achieve process goals which specify the product of performance

(Hardy & Jones, 1997). Performance goals are usually more quantifiable than outcome goals and generally achieved independently of other performers (Cox, 2002).

Improvements in attention have also been linked with self-talk where using cue words has helped to remind performers to what they should be attending. Ziegler (1987) found that by providing tennis players with verbal cues prompting attention to the most important environmental stimulus (i.e., tennis ball), they experienced enhanced performance by maintaining an appropriate attentional focus throughout the experiment. Landin and Herbert (1999) reported similar results with regards to the successful execution of a volley in tennis following a self-talk intervention. Furthermore, social validation revealed that players associated this improvement with enhanced attention and focus on the requirements of the skill as a result of using task specific cue words.

Such cue words that focus on technique and skill execution can be classified as cognitive (instructional) self-talk (Hardy et al., 2001a, Hardy, Hall, & Alexander, 2001b). Cognitive or instructional self-talk consists of self made statements with reference to specific actions that the performer needs to carry out in order to successfully complete a task (Hardy et al., 2001a; Malouff & Murphy, 2006). Such statements may be used to remind the performer of specific details of the task, thus they may also help the performer to use an appropriate attentional focus.

Athletes have also reported attentional disruption prior to performance inhibiting preparation and perceived readiness for competition because either inappropriate cues are being attended to or arousal levels are too low (Schmidt, 1982; Wrisberg & Anshel, 1993). Research has been carried out to establish the impact of performance routines in closed skill sports, and findings have generally been unequivocal, stating that performance routines used prior to the execution of closed skills enhance attentional focus, improving performance (Boutcher, 1990; Cohn Rotella, & Loyd, 1990; Czech et

al., 2004; Jackson, 2003; Jackson & Baker, 2001; McCann, Lavellee, & Lavellee, 2001; Moran, 1996). This is achieved because routines allow performers to focus on rehearsed cues and relevant skill based thoughts rather than negative worrying thoughts, or physical actions that may inhibit performance (Czech et al., 2004). However, it has also been suggested that pre-performance routines can improve perceived readiness by reactivating the athlete physically and psychologically before they perform (Schmidt, 1982, 1988). It has been reported that athletes under-perform skills following a period of rest as a combined result of being inactive or attending to other cues during this time (Schmidt, 1982). According to Anshel (1985) performance is often poorer than usual following a period of rest when compared with performance outcomes recorded prior to rest. This phenomenon is called 'warm up decrement' (Schmidt, 1982) and several hypotheses have been proposed in order to explain it.

One such hypothesis is the activity-set hypothesis (Nacson & Schmidt, 1971) which has received support from various researchers (Jackson, 2003; Murray, 1980; Nacson & Schmidt, 1971; Schmidt & Wrisberg, 1971). This hypothesis suggests that performance is reduced because athletes lose a generalised readiness to respond to specific demands of the task. Thus, once called upon to perform the performer inappropriately adjusts to the physical and psychological demands of the skill as a result of 'warm up decrement' and, no longer sufficiently fulfils specific demands of the task (Wrisberg & Anshel, 1993). Wrisberg and Anshel (1993) offer the example of a baseball batter following a period of inactivity on the bench. His attentional focus has changed from an external to a more internal self inspecting focus, thus he no longer exhibits the external focus that is required in order to bat successfully. Therefore, according to the activity set hypothesis, in order to overcome warm up decrement, performers must access the appropriate set of support systems (e.g., arousal, attention) that are required to complete the task (Nacson & Schmidt, 1971; Schmidt & Wrisberg, 1971). Performance routines may facilitate this selection as the performer completes tasks (routines)

that are similar, if not exactly the same as performance tasks, thus focusing their attention on relevant cues prior to performance.

5.1.3 Using self-talk to eliminate cognitive interference

As well as using self-talk to direct attention it may also be useful in helping performers to overcome negative or irrelevant thoughts during performance (Hatzigeorgiadis et al., 2004). According to Smith, Bellamy, Collins, and Newell (2001) anxious athletes exhibit worrying thoughts associated with self-preoccupation, concerns about evaluation, and personal performance. Findings from study one revealed that substitutes experienced worrying thoughts linked to making mistakes, performing well, difficulty settling into the game and how they would be perceived by team mates and coaches during performance. These thoughts that are not related to performance execution but focus on worry about performance and about how well others may be performing (Martlett & Watson, 1968) are referred to as cognitive intrusive thoughts (Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 2001; Martlett & Watson, 1968). According to research these are related to poor performance in a negative linear relationship between unhelpful intrusive thoughts and performance in sport (Gould, Eklund, & Jackson, 1992; Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 2001). A study by Gould et al. (1992) found that unsuccessful wrestlers experienced more negative intrusive thoughts than their successful counterparts. This may be linked to information processing, as according to Hatzigeorgiadis and Biddle (2001) and the processing efficiency theory (Eysenck & Calvo, 1992) worrying thoughts interfere with the mental processes associated with skill execution. This worrying prevents the working memory from processing relevant information, thus limiting performance during tasks that evoke high mental demands (Smith et al., 2001). Therefore, thought interference in the form of such worries will inhibit information processing, potentially leading to performance difficulties and underperformance (Eysenck & Calvo, 1992; Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 2001; Smith et al., 2001).

However, although process efficiency is affected, it is not necessarily the case that performance will also be impacted. In some instances worrying thoughts have resulted in enhanced motivation and increased effort (Eysenck & Calvo, 1992; Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 2001; Smith et al., 2001). Consequently it could be the case that worrying thoughts may actually improve performance (Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 2001), especially in instances when the athlete believes their goal is achievable. Hatzigeorgiadis and Biddle (2001) found support for this as athletes who reported high goal attainment expectancy also reported that worrying actually lead to increased rather than decreased effort. Jones (1995a) referred to this as facilitative anxiety interpretation, whereby worrying thoughts are not interpreted as detrimental to performance.

In order to achieve positive goal attainment expectancy Jones (1995) proposed that athletes develop high perceived control. For example, substitutes who enhance perceived control, may develop positive goal attainment expectancy thus mediating the effect of worrying thoughts on performance by maintaining effort. Effective goal setting may help achieve this by allowing the performer to set goals that are controllable and achievable. Based on Hatzigeorgiadis and Biddle's (2001) suggestion that goal attainment and cognitive intrusions are changeable once the competition has started due to extraneous variables (weather, opposition, officials' decisions), it seems more appropriate for performers to set process rather than outcome goals. Process goals may serve to enhance goal attainment expectancy, whilst encouraging the performer to focus on relevant task specific cues.

However, despite literature available to support the use of goal setting and self-talk for enhancing effort and motivation, focusing attention on relevant cues and eliminating negative thoughts associated with performance, this can only be achieved with effective and successful implementation of such interventions. Failure to follow guidelines regarding the function and use of goal-setting and self talk may result in an ineffective intervention.

Several studies have identified various factors that mediate successful goal attainment. These include goal type (Kingston & Hardy, 1997), goal specificity, goal difficulty (Hall, Weinberg, & Jackson, 1987), and whether or not goals were assigned or self-set by the performer themselves (Boyce & Wayda, 1994).

5.1.4 Goal Type

Due to the flexible nature of performance goals, athletes who use them are more likely to exhibit control over their performance (Burton, 1989) by modifying the desired outcome (e.g. number of successful tackles) making it easier or more difficult depending on their success. However, Burton (1989) did not directly compare the effects of performance goals with outcome goals, consequently these findings are limited. Kyllö and Landers (1995) reported that whilst performance goals provide an enhanced sense of personal achievement and satisfaction, outcome goals appear to be associated with the greatest amount of actual performance success. According to Hardy et al. (1996) process goals are fundamental in developing accurate automatic skill responses during performance. That is, Kingston and Hardy (1997) reported process goals to be more effective than performance goals.

Filby, Maynard, and Graydon (1999) found that subjects who used all three types of goal resulted in better performance during a soccer skill test than subjects who used any of the other types (outcome, performance, or process) of goal alone. Thus a combination of both types may be more beneficial as suggested by Filby et al. (1999) as well as Kyllö and Landers (1995).

5.1.4.1 Goal Difficulty and Specificity

Boyce and Wayda (1994) found that goal difficulty may also affect whether or not performers accept or reject goals that have been assigned, as 47% of their participants rejected goals due to perceived difficulty of the set task. Goals that the performer accepts as achievable will encourage increased effort and are more likely to result in increased chances of success (Hall & Byrne, 1988). In order for

athletes to perceive goals as achievable their ability should be considered so that goals that are set are specific and challenging to result in maximum performance potential (Locke & Latham, 1985). In fact Locke and Latham (1968, 1985, 1991) state that difficult goals challenge the performer producing better performance than easy or 'do your best goals'. Ambiguous goals such as 'do the best you can' are not specific enough to inform the individual of exactly what it is that they need to do in order to achieve their ultimate goal (Locke & Latham, 1985). Locke and Latham (1985) also hypothesised that 'do your best goals' that are weak, vague and general are less effective than specific absolute goals. Kylo and Landers (1995) found partial support for this stating that absolute goals (specific) result in the greatest improvements, whilst vague or general goals are no more useful than ambiguous 'do your best goals'. Thus, suggesting that specific goals are more likely to result in greater success.

However, a meta-analysis by Kylo and Landers (1995) found that there was limited support for this hypothesis within sport psychology research, and that moderately rather than extremely difficult goals may be more beneficial. More specifically, if an athlete perceives a goal to be unattainable based on his/her ability, there will be a negative linear relationship between goal difficulty and performance (Kylo & Landers, 1995). Thus it is important to be aware that a performer who has low self-efficacy will not be motivated by difficult goals (Kylo & Landers, 1995).

5.1.4.2 Goal Choice: Assigned versus Self Set Goals

Kylo and Landers (1995) found that goal setting is more likely to be successful if performers are allowed to participate in setting goals. This may be linked to the internal motivational properties of goal setting, and the fact that participant involvement may be more likely to facilitate this (Boyce & Wayda, 1994). However, research that has addressed the impact of goal setting on performance has generally been limited to laboratory based experimental designs using closed skills to measure

performance in volunteers. Hall and Byrne (1988) highlighted concerns about such studies stating that the motivational effect of goal setting will not be apparent if participants included in research studies are already highly motivated because they have little motivational improvement to make. That is, participants who volunteer or take part in studies involving measures of performance are quite likely to be motivated to begin with. In addition research also focused on the performance of simple tasks which are easy to measure and are tasks which performers are more likely to achieve success.

A longitudinal single subject design may help to combat these methodological weaknesses. Kingston and Hardy (1997) stated that long-term goal setting training programmes provide the athlete with more time for goals to enhance performance of the specific skill. Swain and Jones (1995a) implemented a longitudinal single subject design in a goal setting intervention in an attempt to enhance basketball performance. They reported that this design allowed goal setting to be tailored towards players' specific individual needs, resulting in performance improvement. Furthermore, social validation responses by participants allowed the researchers to understand why participants felt that goal setting facilitated performance. In this case participants reported that their attention was directed on their aim enhancing motivation and effort towards attaining their goal.

5.1.5 Guidelines for using self-talk – Theoretical issues

As previously stated self-talk may be used in conjunction with goal setting in order to remind performers of technical or tactical techniques or to enhance their motivation and effort during actual performance (Hardy et al., 2001a; Hardy et al., 2001b, 2006; Landin & Herbert, 1999; Ziegler, 1987). However in order to effectively utilise self-talk as a cognitive behavioural intervention, it must be made clear, what it is, and how, why and when it should be used (Hardy, 2006; Hardy et al., 2001a; Hardy et al., 2004). Definitions of self-talk vary from cognitive-behavioural aspects to more commonly discussed cognitive based definitions (Hardy, 2006), thus it has been regarded as being central to cognitive and cognitive behavioural interventions in research (Conroy & Metzler, 2004).

However, conceptual clarification is needed as despite there being a consensus that self-talk can enhance performance, there appears to be variation among researchers with regards to an exact definition (Hardy, 2006). That is, although various researchers have defined self-talk more often than not they have omitted one or more of concept's characteristics that are not pertinent to the aims of their research. Hardy (2006) proposed that an accurate definition of self-talk should include statements that are addressed to the self, be multidimensional and dynamic in nature, have interpretive elements associated with the content of statements, and fulfil both instructional and motivational functions.

Consequently the definition presented here attempts to provide a more holistic and coherent definition amalgamating existing definitions. Thus, based on existing research, it appears that self-talk is a skill that consists of brief verbalised or internalised self-made statements. These statements are made in relation to a skill/task, directed to oneself and made with the purpose of reinforcing good performance (technical/tactical), chastising poor performance (technical/tactical), or providing motivational encouragement about future actions and the likelihood of completing them successfully (Conroy & Metzler, 2004; Elko & Ostrow, 1991; Hardy et al., 2001a; Hardy et al., 2001b; Hardy, Hall, & Hardy, 2004; Landin, 1994; Malouff & Murphy, 2006; Theodorakis, Weinberg, Natsis, Douma, & Kazakas, 2000; Van Raalte et al., 1995). Based on this information and the dynamic nature of self-talk, it is understandable why self-talk has been classified further according to valence (positively or negatively phrased), overtness (internal or external) and function (cognitive or motivational). These classifications serve to optimise use and understanding of self-made statements, allowing researchers to investigate the impact of different types of self-talk on performance.

5.1.5.1 Valence

“Valence is concerned with the content of self-talk and is anchored with the bi-polar descriptors of positive and negative self-talk” (Hardy, 2006, p.84). According to Hardy (2006) the usefulness of positive or negative self-talk has been widely researched however strength of one over the other remains equivocal. According to Van Raalte et al. (1995) and Hardy et al. (2001b) positive self-talk is significantly better at motivating performers than negative self-talk. Positive self-talk enhances self-esteem, motivation, concentration and performance (Van Raalte, Brewer, Rivera, Petitpas, 1994, 1995). Positive self-talk is usually made with encouraging sentiment, consisting of congratulatory (Hanton & Jones, 1999), or affirming statements relating to ability and chance of success (Van Raalte et al., 1994, 1995). In some instances positive observed behaviours such as fist pumps have also been classified as examples of positive self-talk (Hardy et al., 2001b, Van Raalte, 1994).

5.1.5.2 Overt/ness

The extent to which athletes’ statements are internalised or verbalised is called overt/ness and to date there is limited research with regards to which type (overt or covert) is more beneficial to performance (Hardy, 2006), however, some researchers have reported that positive self-talk may be more externalised than negative self-talk. Consequently, despite a lack of clear guidelines it may be more appropriate if participants choose the most comfortable or natural overt/ness for their performance.

5.1.5.3 Function

Athletes have reported using self-talk for various reasons including skill development and execution, as well as maintaining mental focus, arousal activation, and effort during performance (Hardy et al., 2001a). Consequently, self-talk can be classified differently depending on whether it is serving an instructional or a motivational function. Instructional self-talk includes statements made by the

performer in relation to actions they need to perform to successfully execute a task (Conroy & Metzler, 2004; Hardy et al., 2001a); Malouff & Murphy, 2006) and is also called cognitive self-talk. Motivational self-talk on the other hand is more concerned with activation and emotions in order to enhance effort through mental toughness, focus, and confidence (Hardy et al., 2001a), Hardy et al., 2004).

5.1.5.4 Instructional self-talk

Cognitive or instructional self-talk is closely associated with improved attention since it encourages the performer to address specific aspects of the skill which can be related to theories on attention (Landin & Herbert, 1999; Ziegler, 1987). This type of self-talk has been proven to positively affect the learning and performance of specific skills in tennis (Landin & Herbert, 1999; Ziegler, 1987) and soccer (Johnson, Hrycaiko, Johnson, & Halas, 2004). That is, cue words related to the execution of the skill are used by performers during performance. Therefore instructional self-talk may be more appropriate when a task requires fine movements and motor skills (Johnson, et al., 2004; Perkos, Theodorakis, & Chroni, 2002; Theodorakis, Weinberg, Nastis, Douma, & Kazakas, 2000). Theodorakis et al. (2000) reported improvement in various motor skills following an instructional self-talk intervention, and Perkos et al. (2002) found that performance of motor skills in basketball was enhanced when participants used instructional, and to a lesser degree, motivational self-talk. Johnson et al. (2004) also found that task specific cognitive self-talk improved execution of a low drive shooting kick in soccer players. Players used a two word phrase in relation to the skill, and post intervention scores revealed that two out of three participants in the single-subject design improved. Malouff and Murphy (2006) found that self-selected instructional statements improved putting performance in golfers. Ming and Martin (1996) reported planned self-talk enhanced skill acquisition in figure skaters. Thus, support exists for instructional (cognitive) self-talk and the successful execution of motor skills in various sports.

5.1.5.5 Motivational self-talk

Self-made statements made by athletes have been used to encourage and push themselves during performance (Hardy et al., 2001a; Hardy et al., 2001b; Rushall, 1984; Van Raalte et al., 1994). Hardy et al. (2001a) classified this type of self-talk as motivational drive self-talk, used in an attempt to maintain effort, self-encouragement and drive towards attaining goals. Motivational arousal and motivational mastery self-talk are also used by athletes (Hardy et al., 2001a). Motivational arousal statements are used to regulate emotional state whereby the performer attempts to psych up, control or relax themselves. Motivational mastery refers to encouraging statements made to initiate mental readiness, focus and self-confidence for performance (Hardy et al., 2001a). Furthermore, athletes have actually reported using motivational self-talk more frequently than instructional self-talk (Hardy et al., 2001a), however, unlike instructional self-talk, research is extremely scant concerning its effects on performance. Nonetheless, Theodorakis et al. (2000) and Perkos et al. (2002) do report that motivational self-talk is less effective for skill acquisition and performance enhancement of skills. Therefore, it seems that motivational self-talk is less appropriate for enhancing execution of motor skills in sport.

5.1.5.6 Using self-talk

Based on research, self-talk that is aimed at enhancing performance of skills during performance should include positive, instructional self-selected statements. Therefore, substitutes may find it advantageous to use instructional self-talk during performance to overcome cognitive interference, thus focusing their attention on relevant components of the skill, improving performance. Further to this Landin (1994) suggested that these statements should also be abbreviated, phonetically simple in nature, logically associated with the specific nature of each skill, and compatible with the required timing of the task. So, although participants should be encouraged to select their own statements, some supervision/assistance may be needed to ensure that they choose their self-talk appropriately.

5.1.6 Guidelines for using performance routines to reduce warm up decrement

As already discussed, in order to overcome warm up decrement, performers must access the appropriate set of support systems (e.g., arousal, attention) that are required to complete the task (Nacson & Schmidt, 1971; Schmidt & Wrisberg, 1971). Therefore, performance routines implemented to overcome warm up decrement should incorporate skills or strategies that match both the problem experienced by the performer and the demands of the skill.

According to Wrisberg and Anshel (1993) there are many mechanisms that may make up the ‘activity set’ for a specific task, thus only adjustment of the correct or appropriate one may have an influence in overcoming warm up decrement. Consequently, although research on closed skills supports the fact that performance routines enhance attention, this may not be the case for open skills. It may be that arousal enhancement during the warm up may be more beneficial for open skills (Anshel, 1985). Anshel (1985) proposed that reduced psychological arousal during rest or inactivity could be responsible for warm up decrement, thus he performed a study to eliminate warm up decrement by implementing interpolated tasks (an activity intervention implemented by the researcher during a rest period) to increase arousal. Results indicated that riding a bicycle ergometer prior to performance of a vault in gymnastics reduced warm up decrement and gymnasts were more successful at performing the task than a control group.

Wrisberg and Anshel (1993) investigated the activity set hypothesis using various interpolated tasks (physical exertion or skill based activity) and reported, similar to Anshel (1985), that physical activity prior to execution of a ground stroke in tennis enhanced performance. Taking practice swings, air dribbling and running on the spot were more effective than imaging a successful execution of the task. Furthermore, practice swings and air dribbling were more effective than running on the spot, suggesting that when using pre-performance routines to prepare for open skills, attentional focus

should be directed towards the properties of the required movement. Thus, Anshel and Wrisberg (1993) investigated the usefulness of open versus closed interpolated tasks during a rest period, for the successful completion of an open tennis skill (criterion task). Results indicated that although both open and closed interpolated tasks reduced warm up decrements, the interpolated task that most resembled the criterion task resulted in a more superior post test performance. Therefore, the more similar the interpolated task and the criterion tasks the more likely that warm-up decrement will be reduced.

More recently Wrisberg and Anshel (1997) investigated the effects of positive and negative self-talk as interpolated tasks on warm up decrements in hockey players. Results indicated that performers who utilised positive self-talk during rest experienced greater post rest performance than the negative self-talk group. It was proposed that positively worded self-talk facilitated attentional focus as well as increasing motivation and expectation of success (Wrisberg & Anshel, 1997). Based on these findings (Anshel & Wrisberg, 1997; Wrisberg & Anshel, 1997) pre-performance routines should resemble the skills to be performed in competition and include self-talk and physical activity to reduce warm up decrement.

5.1.7 Guidelines for using psychological skills training packages in sport

Psychological skills training consists of systematic practice and implementation of psychological skills in order to enhance performance in sport (Weinberg & Gould, 2003). According to Savoy (1997) psychological skills training should be implemented in team and individual sports over the course of an entire competitive season in order to have the best effect. As it is during this time that athletes will experience times of stress or injury, thus the ability to control their own mental state will have a significant effect on preparation and performance (Behncke, 2006). Cognitive behavioural strategies such as goal setting, self-talk and pre-performance routines facilitate consistent management of emotions and improved performance (Ryska, 1998). According to McCann (2000)

behaviour results from and is strongly influenced by the thought processes of athletes, therefore athletes should increase their awareness and control of thought processes, since it is their behaviour that is objectively evaluated in competition.

The use of cognitive behavioural strategies should also adhere to recommended guidelines in order to be successful. Cox (2002) proposed seven phases to psychological skills training and Weinberg (2003) stated that there were three phases. Despite some differences between approaches both included reference to education (understanding the athlete and the sport), acquisition (selection and use of strategies), and review (effectiveness of chosen strategies).

Furthermore, in order to ensure cognitive behavioural strategies are successful a collaborative relationship should be formed between the client and the psychologist, whereby cognitions and behaviours debilitating to performance are changed (Sharpe, 1998). This process requires self-regulation and commitment on the part of the client thus is compatible with psychological skills training. Weinberg and Gould (2003) state that self-regulation is the ultimate goal of psychological skills training. Individualised cognitive behavioural strategies are more effective than non individualised cues (Cox, 2002). Consequently, cognitive behavioural strategies included should be based on the athlete's characteristics and personal performance requirements (Savoy, 1997). In order to achieve this, it is recommended that strengths and weaknesses of the athlete are assessed and understood so that an effective skills package is implemented. Thus interventions should be chosen in consultation with each performer, using the matching hypothesis as a guideline (Hardy et al., 1996; Weinberg & Gould, 2003).

The purpose of this study is to carry out a longitudinal investigation of substitutes' experiences and investigate the effects of an individualised psychological skills training package (consisting of goal

setting, self-talk, and pre-performance routine) on thoughts, mood, behaviour of football substitutes over the course of a competitive season.

5.2 Research Design for Study 4

Team selection (the independent variable) is controlled by the team coach, therefore the researcher has limited control over this independent variable. Experiments where the researcher has control over the independent variables and randomly assigns participants to a group are called true experiments (Fife-Schaw, 2000). True experimental designs are tightly controlled allowing the researcher to be confident that any changes to observed behaviours are because of the treatment that was implemented. There are times in applied research, however, when a true controlled experiment is not possible as it may be practically or ethically difficult to randomly allocate participants to treatment conditions. There may also be factors that prevent the researcher from controlling independent variables. Consequently true experimental designs tend not to be used in the applied setting, since their nature means that the researcher must have a degree of control which is quite often difficult outside of the laboratory (Fife-Schaw, 2000). When this occurs a quasi-experimental design is more appropriate.

Quasi-experimental designs are similar to single case designs in that pre-measure (baseline) scores are compared with scores for the same measure(s) once there has been some intervention. However, they differ from single case designs since data are not necessarily collected during the treatment phase, also groups are not randomised since these characteristics are quite often difficult to achieve in the applied setting (Fife-Schaw, 2000; Gribbons & Herman, 1997). Therefore, quasi-experimental designs are more flexible allowing research to be conducted in the real world providing information as to whether results are truly useful or not (Fife-Schaw, 2000). However, as quasi experimental designs tend to be used when there is reduced control, there is potential for greater threats to internal validity, but according to Fife-Schaw (2000) these designs should not be considered inferior to true

experiments as they provide answers to questions that exist in practical settings where the researcher has reduced control. There are various types of quasi-experimental design and each one is specifically suited to a different research environment depending on how the data are collected and whether or not there is potential for a control group. For example, when an investigation involves collecting data from a sequence of events over a long period in the context of a specific case, time series designs are appropriate (Druckman, 2004).

5.2.1 Time Series Design

Time series designs are observational studies that allow analysis of change that occurs during chronological events in order to establish trends and reveal patterns (Druckman, 2004). Time series designs are used to determine the effect of a complex intervention on one sample by taking measurements of the dependent variable on three or more occasions during both pre and post intervention (England, 2005; Fife-Schaw, 2000). Furthermore, according to England (2005) they are simple to perform as randomised control is not necessary. That is, with studies that last for a long time the control group could become exposed to or aware of the treatment, especially if both groups are in the same environment (Fife-Schaw, 2000). Consequently control group members may alter their behaviour in order to compensate for not receiving the treatment. Thus time series designs can be used as a reliable method in small populations within an applied setting. A time series design seems most appropriate since it allows for multiple data collection or observation points for each participant in order to establish the long term and immediate effect of an intervention (England, 2005; Fife-Schaw, 2000).

England (2005) states that visual inspection of the results can indicate a stepwise change in measurements at the point of intervention, whether or not scores were changing prior to the intervention period, if the trend continues after the intervention and if the effect continues over time (Figure 5.1).

Therefore, a time series design was used in this study because it is simple to perform, randomised control is not necessary, and it is a reliable method for establishing long term and immediate effects of an intervention in small populations within an applied setting (England, 2005; Fife-Schaw, 2000).

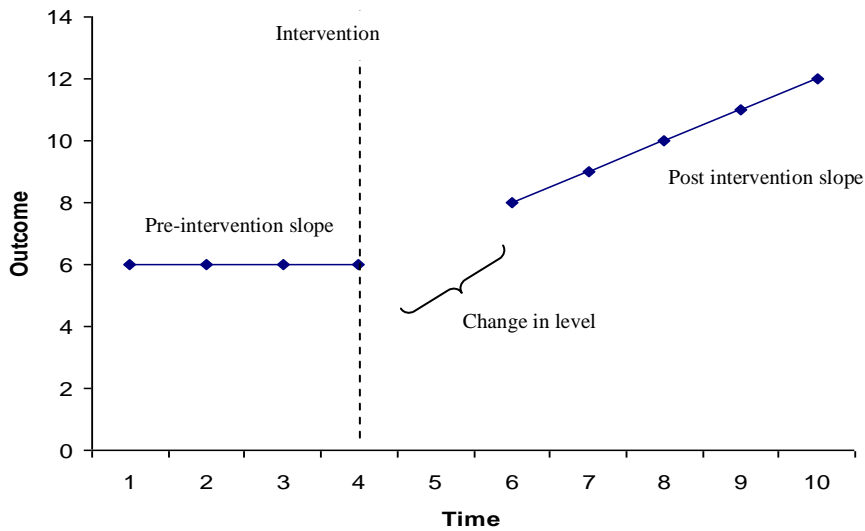


Figure 5.1 Example of a time series graph with key attributes identified (Adapted from England, 2005).

5.3 Methods for Study 4

5.3.1 Participants

Five female substitutes (age 18.2 ± 2.4 years) from an amateur football team ($N=18$; age 19 ± 3.7 years) participated in this study. Each player had been substituted for tactical reasons or based on their coach's perception of their ability and not injury, over a four month period. Table 5.1 contains demographic information for all participants and real names have been replaced with pseudonyms.

Table 5.1 Demographic data for participants.

Name	Age	Playing Position	Number of times was a substitute pre-intervention	Number of times was a substitute post-intervention
Lucy	20	Centre Forward	5	3
Claire	20	Wide Midfield	5	3
Melissa	16	Central Defender	5	3
Gemma	16	Centre Midfield	4	2
Kate	19	Centre Midfield	4	0

5.3.2 Measures

Self-presentation concerns were measured using the Self-Presentation in Sport Questionnaire (SPSQ: Wilson & Eklund, 1998), mood was assessed using the Brunel Mood Scale (BRUMS: Terry et al., 1999; 2003), finally state anxiety and self-confidence were measured using The Modified Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 (Jones & Swain, 1992). More detailed descriptions of these measures can be found in chapter three. However, for the purpose of analysis in this study it is important to identify the range of scores for each subscale. For the SPSQ each subscale has a different maximum score. That is the maximum score for performance inadequacy concerns and fatigue concerns is 40, whilst the maximum scores for concerns about appearing athletically untalented and physical appearance concerns are 28 and 24 respectively. The maximum score for each of the six subscales for the BRUMS is 24. Finally, scores for CSAI-2 intensity range from 9-26 whilst possible scores for CSAI-2 interpretation range from -27 to +27.

5.3.3 Procedures

Ethical approval was obtained from the University ethics committee. Permission was granted by the team coach to collect questionnaire data from all substitute players once informed consent (see Appendices 24 and 25) had been provided by each player.

Pre-intervention data were collected from all players who were a substitute over a four month period using the modified SPSQ (See Appendix 6; Wilson & Eklund, 1998), BRUMS (See Appendix 7; Terry et al., 1999; 2003) and the modified CSAI-2 (See Appendix 8; Jones & Swain, 1992). At the end of the four month period five players had been substituted more than four times (Table 5.1). All agreed to participate in the remainder of the study and became the focus of the intervention, however, participant number 5 (Kate) dropped out before the intervention period began due to illness. The intervention procedure was explained to each participant and they all agreed to cooperate and complete tasks when requested, however, they were made aware that they could withdraw at any time.

5.3.4 Intervention period

The intervention period lasted six weeks and consisted of an individualised intervention approach. The first five weeks of the intervention were specifically focused on making participants aware of their thoughts, behaviours and emotions in relation to being a substitute and expecting them to complete homework tasks in relation to these three areas. Participants were encouraged to replace negative thoughts and behaviours with positive alternatives. Following this, mental skills techniques were implemented in an attempt to facilitate improved changes to thoughts (e.g., self-presentation concerns, performance anxiety), emotions (e.g., depression, anger, and tension) and behaviours (e.g., reduced commitment and motivation). In collaboration with the researcher, each participant set outcome, performance and process goals that were specific to their aims as a substitute. Cognitive

specific (instructional) and motivational self-talk were implemented whereby participants selected key words associated with their process goals. In addition a pre-performance routine consisting of a dynamic warm up was implemented by all substitutes before being substituted into the game. A more detailed week-by-week breakdown of the intervention is outlined below.

Week 1: This period consisted of an initial assessment interview (See example in Appendix 26) with each substitute. Four participants provided informed consent for their participation and were interviewed using a semi-structured approach. The main focus of these interviews was to understand each participant's experiences of being a substitute player. Interviews lasted between twenty five to fifty minutes and they were recorded, transcribed verbatim and later analysed using deductive content analysis to identify negative thoughts (cognitions), behaviours and feelings (emotions) in relation to being a substitute. Secondary analysis was also carried out by an independent researcher to provide a reliability check. At the end of the interview each participant was shown their own results from the state SPSQ, BRUMS and modified CSAI-2 that they completed as a substitute prior to competition. These were discussed in order to identify maladaptive responses to being a substitute and to increase the participant's awareness of the impact (where appropriate) that their status was having on their emotions, self-presentation concern and anxiety. *Homework task:* Participants were asked to identify negative thoughts that they experienced when they were a substitute (see Appendix 27).

Week 2: The researcher and the participant discussed the content analysis of the interview as well as the participant's homework responses to select the most salient thoughts that may be impacting the performer. This also acted as respondent verification confirming that the analysis reflected the participant's experiences of being a substitute. The researcher also explained how thoughts, behaviours and emotions are linked in an attempt to help the participants to understand why had been feeling and acting as they had been, and how alternative thoughts may be beneficial. *Homework:*

Once salient negative thoughts were identified participants were required to identify alternative positive thoughts that could be used in place of the negative ones (see Appendix 28) for detail).

Week 3: The participant and researcher discussed the alternative thoughts chosen by the participant for homework and decided which thoughts should be implemented for training and performance. The intention of this discussion was to ensure that selected thoughts were in fact positive and facilitative to performance. *Homework:* The participant was asked to think about and identify negative behaviours that they associated with being a substitute (see Appendix 29).

Week 4: The implementation of alternative thoughts was reviewed and the researcher discussed the negative behaviours that the participant identified as being detrimental to performance in week three. It was intended that this process would highlight to the participant times when negative thinking had a negative impact on emotions and behaviour. In order to achieve this, participants' initial negative thought was challenged by the researcher. Using thought provoking questions substitutes were encouraged to examine the truth behind the negative meaning they had attached to their status and perceived ability. Jones (2003) refers to this as Socratic dialogue whereby the performer examines their self-defeating ideas and misconceptions. Self-analysis and Socratic dialogue lead to more adaptive emotional responses as the participant re-evaluates their initial appraisal and implements positive alternative thoughts (Jones, 2003). *Homework:* The participant was asked to identify alternative behaviours for homework (see Appendix 30).

Week 5: The implementation of alternative thoughts and behaviours was discussed and the participant was encouraged to use these whenever they were a substitute. In addition goals were discussed with each participant. Participants were asked to set outcome, performance and process goals and in order to achieve these goals cognitive (self-talk) and behavioural (performance routine)

strategies were discussed (Table 5.2). That is, self-talk was implemented in order to help achieve process goals and thus help the athletes to fulfil performance goals. Pre-performance warm up routines were implemented in order to help change behaviour before going on to play. Details of goals set by each participant, self-talk used and the pre-performance routine carried out by each participant are outlined in Table 5.2. It is important to highlight at this point that the same pre-performance routine was set for all participants by the researcher based on participants' reports concerning pre-performance behaviours.

Week 6: Participants were contacted to discuss their use of and satisfaction with the self-talk intervention and pre-performance routines. At this point no problems or difficulties were reported.

Table 5.2 A summary of the intervention mental skills package (Goal setting, Self-talk and Pre-performance routine) used by each participant.

Participant (playing position)	Outcome Goal	Performance Goals	Process Goals (Self-talk used is typed in italics)	Pre-Performance Routine
Lucy (Striker/Centre Forward)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To be selected for the first team and when I do I want to play well 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To finish (score) more (difficult to quantify) of my chances. To defend from the front To improve my movement into space so I can create more one-on-one chances 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To be more aware of goal keeper's position and place my shots. <i>"Place it"</i> To focus on my body shape and positioning when I am closing down defenders. <i>"Force it"</i>. To receive passes in space creating one-on-one's with the goal keeper. <i>"Clear move and call"</i>. 	Carry out my pre-performance warm up (on the sideline) the same as I do when I start.
Claire (Wide midfield player)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To be selected for the first team and when I do I want to play well 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To create chances for forward players/strikers To improve my positioning and get wider To have more attempts on goal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improve crossing of the ball. <i>"Contact"</i> Improve my awareness of space. <i>"Space"</i> Improve my communication. <i>"Shout"</i> Provide more follow up support on rebound shots <i>"Get there"</i>. 	Carry out my pre-performance warm up (on the sideline) the same as I do when I start.

Melissa (Central Defender)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To be selected for the first team and when I do I want to play well 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To become more aware of strikers' characteristics during the game To be competitive and committed in tackles To improve communication in order to achieve an organised defensive line 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To be aware of the strikers', footedness, pace, and shooting distance. <i>"Their Style?"</i> To focus on timing and strength in tackles. <i>"Be strong"</i> Communicate when passing on players to other defenders or directing movement to the halfway line. <i>"Talk"</i>. 	Carry out my pre-performance warm up (on the sideline) the same as I do when I start.
Gemma (Centre Midfield)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To be selected for the first team and when I do I want to play well 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To win more tackles To maintain possession in midfield To improve my positioning in order to win more goal kicks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improve effort and body position when tackling <i>"Get there and tackle"</i> To improve awareness of space before passing or receiving a ball. <i>"Look"</i> Be more aware of distance and direction the opposing goalkeeper gets and win the ball. <i>"Where? Win it"</i>. 	Carry out my pre-performance warm up (on the sideline) the same as I do when I start.

5.3.5 Post-Intervention

This period lasted for six weeks (from mid March until the end of the season in April). During this time the four players who participated in the intervention were asked to complete the BRUMS, SPSQ and the CSAI-2 each time they were a substitute. Due to team selection and the coach's decisions being out of the researcher's control the number of times (post intervention) that each player was substituted was less than the number of times they were substituted pre-intervention. Three participants were substituted three times and one was substituted twice (Table 5.1).

5.3.6 Follow up interview and social validation

At the end of the season the four players that had completed the intervention (see Appendix 31) were independently interviewed with each interview lasting between 20-40 minutes. As done previously interviews were transcribed verbatim. The aim of the interview was to allow participants to elaborate

on findings from the questionnaires, discuss how their thoughts, emotions and behaviours may have changed and obtain social validation for the intervention used. In addition, a social validation questionnaire was completed by each of the participants at the end of the study. Based on procedures used by Thelwell and Greenlees (2001) and Patrick and Hrycaiko (1998) participants were asked five questions about how useful they found the intervention and how satisfied they were with any improvements they had experienced (see Appendix 32).

5.3.7 Analysis of questionnaire data

Pre and post intervention data collected for the BRUMS, SPSQ and Modified CSAI-2 were analysed using time series analysis. This involved, visual inspection of graphs in search of stepwise changes in measurements at the point of the intervention (England, 2005). Furthermore, changes were only accepted if the pattern of change remained consistent across post intervention points of measurement. According to England (2005, p.346) “there are different ways of interpreting results of its (time series) analysis but graphical representation is the most useful”.

5.4 Results for Study 4

State measures for self-presentation concerns, mood, anxiety and self-confidence are presented in the form of individual case studies. Tables are presented that summarise thoughts, behaviours and emotions that each participant experienced during the pre-intervention phase. This is followed by tables outlining the alternative thoughts and behaviours as identified by each participant, and findings from the post intervention interview. Graphs illustrate each of the participant’s scores (pre and post intervention) for the BRUMS, SPSQ and CSAI-2; finally social validation data are discussed.

5.4.1 Participant 1

Lucy is a twenty year old female football player who plays in a centre forward position. She was a substitute five times during the pre-intervention period and three times during the post intervention period.

5.4.1.1 Pre-intervention interview

During her pre-intervention interview Lucy attributed her status as a substitute to her ability, stating that the players who played in the same position as her are much better than she is, *“Those two are better than me and they always will be.”* Consequently Lucy experienced a lot of negative thoughts and feelings during this time (Table 5.3) such as believing that everything she did was a battle and that it was practically impossible to change her coach’s mind. As a result she felt disappointed and disheartened causing her to behave with low effort and motivation, *“I’m not motivated really...you just go through the motions”*. Overall it seemed as though Lucy did not believe that she had much control over her status, this combined with the fact that she interpreted her ability (a stable construct) to be the reason that she was a substitute resulted in her experiencing low self-confidence and low motivation (Table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Deductive analysis results for the pre-intervention interview with participant 1 (Lucy).

Thoughts	Feelings	Behaviours
I have been useless as a sub	I don't feel motivated	I am not motivated really
I just dread it	I feel like I am letting them (parents) down	You just go through the motions
I know I won't make a difference anyway	Gutted and downhearted	I don't concentrate
There's always that voice 'you're not going to make a difference'	I just don't feel part of it	I just keep looking over at her hoping that she calls me over quicker
The only time she takes them off is if we are winning 5-0 then she puts me on	I feel left out	I play better when I am relaxed
Those two are better than me and they always will be	Disheartened	
Their strongest attributes will change the game more than mine will	Gutted	
I just don't know what to do	Nervous "pretty much nerves"	
There's always that doubt, I think if I have a half average game Sarah's (pseudonym) game will always be better than my best one	I worry far too much	
Even if I play great at training I know I won't play anyway		
I guess them two are better than me		
Even if I do start she tends to take me off a lot and it has been like that for the last couple of years		
I am not even worth explaining to why I am a sub		
I have to battle for things		
I have to work out what she is thinking and do something that is based on what the others do		
You just think 'what is the point? I am just going to be sitting down'		
Even if you are trying your best she is not even watching because you are not in the starting eleven (during warm up)		
I try to work out what position I am going into		
Those few minutes are precious (during warm up on bench) I need to make a difference if I want to start the next game		
What's the point she won't change her mind		
I want to play well		
I cannot think of a time when I have come on and actually made much of a difference in the game		

5.4.1.2 Identifying Alternative Thoughts

Table 5.4 presents positive alternative thoughts Lucy implemented in place of the negative thoughts.

Lucy identified 'thinking that she is not good enough', and 'feeling devalued' to be quite detrimental

to her performance (Table 5.4). Alternatively, she chose to think about her past performances and think that she is good enough to start (based on her experiences of starting in the past), however her recent form has impeded her. Lucy chose rejection, confusion, and low self-worth to be the most negative thoughts that she experienced when she was informed by her coach that she was going to be a substitute. Alternatively Lucy attempted to focus her thoughts during this time on being positive and considering herself as a valued member of the squad, so that she could play well when given the opportunity to do so (Table 5.4). Finally negative thoughts whilst on the bench centred on uncertainty about playing and not believing that she would get an opportunity to play. Alternatively Lucy's positive thought was to believe that there was a chance she would play and to be more certain about playing well when given the chance (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4 Summary of negative thoughts and alternative thoughts as outlined by player 1 (Lucy) after sessions 1 and 2

What do you <i>think about yourself</i> when you are a substitute?	Alternative thoughts could be...
Unvalued member of the squad Not good enough Not respected I'm an easy target	I have done it (started and played well) in the past so I am good enough I will need to work hard in training
What thoughts do you have when you are <i>told you are a substitute</i>?	Alternative thoughts could be...
'Here we go again!' Rejection Sometimes confusion 'Why am I sub again?' I feel worthless I lose all confidence	What do I need to work on in training to improve my chances of starting? I'm still part of the squad and squads win promotion not 11 players I will ask the manager at an appropriate time why I'm a sub Keep positive, so if I get on I can take my chance
What thoughts do you have when you are <i>sitting on the substitutes' bench</i>?	Alternative thoughts could be...
I wish I was playing I'm not going to get on for long, if ever! Sometimes disinterested	When I get on I will play to the best of my ability

5.4.1.3 Identifying Alternative Behaviours

Lucy's negative behaviours consisted of low motivation and effort to warm up (physically prepare). Alternatively Lucy proposed that it would be better if she prepared as though she was starting, focusing on her physical preparation ensuring that it was done to the best of her ability (see Table 5.5).

Table 5.5 Summary of negative behaviours and alternative behaviours as outlined by player 1 (Lucy) after sessions 1 and 2

How do you behave when you are told you are a substitute?	An alternative behaviour could be...
In the warm up I'm not running/completing the drills to the best that I can	I need to prepare the same way as I would if I was starting
How do you behave when you are on the bench?	An alternative behaviour could be...
I behave as though I am just going through the motions	To try harder to focus on my warm up and make sure it is to the best of my ability

5.4.1.4 Post intervention interview

Lucy indicated that her thoughts became more positive as she focused on making a positive impact on the game should she get substituted on: *"I began to think more positively, I would stay focused and tell myself if I get on I will have an impact on the team's performance, instead of just thinking 'here we go again' and allowing myself to lose concentration"* (Table 5.6). In addition her behaviour changed as demonstrated by increased effort during her pre-match and pre-performance warm up.

Table 5.6 Deductive Analysis results for the post-intervention interview with participant 1.

Thoughts	Feelings	Behaviours
I began to think more positively, I would stay focused and tell myself if I get on I will have an impact on the team's performance, instead of just thinking 'here we go again' and allowing myself to lose concentration.	I felt like they (key words) gave me purpose and this made me feel motivated, and when I feel motivated I am more confident.	It (behaviour) was very negative...I saw (after the intervention) how important it was to make sure that I put 100% in all warm ups. This kept me focused if I got on.
I began to concentrate on the game more, like watching the opponent's defence – who was their weakest defender? What foot didn't the defenders liked to be pushed onto? Which defenders didn't have much pace? So if I got on I could exploit these. Before your intervention I wouldn't be doing this, I would have just been sat feeling sorry for myself on the bench.	Yeah I think my hard work in training and a couple of performances in the reserve team influenced my manager's opinion	I went to the reserve manager after a reserve match because he was aware of my goals before the match. He was very positive and said I worked well on two of my goals, however my finishing still needed working on.
Yeah they (key words) helped because they kept my mind mostly clear of negative thoughts and helped me to stay focused on what I needed to do. They were also easy to remember so I didn't feel bogged down by coaching points I just remembered the three key terms.		
I would concentrate a lot more, put more effort in and not be as withdrawn as I would have been at the beginning of the season. (during warm up before going on as a sub).		
I would be more focused on making a positive impact whenever I came on. (Pre-performance)		
But I hope that doesn't happen ever again (being a long term sub), I think that I can come on and play well now, at least I know what I should be doing. So if I am sub once or twice then I can hopefully turn it around again and get back in the team.		
I think subs are on the bench because areas of their game need to be worked on. They're still important members of the squad and they will be given a chance in the team if they keep working hard.		
I go into games with less fear now and more positive thoughts. In the last few games. If I missed a chance instead of thinking 'that's it you've blown your chance to score now' – which is what I would have thought at the start of the season, I would think 'next time go round the keeper'.		

5.4.1.5 Pre-Competition Anxiety

Figure 5.2 shows that cognitive anxiety intensity was relatively high and stable for each of the five occasions that Lucy was a substitute during the pre-intervention stage. Lucy also interpreted this high cognitive intensity as debilitating. Post intervention scores for cognitive anxiety intensity dropped and remained at a lower level whilst anxiety interpretation continued on an increasing trend becoming slightly more facilitative than pre-intervention interpretation scores. Somatic anxiety intensity was lower than cognitive anxiety intensity (Figure 5.3) however, Lucy's interpretation of somatic anxiety became more negative the more often she was a substitute. Post intervention scores for somatic anxiety intensity dropped slightly and interpretation became more facilitative overall (Figure 5.3).

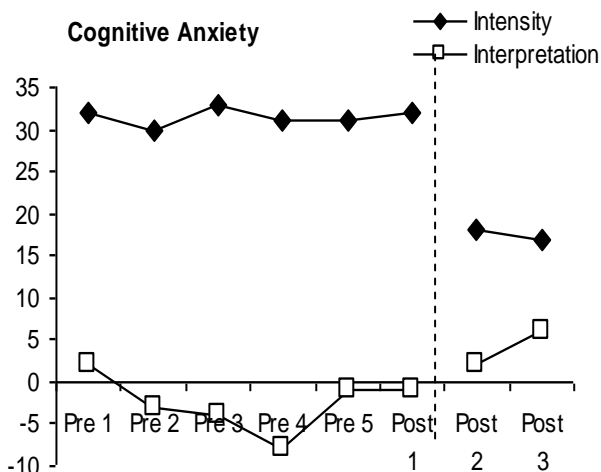


Figure 5.2 Cognitive anxiety intensity and interpretation scores for participant 1

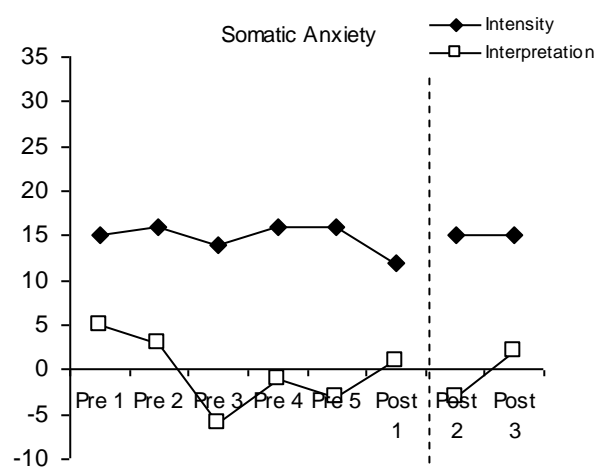


Figure 5.3 Somatic anxiety intensity and interpretation scores for participant 1

5.4.1.6 Self-Confidence

Figure 5.4 illustrates that whilst Lucy's self-confidence remained relatively stable during the pre-intervention period it did increase after the intervention period. The graph also indicates that Lucy's self-confidence interpretation gradually dropped and became slightly debilitating during pre-

intervention games, with an unexpected increase in direction at the end of this period (Figure 5.4).

However, post intervention scores indicate a more facilitative interpretation by Lucy.

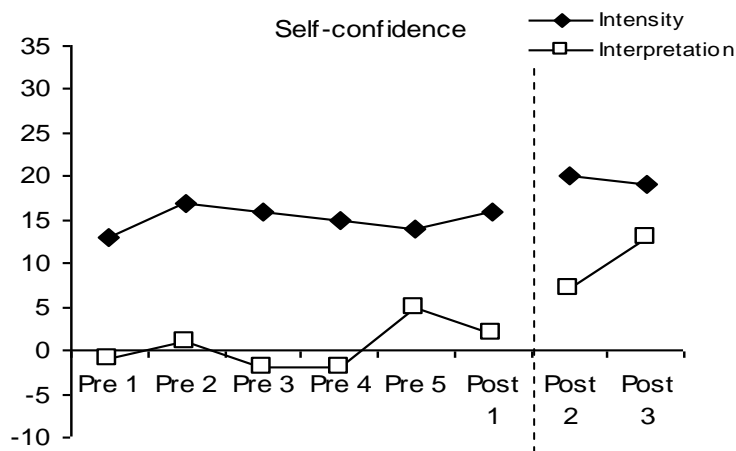


Figure 5.4 Self-confidence intensity and interpretation scores for participant 1

5.4.1.7 Profile of Mood States

Lucy's depression scores were consistently higher than her scores for the other five sub-components of mood during pre-intervention games (Figure 5.5). Anger was the second highest scoring mood dimension although scores for this mood state gradually decreased prior to the intervention (Figure 5.6). Confusion appeared to increase gradually (Figure 5.7), albeit marginally, whilst tension (Figure 5.8) and vigour (Figure 5.9) scores fluctuated and fatigue remained low and stable during pre-intervention games (Figure 5.10). Post intervention scores show a clear decrease in depression, anger and confusion, whilst vigour increased and consistently scored higher than the other five mood states during this period. In addition fatigue remained consistently low and stable scoring zero for the last five games.

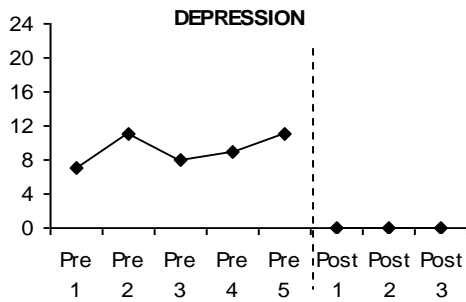


Figure 5.5 Depression scores for participant 1

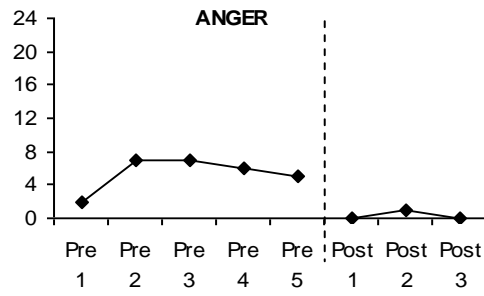


Figure 5.6 Anger scores for participant 1

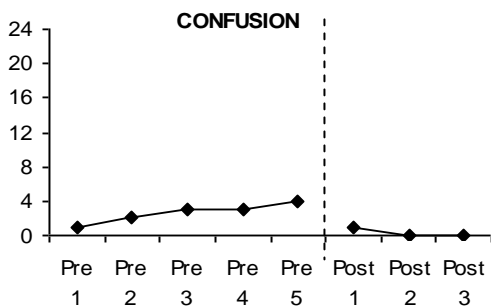


Figure 5.7 Confusion scores for participant 1

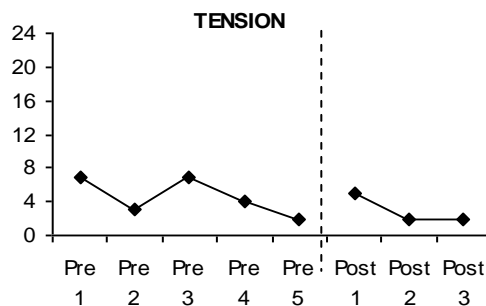


Figure 5.8 Tension scores for participant 1

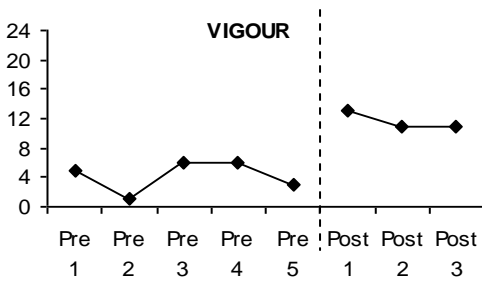


Figure 5.9 Vigour scores for participant 1

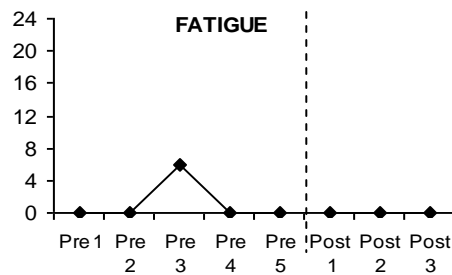


Figure 5.10 Fatigue scores for participant 1

5.4.1.8 Self-Presentation

Lucy's pre-intervention self-presentation concerns indicate a gradual increase for all dimensions of the SPSQ except physical appearance concerns indicating that the more often Lucy became a substitute player, the more self-presentation concerns she experienced. However, post intervention scores indicate that this increasing trend did not continue and did in fact reduce for performance inadequacy concerns and fatigue concerns. That is, whilst the intervention period does not appear to

have reduced self-presentation concerns to scores that were lower pre-intervention scores, there is also evidence that it may have contributed to declining trend (for performance inadequacy concerns) or plateau for self-presentation concerns.

Considering that the highest obtainable score for performance inadequacy concerns is forty, figure 5.11 illustrates that Lucy had high performance inadequacy concerns during the pre-intervention period that gradually increased the more often she was a substitute player. Whilst post intervention scores for performance inadequacy concerns remained high, there is evidence of a decreasing trend especially for post intervention games 2 and 3 (Figure 5.11). Likewise scores for Fatigue concerns also lowered after the intervention period (Figure 5.12) although were not lower than pre-intervention scores. Scores for concerns about athletic appearance (Figure 5.13). increased slightly during the intervention period but did plateau for the last game before the intervention period and remained so after the intervention. Finally, scores for concerns about appearing athletically untalented (Figure 5.14) were low and stable during both the pre and post intervention period.

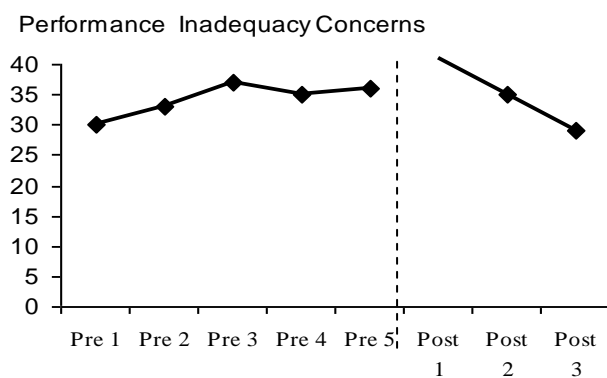


Figure 5.11 Performance inadequacy concerns for participant 1

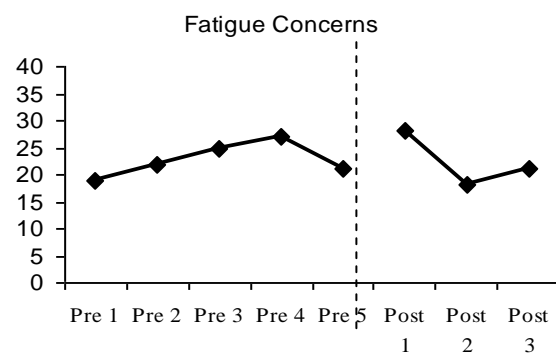


Figure 5.12 Fatigue Concerns for participant 1

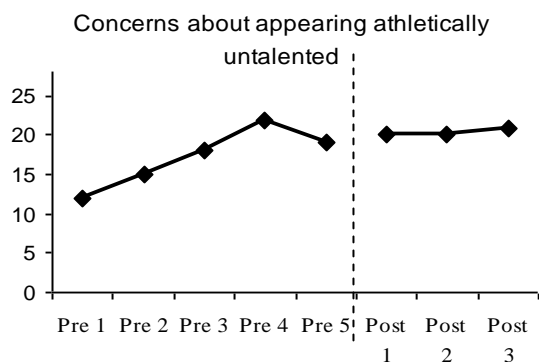


Figure 5.13 Concerns about athletic appearance for participant 1

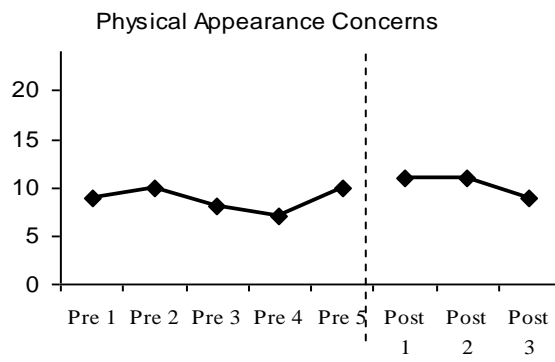


Figure 5.14 Physical appearance concerns for participant 1

5.1.1.9 Social validation

Findings from the social validation questionnaire (appendix 6) indicated that improving performance was extremely important for this participant (scoring 7/7). Changes to performance post intervention were considered to be significant (5/7) and she reported that she was quite satisfied with the intervention process (scoring 6/7) and found it useful (6/7).

When asked for reasons why and how the intervention helped performance, Lucy stated that prior to the study she only used self-talk in a negative way which would lower her self-confidence. Using positive self-talk increased her self-belief, allowing her to perform better, *“I think the self-talk was the most effective part of the intervention. Whereas before I would only self-talk in a negative way and lose my confidence, the way you helped me to change my mindset and therefore be more positive when self-talking helped to improve my confidence and eventually perform better”*. Finally she also reported that using words specific to the skill and movement required helped her to maintain focus: *“The three words/phrases that I used when self-talking [FORCE the defender, PLACE the shot and CLEAR MOVE AND CALL] helped to keep me more focused during matches”*.

5.4.1.10 Summary of findings for participant 1

Following the implementation of the psychological skills training package interview findings indicate that Lucy's thoughts became more positive and constructive about preparation and performance. Furthermore, questionnaire results illustrated that performance inadequacy concerns and fatigue concerns no longer continued to increase, cognitive anxiety intensity, depression and anger all reduced and there was evidence of improvements in confidence, cognitive anxiety interpretation, concentration and focus. Lucy also reported behaviour changes such as enhanced motivation and effort during her warm up as well as actively seeking out feedback from her coach.

5.4.2 Participant 2

Claire is a twenty year old female football player who plays in a midfield position. She was a substitute five times during the pre-intervention phase and three times during the post intervention phase.

5.4.2.1 Pre-intervention interview

Claire's thoughts were focused on thinking that her playing status was out of her control, *"I don't want to get used to it, but there is nothing I can do"*. Consequently Claire was not satisfied but was resigned to the fact that her status was controlled by external factors thus it was something she reluctantly accepted. She also believed that she could not influence the game if she was only given a few minutes to play, *"if I only get five minutes then I am not going to do anything in five minutes so it depends on how long I get"*. As a result Claire's motivation to warm up and physically prepare were reduced (Table 5.7).

Table 5.7 Deductive analysis results for the pre-intervention interview with participant 2.

Thoughts	Feelings	Behaviours
I don't want to get used to it (being sub) but there's nothing I can do	I'm not happy but I'll get used to it	When I am a sub I am always trying to prove that I should start
People who are playing in my position at the moment are stronger than me and performing like they are at the top of their game at the moment		I actually try to do a proper warm up because it is difficult to do it on the side (during the game)
If I only get five minutes then I am not going to do anything in five minutes so it depends on how long I get		I am watching the game and the player that I hope to be replacing. I try to see what she is doing with the players around her
In my matches I have got to do something that can show that I should be starting		It is not really the same as the warm up we do before the game...I do the stretches and when I do them I am talking and not really concentrating
I would like her (coach) to sit down and explain what her plans for me in the game are		Sometimes I am talking to the people on the sideline
I am focused on the game and I still feel ready (when on the sideline)		
It would be nice to know what they are talking about (coach and team at half time)		When she (coach) says you are going on in ten minutes, then I tend to work harder

5.4.2.2 Identifying Alternative Thoughts

When asked to identify the most negative thoughts she had about herself when she was a substitute, Claire stated that her thoughts were centred on questioning her own ability and worthiness to be playing in the team (Table 5.8). In order to make these thoughts more positive Claire stated that an alternative thought would be to think that she is a reliable and valuable member of the team. When she was informed that she was a substitute by her coach, Claire identified thoughts such as 'worrying that she wouldn't get enough time to play' as well as thinking about how frustrated and disappointed she was as being the most negative thoughts she experienced. Alternative thoughts that were put in place were focused on trying to rationalise Claire's frustration by accepting that competition between players for a starting place is a natural process (Table 5.8). Finally, rather than worrying if there would be enough time, Claire began to think about playing well when she was substituted on to play. Negative thoughts whilst on the bench centred on uncertainty about the amount of time Claire may get to play if she was to be substituted into the game, along with concerns about adjusting to the pace

of the game. Alternative thoughts were focused on controlling preparation during this time rather than worrying about factors beyond her control. In summary, thoughts of uncertainty and confusion concerning factors beyond Claire’s control were changed to thoughts about preparation which were more controllable.

Table 5.8 Summary of negative thoughts and alternative thoughts as outlined by player 2 after sessions 1 and 2

What do you think about yourself when you are a substitute?	Alternative thoughts could be...
Am I good enough to be playing for this team?	I am involved with the 1 st team and therefore I am relied on
What thoughts do you have when you are told you are a substitute?	Alternative thoughts could be...
Disappointment Frustration	We are the top club in our league; there is always going to be competition for places
Fear that I won’t get enough time to impress	When I do get on I will play well regardless of time
What thoughts do you have when you are sitting on the substitute’s bench?	Alternative thoughts could be...
Will I get enough time to prove that I can get a starting place or will I get less than 10 minutes?	I cannot control how much time I get to play
I wonder if I will fit into the pace of the game	I cannot control the pace of the game but I can control how much preparation I do before I go on

5.4.2.3 Identifying Alternative Behaviours

As already suggested Claire’s thoughts about preparation were reflected in her behaviour during pre-intervention games. That is, Claire did not physically prepare to the same intensity as she did when she was starting (Table 5.9). Alternatively she decided that she should increase her effort and improve her physical preparation, thus demonstrate more positive behaviour.

Table 5.9 Summary of negative behaviours and alternative behaviours as outlined by player 2 (Claire) after sessions 1 and 2

How do you behave when you are told you are a substitute?	An alternative behaviour could be...
Before the game...I behave in exactly the same way as I would if I was starting. I take the warm up seriously and make sure I stretch properly.	None
How do you behave when you are on the bench?	An alternative behaviour could be...
When I am asked to warm up during the first half, I admit that I don't put in as much hard work as I should.	I should always warm up as if I am about to go on, because someone may get injured and I'll have to go straight on.

5.4.2.4 Post intervention interview

A post intervention interview with Claire revealed that she improved her pre-performance physical preparation (warm up). As a result she started to think and feel more positively believing that she could come on and change the game and that she was actually as good as the players who replaced her initially (Table 5.10).

Table 5.10 Deductive analysis results for the post-intervention interview with participant 1

Thoughts	Feelings	Behaviours
I was kind of hoping that she (coach) would just come to me. But that wasn't going to happen	My confidence increased after a while especially after I played for the reserves so I could work on my game and the things I was trying to do	I started doing the warm up properly then [after the intervention period] that made a difference.
I'd think [about self] more that I could come on and change a game.		When I was sub I never did it [warm up] properly until we talked about it and then I started to do it and I felt that it made a difference.
I'm never happy being a sub but when I get my chance I'll take it.	I think I am about the same as them [players who took her position] and better in certain areas.	I found it easy to get into the pace of the game. I was more prepared
I think I am about the same as them [players who took her position] and better in certain areas.		I am now the top scorer from midfield for a substitute
I think I am about the same as them [players who took her position] and better in certain areas.		

5.4.2.5 Pre-Competition Anxiety

Figure 5.15 shows that Claire’s cognitive anxiety intensity for Claire gradually decreased between pre-intervention games 1 and 4 whilst interpretation levels fluctuated but remained facilitative. Post-intervention scores indicate that cognitive anxiety intensity dropped and remained relatively stable and anxiety interpretation became slightly more positive which may be in response to the reduced intensity. Somatic anxiety intensity (Figure 5.16) was lower than cognitive anxiety intensity and began to demonstrate a downward trend towards a debilitating interpretation during the pre-intervention period. However, following the intervention period somatic anxiety intensity remained stable whilst interpretation scores fluctuated although they did remain positive.

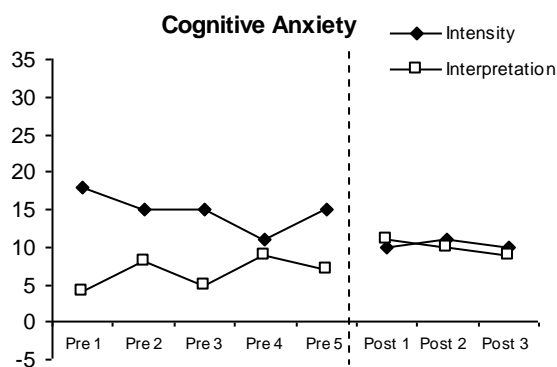


Figure 5.15 Cognitive anxiety intensity and interpretation scores for participant 2

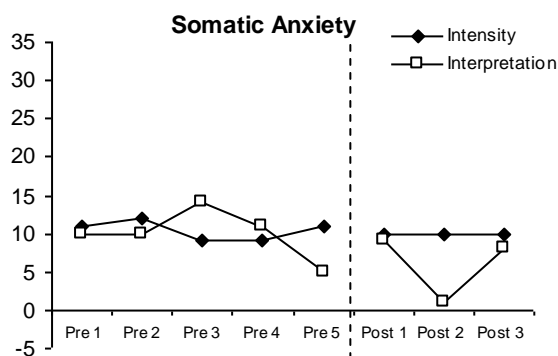


Figure 5.16 Somatic anxiety intensity and interpretation scores for participant 2

5.4.2.6 Self-Confidence

Claire’s scores for self-confidence intensity gradually increased between pre-intervention games 1 and 4 however they dropped slightly prior to game 5 perhaps indicating that consistently being a substitute was beginning to affect Claire (Figure 5.17). Nonetheless, self-confidence interpretation also rose during this time and did not drop prior to game 5. Post intervention scores for self-confidence remained stable although they increased slightly to pre-intervention levels by post intervention game 3. Interestingly self-confidence interpretation dropped below pre-intervention

levels for post intervention games 1 and 2 then increased to pre-intervention levels by post intervention game 3.

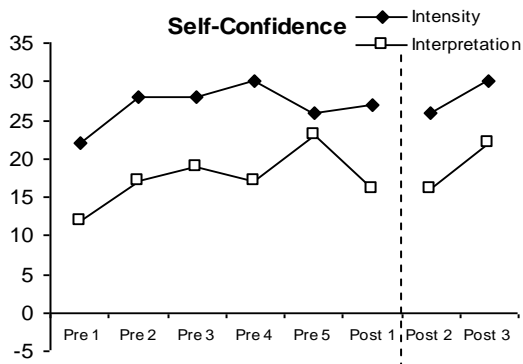


Figure 5.17 Self-confidence intensity and interpretation scores for participant 1

5.4.2.7 Profile of Mood States

By studying graphical representation of Claire’s mood it is evident that her mood was fairly stable and so it is difficult to identify obvious changes due to the intervention. Nonetheless, some changes to trends are described below. Claire’s scores for vigour were consistently higher than her scores for the other five areas during both the pre and post intervention periods (Figure 5.18). Although remaining stable during the pre-intervention period, vigour scores also gradually increased during post intervention games. Depression increased during the pre-intervention games and increased further by post intervention game 1, however, by post intervention games 2 and 3, had dropped again (Figure 5.19). Tension (Figure 5.20) and anger (Figure 5.21) increased slightly prior to pre-intervention game 5 however, both dropped to pre-intervention levels following the intervention period. There was little change to fatigue (Figure 5.22) and confusion (Figure 5.23) with Claire reporting that she was not fatigued or confused pre-intervention and scores remained low post intervention.

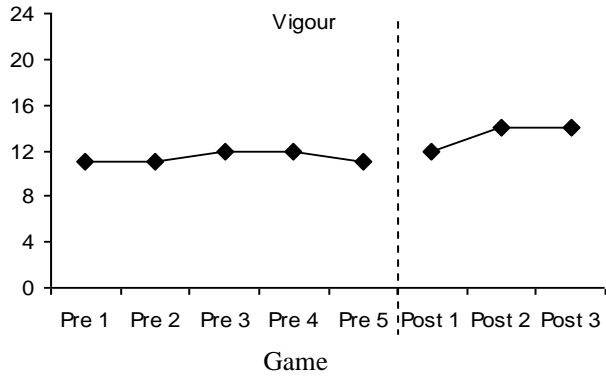


Figure 5.18 Vigour scores for participant 2

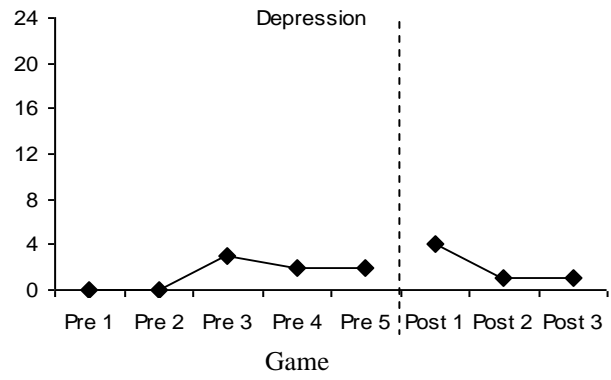


Figure 5.19 Depression scores for participant 2

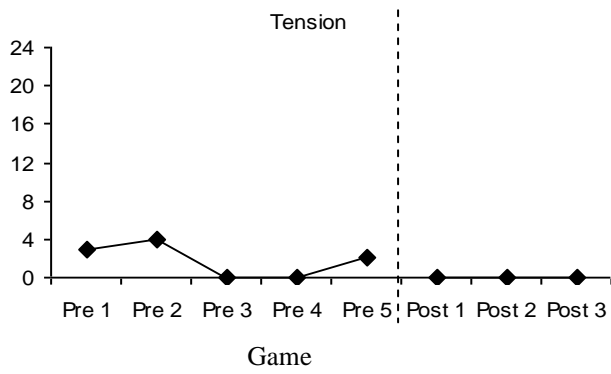


Figure 5.20 Tension scores for participant 2

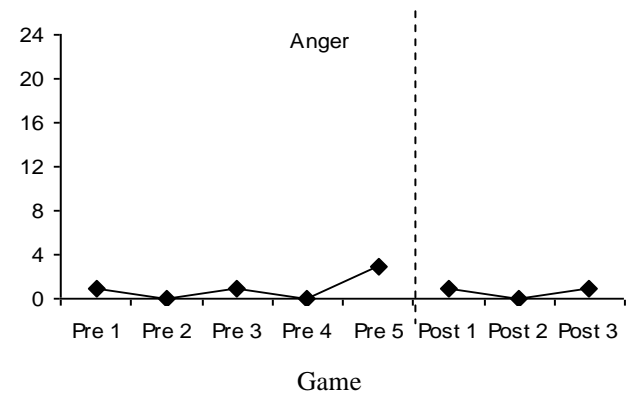


Figure 5.21 Anger scores for participant 2

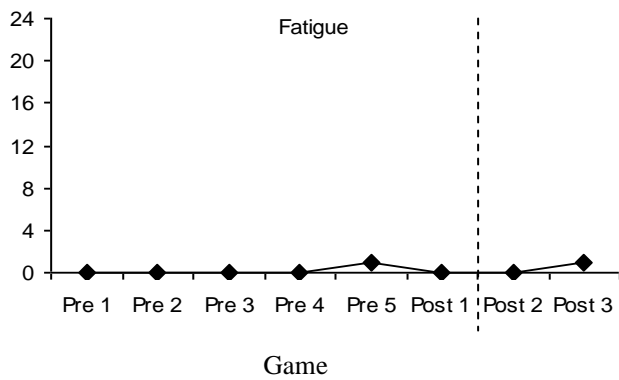


Figure 5.22 Fatigue scores for participant 2

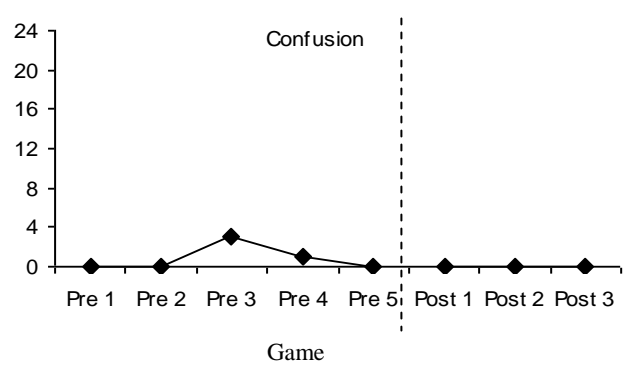


Figure 5.23 Confusion scores for participant 2

5.4.2.8 Self-Presentation

Claire appears to possess very few self-presentation concerns (scoring consistently low for all subscales) with the highest scoring subscale being performance inadequacy concerns (Figure 5.24). She did not present any concerns about her physical appearance (Figure 5.25), whilst scores for fatigue concerns (Figure 5.26) and appearing athletically untalented remained low and stable throughout all pre and post intervention games (Figure 5.27). The post intervention score for performance inadequacy concerns dropped and remained lower than scores for all pre-intervention games (Figure 5.24).

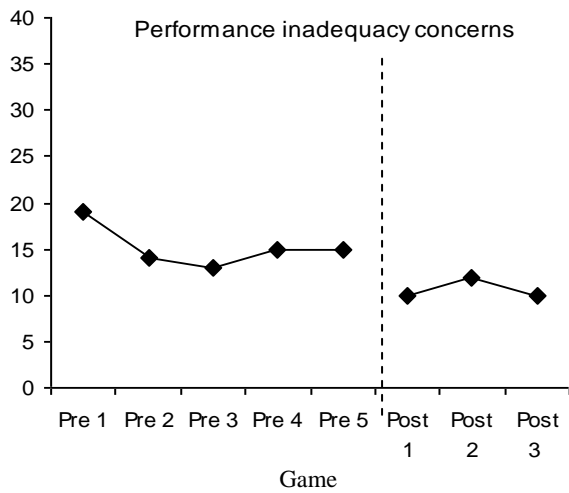


Figure 5.24 Performance inadequacy concerns for participant 2

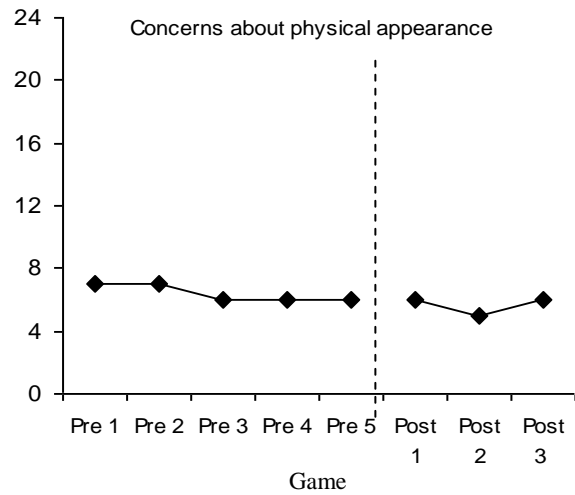


Figure 5.25 Concerns about physical appearance scores for participant 2

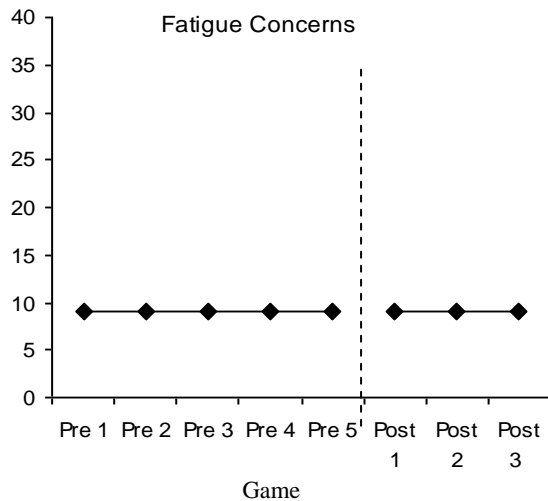


Figure 5.26 Fatigue concerns for participant 2

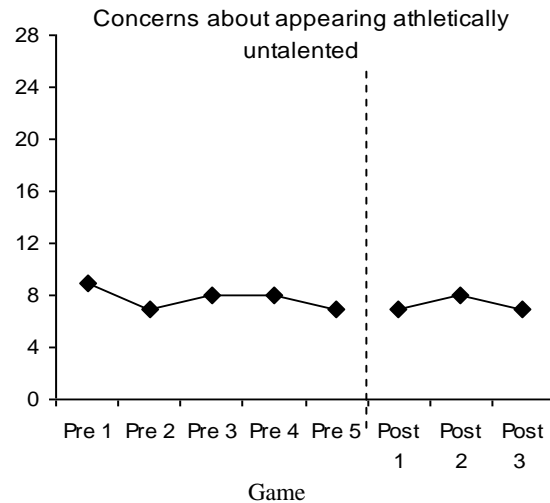


Figure 5.27 Concerns about appearing athletically untalented for participant 2

5.4.2.9 Social validation

Findings from the social validation questionnaire (Appendix 6) indicated that improving performance was important for this participant (scoring 6/7). Changes to performance post intervention were considered to be significant (5/7). She reported that she was quite satisfied with the intervention process (scoring 6/7) and found it useful (6/7).

When asked for reasons why and how the intervention helped performance, Claire stated that the self-talk and pre-performance routine were the most useful. Self-talk helped to remind her of her goals and kept her motivated to work hard, *“I also found that repeating keywords to myself over and over again made me more determined during the match, i.e., if I shouted ‘GET THERE’ to get on the end of a rebound, I would make more of an effort to get there”*. The pre-performance routine improved Claire’s focus and helped her to settle into the game much more quickly when she was substituted into the game *“I think taking part in the warm-up as if I was starting the game made me mentally prepared and switched on from the start even though I would be sitting on the sub’s bench. Also doing the warm up 3-4 times at a high tempo during the first half helped me settle into the game*

much quicker when I eventually came on". Finally goal setting appeared to initiate Claire's motivation, *"Having short term goals kept me motivated and have something to aim for each game"*.

5.4.2.10 Summary of findings for participant 2

Following the implementation of the Psychological skills training package, interview findings indicate that Claire's thoughts became more positive and constructive with regards to preparation and performance. Furthermore, questionnaire results illustrated that there were reductions in cognitive anxiety intensity, tension and performance inadequacy concerns and improvements in vigour, self-confidence and somatic and cognitive anxiety interpretation. Claire also reported behaviour changes such as enhanced motivation and effort during her warm up as well finding it easier to settle into the game once substituted on to play.

5.4.3 Participant 3

Melissa is a sixteen year old female football player who plays in a defensive position. She was a substitute five times during the pre-intervention period and three times during the post intervention phase.

5.4.3.1 Pre-intervention interview

When interviewed pre-intervention Melissa reported experiencing negative thoughts (Table 5.11) stating that she thought she had no control over her playing status. She seemed to believe that there was nothing she could do that would help her to change or influence the coach's decision, *"I don't really think that training will make an impact because she [the coach] will never change her mind"*. Melissa reported that although she initially felt angry when she became a substitute she actually came to expect it therefore her anger reduced and she experienced frustration and began to question her ability. Consequently Melissa became demotivated causing her physical preparation and general effort to be detrimentally affected (Table 5.11).

Table 5.11 Deductive analysis results for the pre-intervention interview with participant 3

Thoughts	Feelings	Behaviours
My confidence and self-belief has been affected in a way.	At the start I was angry about it but now I just expect it.	I am not as motivated as I was at the start of the season I suppose.
Well this season I haven't yet come off the bench, but in the past when I have I actually found it quite difficult.	I just hate being a substitute.	I am just watching the game as a spectator
There is not much point in coming on for five minutes or so because that goes really quickly and then the game is over.	It makes me think...that I am not a good player maybe.	(Warm up) Not really like the pre-game warm-up. And I wouldn't say that it is dynamic it is just static stretching. I am just watching the game.
I just want to know why but I never ask her.	It makes me angry...because I know I can do it.	I just turn up to training and I suppose when I think about it I don't really push myself.
[On the bench] I think it is just the same as starting. I am just relaxed, focused thinking about what the coach says. I am just having a laugh trying to enjoy the day		
I'm not really thinking about it [performance] until she [coach] tells me I am going on.		
I don't really think that training will make an impact because she [the coach] will never change her mind.		
If I could change things now, then I would change it so I get on to play and then prove to her that she shouldn't have left me out.		
I'm not sure I can. It's down to her. She makes the decisions.		

5.4.3.2 Identifying Alternative Thoughts

Following the pre-intervention interview Melissa identified thoughts concerning her potential lack of ability and uncertainty of her coach's impression of her to be the most negative thoughts she has about herself when she is a substitute (Table 5.12). Alternatively, she chose to think more positively and confidently concerning her ability, focusing on improving her performances, something which is more controllable. Thoughts related to anger and confusion were replaced with thoughts of acceptance and focusing her attention on playing well. Finally, whilst on the bench Melissa identified thinking that she would not get a chance to come on and play as being negative. Consequently she decided to remind herself that she could be required to play at any time (as that is actually the role of a substitute) rather than seeing being a substitute as a form of punishment from the coach.

Table 5.12 Summary of negative thoughts and alternative thoughts as outlined by player 3 after sessions 1 and 2

What do you think about yourself when you are a substitute?	Alternative thoughts could be...
Maybe I'm not good enough The coach doesn't rate me	I am good enough to be in the team I just need to improve my performances
What thoughts do you have when you are told you are a substitute?	Alternative thoughts could be...
Why am I a sub? It makes me angry	Someone has to be and I am still part of the team. I just need to work harder Keep calm and play well when I come on
What thoughts do you have when you are on the bench?	Alternative thoughts could be...
I'll never get on there's no point warming up completely	I need to be ready to play at any time, so I need to do a good warm up

5.4.3.3 Identifying Alternative Behaviours

Melissa's thoughts (Table 5.13) resulted in changing how she behaved, thus matching her more positive outlook. She decided that she would watch the game more closely and prepare as though she were starting, thus increasing her effort and intensity during her pre-performance warm up.

Table 5.13: Summary of negative behaviours and alternative behaviours as outlined by player 3 after sessions 1 and 2

How do you behave when you are told you are a substitute?	An alternative behaviour could be...
The same as if I was starting	None
How do you behave when you are on the bench?	An alternative behaviour could be...
Like a spectator Like I can't be bothered until I'm going on to play	Taking note of what players in my position are doing, and what the opposition is doing so I can be ahead when I am subbed on
I don't put in as much effort into my warm up	I need to warm up to the same intensity as when I am starting

5.4.3.4 Post intervention interview

The post intervention interview with Melissa indicated that her thoughts became more focused when using the intervention strategies (Table 5.14). On reflection she re-evaluated her status and agreed that based on her performances her coach's decision to make her a substitute was an appropriate one. She seemed to be more understanding of this decision and patient with improving her performances (Table 5.14). Melissa was offered the opportunity to play more games for the reserve team rather than simply sitting on the substitutes' bench inactive. She accepted this offer which may have affected her responses to post intervention questionnaires. However, Melissa also reported that during this time she tried to fulfil her goals and use self-talk as much as possible.

Table 5.14 Deductive analysis results for the post-intervention interview with participant 3

Thoughts	Feelings	Behaviours
[On reflection] I agree that I should have started as a sub	I haven't started for the first team by the end but I feel a lot happier playing and getting minutes, than I do sitting on the bench the whole time.	I did try to use them [key words] but at times I forgot, especially when I was just concentrating on the game and they went out of my mind
I think they [key words] helped me to remember my goals...it's hard to say if they made me play better.	It [getting more time to play] did make me feel more confident because I got more minutes and I started to play quite well	At times when it was happening [the skill] I used them. Say for example when a striker was coming onto me, I was thinking about tackling strong
I am prepared to do things slowly and work my way up and maybe even play for the reserves for a bit and get decent minutes so that by the end of the season I am in the first team		I spoke to Tom [pseudonym for coach] but not the first team manager
In the future I will be thinking about my specific goals for the game and try to achieve them within the game. On the bench I would be just getting them [process goals] into my head so that I play well. I can be watching other players in their team and our team so I can see what they're doing wrong and what we're not doing		

5.4.3.5 Pre-Competition Anxiety

Cognitive anxiety intensity steadily increased between pre-intervention games 1 and 5 but decreased following the intervention and continued to decrease during the post intervention games (Figure 5.28). Cognitive anxiety interpretation initially became more debilitating during pre-intervention but then gradually increased again during pre-intervention games (Figure 5.28). Post intervention interpretation scores became more facilitative, meaning that anxiety intensity was perceived to be more facilitative during these games. However, it is important to note that interpretation scores were already starting to rise at the end of the pre-intervention period. Somatic anxiety intensity fluctuated and was generally low during the pre-intervention period, whilst somatic interpretation scores demonstrated an increasingly facilitative trend during this period (Figure 5.29). Post intervention scores show that when somatic intensity initially decreased, interpretation became less facilitative. However, once intensity scores reached pre-intervention levels somatic interpretation scores also increased (Figure 5.29).

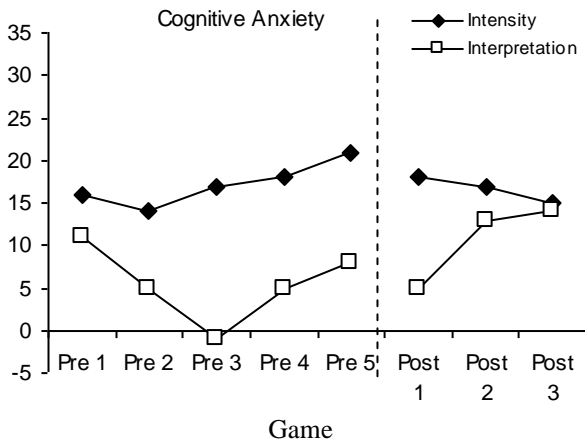


Figure 5.28 Cognitive anxiety intensity and interpretation scores for participant 3

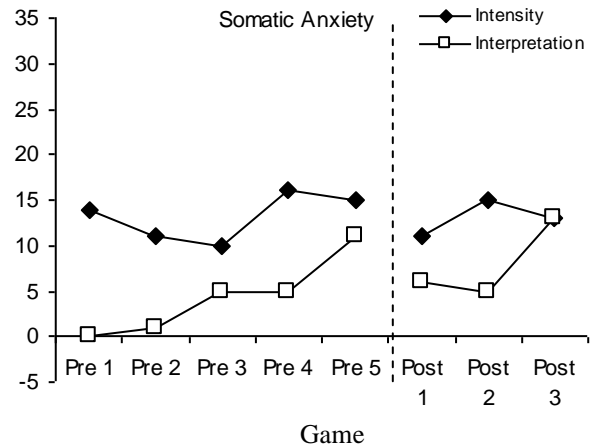


Figure 5.29 Somatic anxiety intensity and interpretation scores for participant 3

5.4.3.6 Self-Confidence

Self-confidence intensity scores tended to fluctuate during both pre and post intervention games, however, they did remain high throughout the season (Figure 5.30). Intensity scores initially increased following the intervention period, however, they returned to pre-intervention levels by post intervention games 2 and 3. Interpretation scores also fluctuated across pre and post intervention games but they remained high and facilitative.

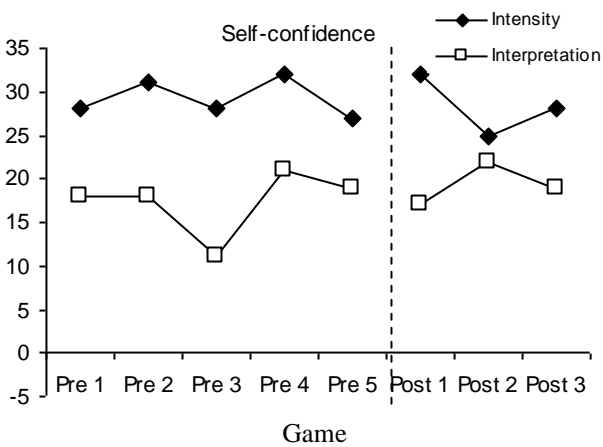


Figure 5.30 Self-confidence intensity and interpretation scores for participant 3

5.4.3.7 Profile of Mood States

Melissa's scores for vigour were consistently higher than her scores for the other five mood states during both the pre and post intervention periods (Figure 5.31). Depression scores gradually increased for the first three pre-intervention games but despite this these scores were relatively low (Figure 5.32). Following the intervention period depression scores decreased and remained low. Tension, confusion, anger, and fatigue were generally low throughout pre-intervention games and remained low post intervention (Figures 5.33-5.36). Overall, following the intervention period there appears to be a decreasing trend for depression and anger scores.

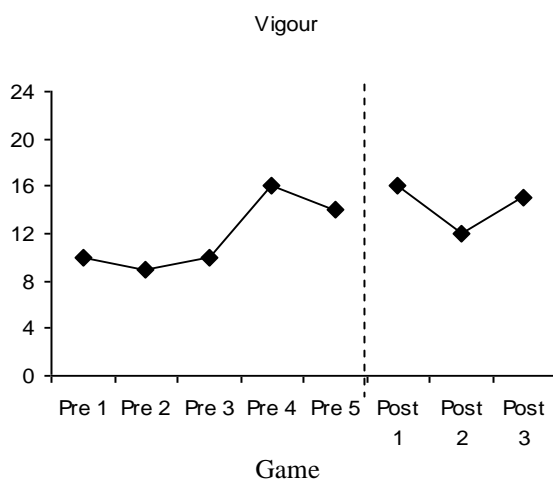


Figure 5.31 Vigour scores for participant 3

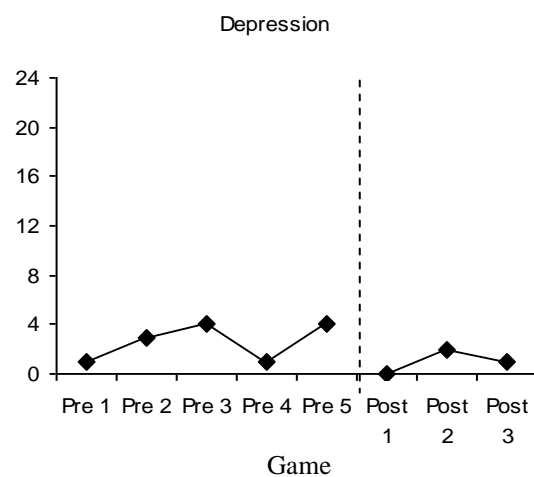


Figure 5.32 Depression scores for participant 3

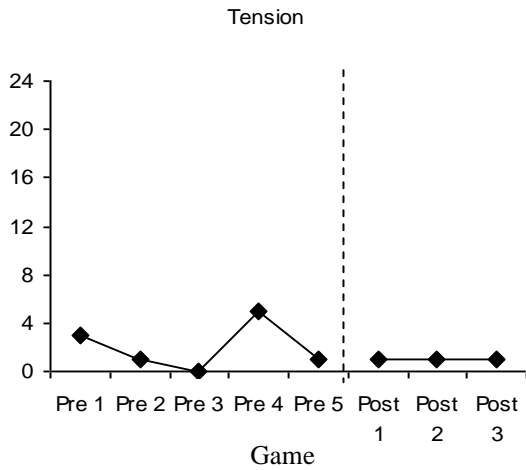


Figure 5.33 Tension scores for participant 3

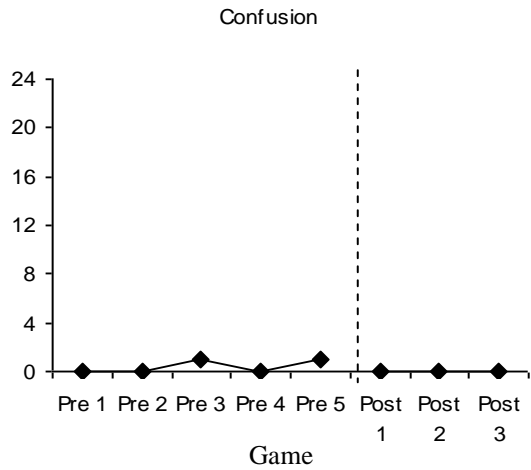


Figure 5.34 Confusion scores for participant 3

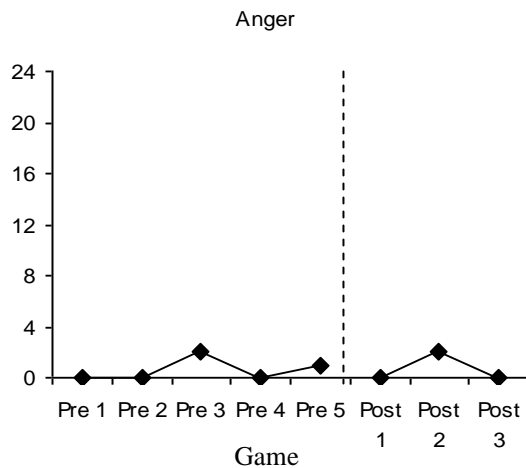


Figure 5.35 Anger scores for participant 3

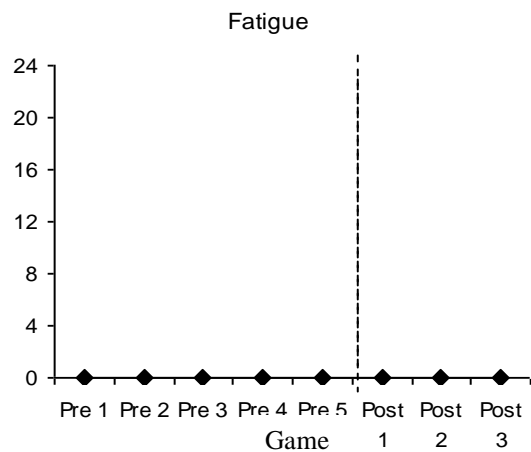


Figure 5.36 Fatigue scores for participant 3

5.4.3.8 Self-Presentation Concerns

Melissa demonstrated a gradual increase in scores for performance inadequacy concerns (Figure 5.37) and concerns about appearing athletically untalented (Figure 5.38) demonstrated a flat profile during pre-intervention games. Both of these profiles reduced during post intervention games.

Concerns about fatigue (Figure 5.39) and physical appearance (Figure 5.40) were consistently low and stable.

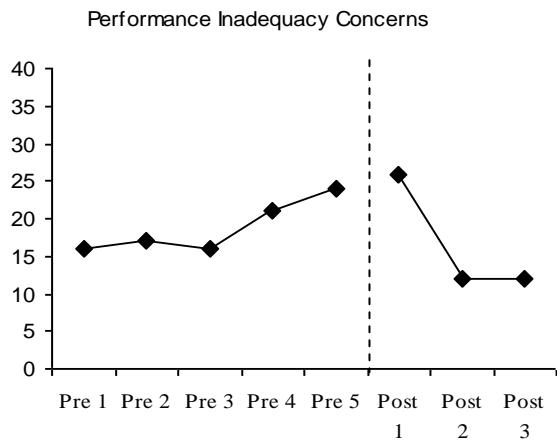


Figure 5.37 Performance inadequacy concerns for participant 3

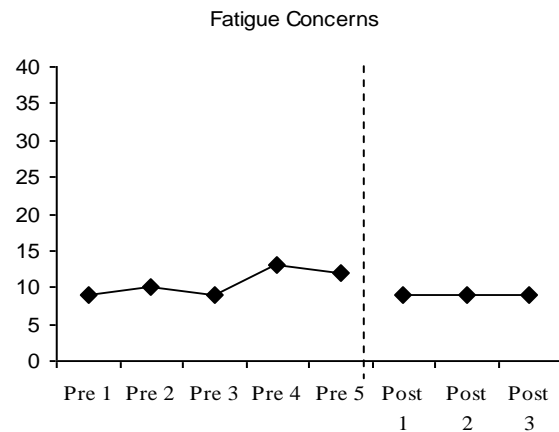


Figure 5.38 Fatigue concern scores for participant 3

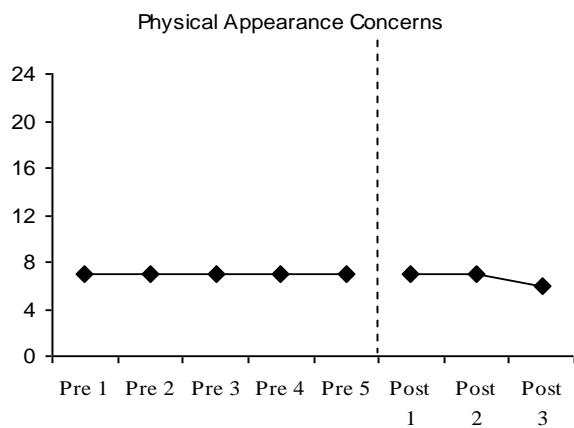


Figure 5.39 Physical appearance concerns for participant 3

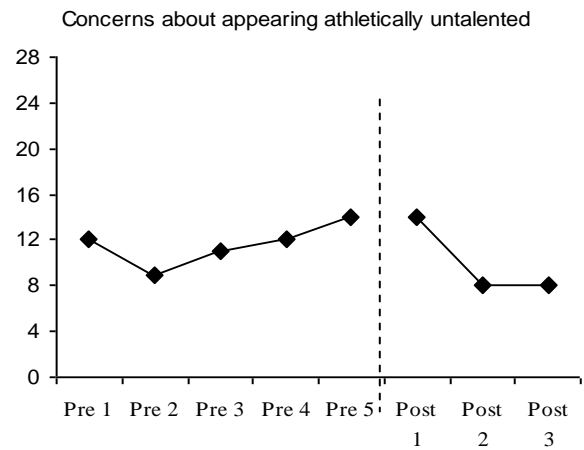


Figure 5.40 Scores for Concerns about appearing athletically untalented for participant 3

5.4.3.9 Social validation

Findings from the post intervention social validation questionnaire indicated that improving performance was extremely important for Melissa (scoring 7/7). Changes to performance post intervention were considered to be significant (5/7) and Melissa reported that she was quite satisfied with the intervention process (scoring 6/7) and found it useful (6/7). When asked why and how the intervention helped performance, Melissa stated that goal setting was the most useful aspect whilst self-talk helped to remind her of her process goals, *“Setting goals helped me the most because I felt there was something to aim for and this pushed me to want to reach them. Self-talk helped because it*

would remind me of what things I needed to improve on, and it would help me and push me on more to try and improve on them in a game”.

5.4.3.10 Summary of findings for participant 3

Following the implementation of the psychological skills training package, interview findings indicate that Melissa’s thoughts became more positive and constructive with regards to preparation and performance. She also reported feeling happier and satisfied with her status. Melissa concentrated on achieving her goals and fulfilling her tasks. Furthermore, questionnaire results illustrated that there were reductions in scores for somatic anxiety intensity, depression, anger, confusion, tension and performance inadequacy concerns and improved scores for vigour as well as cognitive and somatic anxiety interpretation. Finally, Melissa also reported behaviour changes such as seeking out feedback from one of her coaches as well as enhanced motivation and effort during performance.

5.4.4 Participant 4

Gemma is a sixteen-year-old female football player who plays in a central midfield position. She was a substitute four times during the pre-intervention period and twice during the post intervention phase.

5.4.4.1 Pre-intervention interview

Gemma’s thoughts were centred on uncertainty, disbelief and a perception that factors were generally beyond her control (Table 5.15). She reported thinking that there was nothing she could do to get a place as a starter and that the coach would not change her mind. Consequently Gemma felt angry, despondent, embarrassed and low in motivation. She did not think that training made any difference nor did she think there was any point in putting in a lot of effort during pre-game preparation, that is, she did not physically prepare to the same intensity as she would have if she was starting.

Table 5.15 Deductive analysis results for the pre-intervention interview with participant 4

Thoughts	Feelings	Behaviours
As far as I can see I am not doing anything different	It just feels like there is nothing I can do that will get me back into the team	I'm just chatting to the girls and probably talking about the game
I think it is unwarranted. I think that I should be starting and at least given a chance to prove that I can do it	I sit there and sulk. It makes me really down	I'm just watching the game and talking to the girls on the bench. We just have a natter
All I do is think 'when am I going to get on?'	It's just embarrassing because all of your mates see that you're not playing	You know you can just take it easy
There's not a lot I can do in ten minutes. Most of the time the game is already won or lost when you get subbed on so it's like you're just getting a sympathy game	[Feel] Up in the air really. I have no idea how she ticks	We just do jogs and sprints. Whereas before the game there is a set routine of dynamic stretches that we all go through
I want to get my place back and play well. I think that me and ***** are in direct competition and I don't see much between us.		
I'm not really as switched on as I would be if I was starting		
I'm not really paying attention [when on the bench]		
When you are a subs, there's not much point is there, because you're not starting		
I'm probably just watching the girl in my position and trying and trying to see how the midfield is playing so I can see if there might be a chance that I will be coming on to play		
I think that I have to go out there and prove her wrong so that I can get my place back in the team		
It's really hard though because the time goes really quickly and then the game is over. So I was running around really hard and I think that I tried really hard		
It was only ten minutes or so, so when that happens you can't really make an impact		

5.4.4.2 Identifying Alternative Thoughts

Following the pre-intervention interview Gemma identified 'thinking that she was unjustly named as a substitute' and worrying about what other people think to be the most negative thoughts she had. She also admitted to having negative thoughts about her performances in general. Alternatively Gemma decided that rather than sulking and feeling unjustly treated she should think about how she could influence the coach's decision (Table 5.16). She tried to think about the fact that she had

played better in the past so should remain positive about playing well in the future rather than worrying about what other people think (Table 5.16). When she was informed by the coach that she would be a substitute, Gemma believed that constantly thinking about why she was not playing and wondering if she would be substituted on to play, were negative thought processes. Alternatively she decided to think more positively by being certain that she would play well when given a chance. She believed that she could achieve this by focusing on the game rather than dwelling on being a substitute.

Table 5.16 Summary of negative thoughts and alternative thoughts as outlined by player 4 after sessions 1 and 2

What do you think about yourself when you are a substitute?	Alternative thoughts could be...
<p>I think that I'm not doing as well as I should be</p> <p>I think I have been hard done by when I think I have been playing well</p> <p>I think that people will think I'm crap</p>	<p>I can play better and I have played better in the past</p> <p>The coach makes the decisions so I need to try to change her opinion regardless of what I think</p> <p>I need to keep trying to improve. When I do this I will play well and won't need to worry about what other people think.</p>
What thoughts do you have when you are told you are a substitute?	Alternative thoughts could be...
<p>Not again! What have I done wrong?</p> <p>Will I even get on to play?</p> <p>I can't be bothered</p>	<p>What can I do to regain my place as a starter?</p> <p>When I get my chance to play I will play well. I need to stay focused so when I am given my chance I can prove her wrong.</p>
What thoughts do you have when you are on the bench?	Alternative thoughts could be...
<p>When am I going to get on, if at all?</p> <p>I hate sitting watching football games when I should be playing</p>	<p>Pay attention to the game and try to get an advantage by watching the other team.</p>

5.4.4.3 Identifying Alternative Behaviours

Gemma's behaviour appeared to be influenced by her thoughts as she reported that her most negative behaviour was related to reduced effort and reduced focus whilst she was sitting on the bench (Table 5.17). Gemma decided that more positive behaviour would involve effective physical preparation and watching the game from a tactical point of view in order to play well when substituted into the game.

Table 5.17 Summary of negative behaviours and alternative behaviours as outlined by player 4 after sessions 1 and 2

How do you behave when you are told you are a substitute?	An alternative behaviour could be...
I don't really take the warm up seriously (before the game)	I need to warm up as if I was starting
How do you behave when you are on the bench?	An alternative behaviour could be...
I watch the game and chat with the girls	I should watch the game from a tactical point of view and keep focused.

5.4.4.4 Post intervention interview

During the post intervention interview Gemma reported feeling less depressed and more positive about her situation as a substitute player. She began thinking about things that she could control such as her effort and preparation, rather than dwelling on factors beyond her control (e.g., her coach's reasoning behind substituting her). Goal setting seemed to refocus Gemma's behaviour as she was more motivated by achieving specific goals (Table 5.18). She also improved her pre-game preparation which helped to distract her from having negative thoughts whilst sitting inactive and watching the game unfold. Finally, although Gemma continued to think and feel aggrieved by her coach's decision, she chose not to dwell on it.

Table 5.18 Deductive analysis results for the post-intervention interview with participant 4

Thoughts	Feelings	Behaviours
Well I tried to think about what I could do or should do in order to get back into the game. You know, remember that I was good enough rather than question myself.	I didn't feel happy if that's what you mean I just want to play. But I didn't feel as depressed about it as I did at the start of the season. I could see that that wasn't going to help.	All of us subs did the warm up when we were waiting to go on and play in the same way as we did it before the game
I think that I am good enough and I think that she still had it in for me.		I tried to work hard and get to the ball with the right body position by saying 'get there'
So I don't think that I got any worse as a player I just think that she preferred ***** over me which made it difficult for me.		I just relaxed a little and tried to work on things and enjoy it again.
I do think it made me think about my game more and see where I was going wrong. It made me realise that if I did those three things well then I would have a good game.		I did my warm up exactly the same as I did before the game, we did this every 20 minutes or so. That was good as it kept you busy as well because if I just sit there I just get miserable watching other people playing.
It's frustrating because I think I have improved but then that doesn't really matter if she doesn't.		
I don't care what she thinks anymore because I have come to see that it is impossible to change her opinion, so there is no point worrying about it. I just hope that I can prove her wrong and I'll have to keep trying.		
I would try to make sure that it was a one off by playing well and warming up properly before I went on to play. And just do my best when I got out there.		
I still hate it but there is no point in letting it affect you because then it is a vicious circle. You need to make sure it is just for one or two games.		
Er, I think that my attitude improved and I think that ***** even noticed that but we still had our disagreements about me playing		

5.4.4.5 Pre-Competition Anxiety

Cognitive anxiety intensity (Figure 5.41) remained high and relatively stable during both pre-intervention and post intervention games. Cognitive anxiety interpretation was negative during pre-intervention games and became positive during post intervention games. Similarly somatic anxiety

intensity did not seem to be a problem for Gemma as her interpretation was facilitative throughout pre and post intervention games (Figure 5.42) although post intervention scores did become more facilitative following the start of a downward trend prior to pre-intervention game 4, in conjunction with a decrease in somatic anxiety intensity.

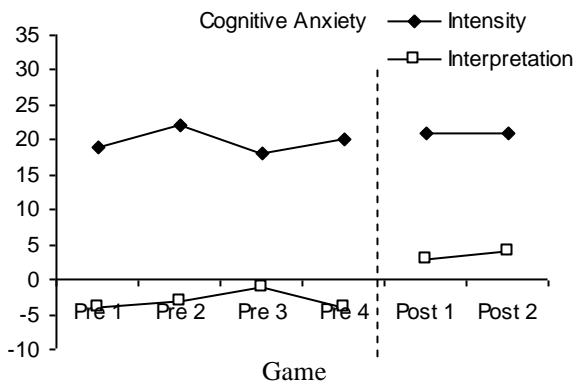


Figure 5.41 Cognitive anxiety intensity and interpretation scores for participant 4

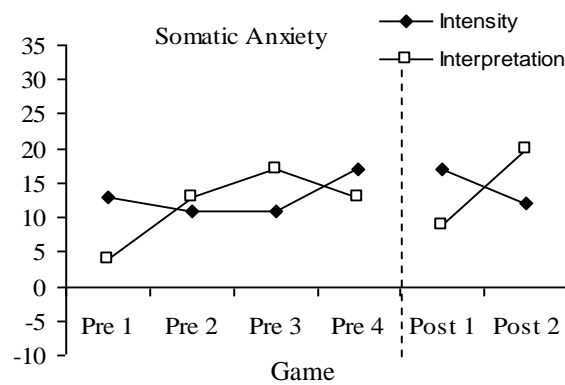


Figure 5.42 Somatic anxiety intensity and interpretation scores for participant 4

5.4.4.6 Self-Confidence

Self-confidence intensity decreased slightly between pre intervention games 2 and 4. Post intervention scores show that although self-confidence intensity did not increase it did remain stable whilst self-confidence interpretation became more facilitative (Figure 5.43) following a trend towards a debilitating interpretation at the end of pre-intervention game 4.

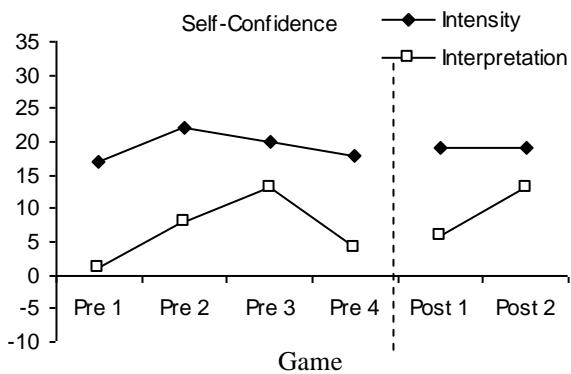


Figure 5.43 Self-confidence intensity and interpretation scores for participant 4

5.4.4.7 Profile of Mood States

Vigour was consistently higher than any of the other mood states (Figure 5.44). Scores during the pre-intervention period indicated a rising trend which was sustained following the intervention period. Tension was the second highest scoring mood construct showing a rising trend during the pre-intervention games and although these stabilised during post intervention games they remained the second highest scores (Figure 5.45). Depression scores were low, showing signs of a declining trend prior to pre-intervention game 4, scores reduced to zero for both post intervention games (Figure 5.46). Similarly scores for confusion (Figure 5.47) and fatigue (Figure 5.48) reduced to zero following the intervention period. Anger was low during pre-intervention games and remained low and stable following the intervention period (Figure 5.49).

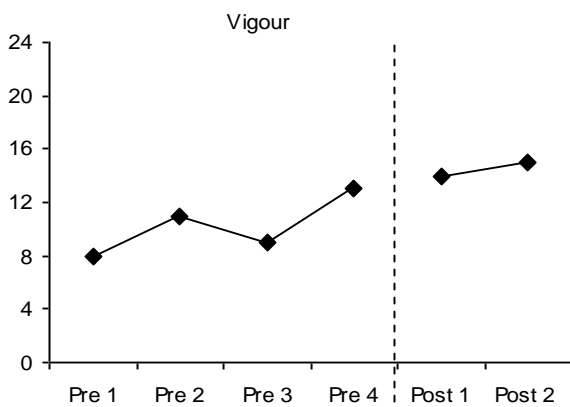


Figure 5.44 Vigour scores for participant 4

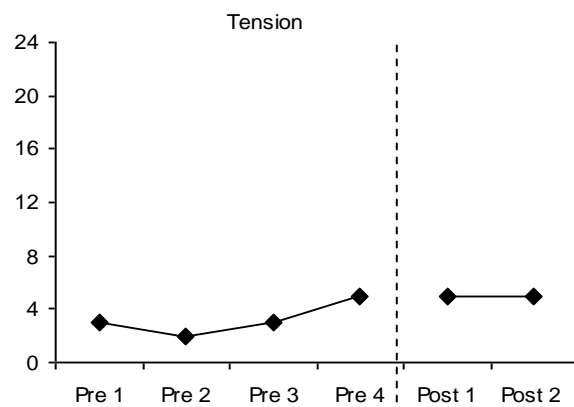


Figure 5.45 Tension scores for participant 4

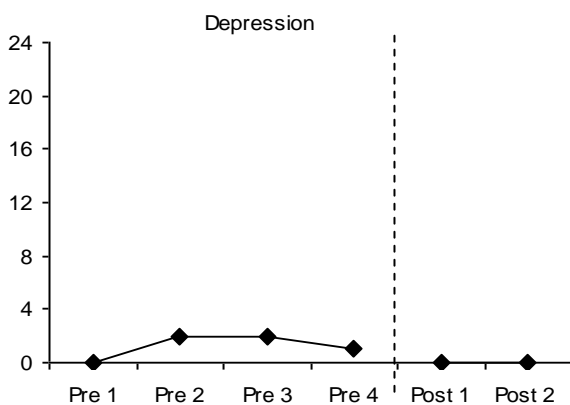


Figure 5.46 Depression scores for participant 4

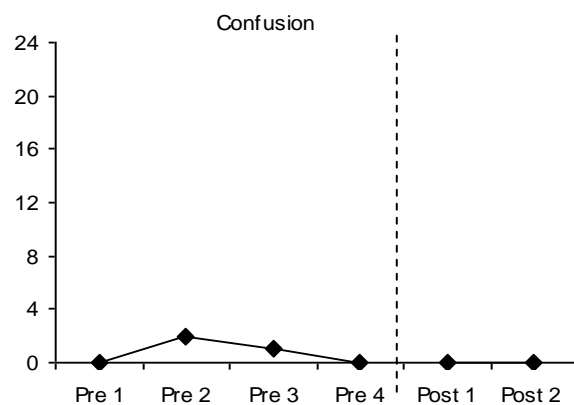


Figure 5.47 Confusion scores for participant 4

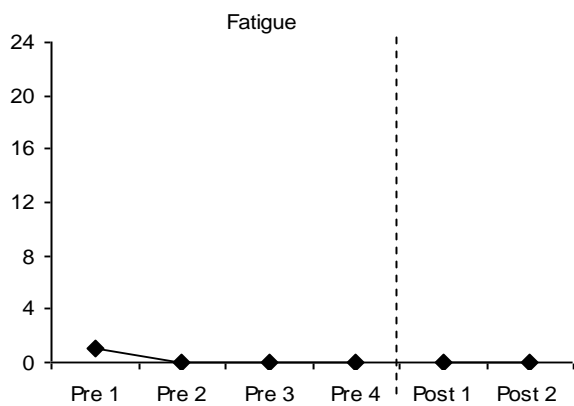


Figure 5.48 Fatigue scores for participant 4

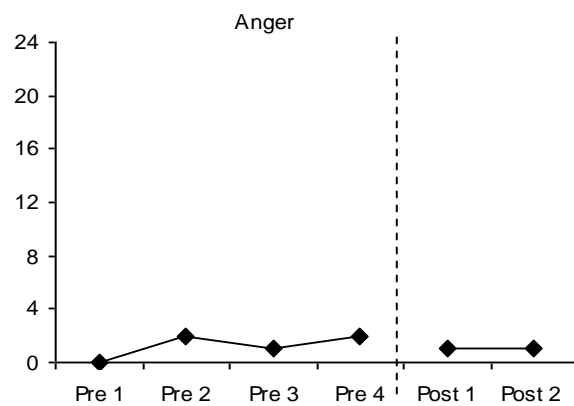


Figure 5.49 Anger scores for participant 4

5.4.4.8 Self-Presentation Concerns

Gemma's scores for all four self-presentation subscales show a gradual increasing trend during the pre-intervention phase. Gemma's main self-presentation concern during both pre and post intervention phases was performance inadequacy concerns (Figure 5.50). This component of self-presentation fluctuated a little showing a decline prior to pre-intervention game 3 but increasing again prior to pre-intervention game 4. Post intervention scores for all subscales except concerns about appearing athletically untalented decreased (Figure 5.51). Despite this, only performance inadequacy concerns show a declining trend during post intervention games. That is, although self-presentation scores for physical appearance (Figure 5.52) and fatigue (Figure 5.53) initially declined following the intervention period scores for physical appearance then increased prior to post intervention game 2.

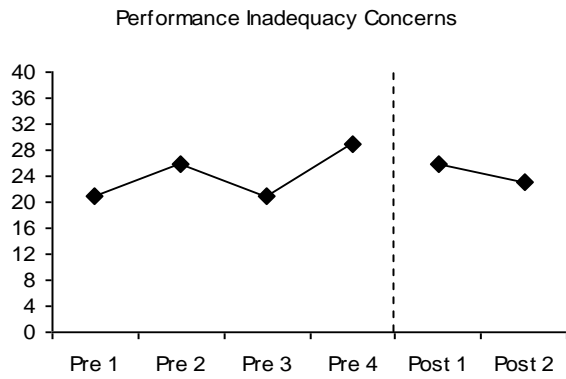


Figure 5.50 Performance inadequacy concerns for participant 4

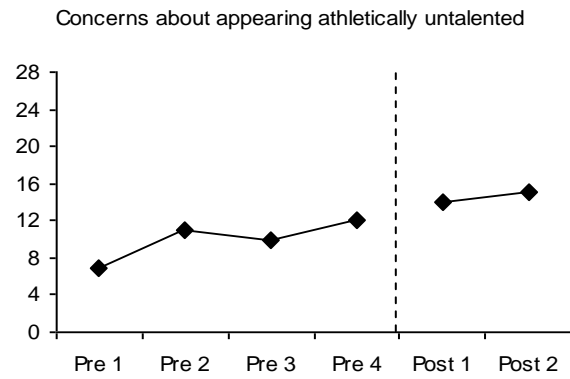


Figure 5.51 Concerns about appearing athletically untalented scores for participant 4

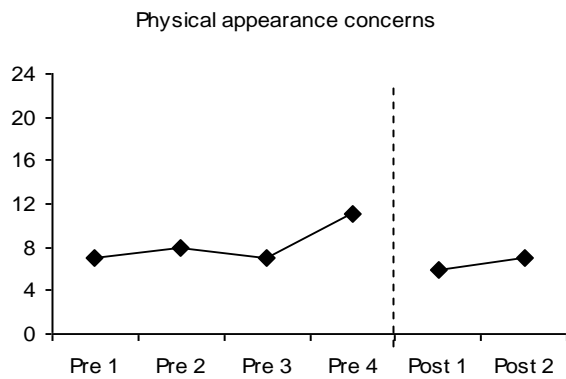


Figure 5.52 Physical appearance concerns for participant 4

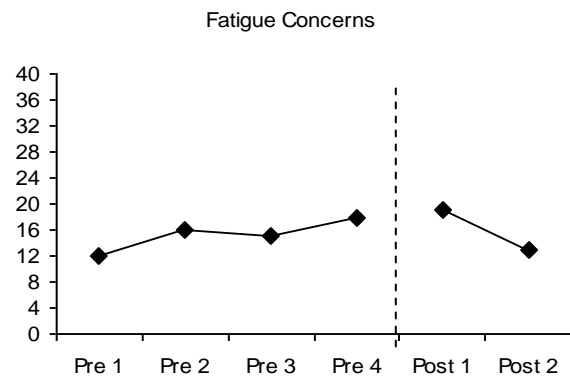


Figure 5.53 Fatigue concerns for participant 4

5.4.4.9 Social validation

Findings from the post intervention social validation questionnaire (appendix) indicated that improving performance was extremely important for Gemma (scoring 7/7). Changes to performance post intervention were considered to be significant (5/7) and Gemma reported that she was quite satisfied with the intervention process (scoring 7/7) and found it useful (6/7). When asked why and how the intervention helped performance, Gemma stated that goal setting was the most useful whilst goal setting helped to remind her of her process goals and keep focused during the game, “*It [setting goals] made me think about what I should be doing and keep my mind on the game*”.

5.4.4.10 Summary of findings for participant 4

Following implementation of the psychological skills training package, interview findings indicate that Gemma's thoughts became more positive with regards to her perceived ability and she was less concerned with her coach's decision. She also reported thinking about her own personal performance and how to improve it. Furthermore, questionnaire results illustrated that there were reductions in scores for somatic anxiety intensity, depression, anger, and self-presentation concerns (specifically performance inadequacy concerns) and improved scores for vigour as well as cognitive and somatic anxiety interpretation. Finally, Gemma also reported behaviour changes such as enhanced motivation and effort during her warm up before being substituted into the game.

5.5 Discussion for Study 4

This study implemented a single subject longitudinal design, investigating the effect of cognitive behavioural interventions on thoughts, emotions and behaviours in football substitutes. Participants' pre-intervention results revealed a declining trend in mood, self-confidence, and motivation, and an increasing trend for anxiety and self-presentation concerns. These findings support the inference from study 1 and 3 results that the more frequently a player is a substitute, the more negative their experience will become. However, based on findings from existing research (Anshel et al., 1992; Anshel & Wrisberg, 1993; Jackson, 2003; Locke & Latham, 1985, 1990; Orlick & Partington, 1988; Swain & Jones, 1995a) it was proposed that goal setting, self-talk, and pre-performance routines would facilitate positive changes in substitutes' thoughts, emotions and behaviour. This proposal was supported in the current results with overall post intervention findings illustrating that participants' anxiety, mood and self-presentation concerns did not continue on a negative trend in response to becoming a substitute player. Instead participants' scores plateaued and in some cases improved following the intervention period. Furthermore, based on substitutes' responses in a post intervention interview and social validation questionnaire, motivation and attentional focus also improved,

although it should be noted that these factors were not measured directly. Participants also reported behavioural change by including actions that were more conducive to effective preparation and performance following the intervention period. Therefore, it can be concluded from these findings that a psychological skills training programme consisting of individualised cognitive behavioural strategies can help substitutes to cope with negative thoughts, emotions and behaviours associated with being a frequent substitute player for their team.

5.4.1 Cognitions and emotions

During the pre-intervention period substitutes, as suggested by Smith et al. (2001), exhibited worrying thoughts associated with self-preoccupation, concerns about evaluation, and personal performance during actual performance. These intrusive cognitions are often linked to poor performance (Gould et al., 1992; Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 2001; Sarason, 1984). Interestingly, these findings were not apparent in study two as substitute players did not experience elevated self-presentation concerns before competition, whereas three of the four substitutes in the current study experienced an increasing trend for self-presentation concerns. In fact, performance inadequacy concerns appeared to be the most elevated self-presentation concern. This is perhaps not surprising since according to Leary (1992) substitute players are likely to experience self-presentation concerns during the pre-performance phase, when the game has commenced thus substitutes' inactive status is more likely to convey a negative impression of their ability and value to the team as suggested by Leary (1992). Therefore, data collected during the pre-game phase in study two was less likely to expose substitutes to evaluation by peers and coaches which leads to self-presentation concerns (Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Van Raalte et al., 2003). Furthermore, an increasing trend for self-presentation concerns over time may help explain research by Grove et al. (2004) who revealed that athletic identity decreased and the use of self-protecting strategies increased over time in athletes who were not selected to perform. That is, substitutes may engage in self-protecting strategies because they are concerned about how significant others perceive them. However, Grove et al. (2004) did not

measure self-presentation concerns, therefore further research is needed to support the relationship between self-presentation concerns, self-protection and athletic identity in substitute players.

Nonetheless, post intervention interview results indicated that substitutes experienced less negative and more positive thoughts and enhanced mood. Participants also reported less self-defeating or self-deprecating statements, less performance inadequacy concerns and more performance or task focused statements driven by self-belief (Van Raalte, 1994, 1995). This may be explained by the fact that asking participants to monitor their thoughts and behavioural responses enhances self-awareness (Jones, 2003), for example, participant 1 said, *“Whereas before I would only self-talk in a negative way and lose my confidence, the way you helped me to change my mindset and therefore be more positive when self-talking helped to improve my confidence and eventually perform better”*.

Self-talk was also used to help performers to eliminate these irrelevant thoughts. Instructional and motivational self-talk were implemented based on process goals set by the substitutes. As a result, substitutes reported experiencing enhanced concentration and attention during performance thus overcoming cognitive intrusion. This supports existing work by Ziegler (1987) and Landin and Herbert (1999) who found that a self-talk intervention enhanced attention and performance in tennis. Participant 1 reported in her post intervention interview that, “[key words] helped me to stay focused on what I needed to do...they [key words] helped because they kept my mind mostly clear of negative thoughts”.

Goal setting also appeared to be useful for focusing attention and concentration. Locke and Latham (1985) stated that when under pressure, focusing on short term controllable goals means that performers can experience enhanced concentration and focus on important aspects of the required skill(s). Self-reports from participant 2 support this as she stated that setting goals gave her a focus

for each game, “*Having short term goals... [gave me] something to aim for each game*”. This is in line with evidence that goal setting improves concentration on a specific task (Hall & Byrne, 1988; Swain & Jones, 1995b).

Substitutes’ thoughts and worries were also linked to their emotional reactions. Pre-intervention scores indicated that substitutes experienced a negative emotional reaction in the form of elevated scores for depression and anger and increasing trend for cognitive anxiety in some instances. Furthermore, scores for self-confidence and in some cases vigour reduced during the pre-performance phase. These findings support Lazarus’ (1991, 2000) proposal that thoughts and emotions are interlinked although causality between them was not examined here.

Participants’ increasing scores for state anxiety may be explained by evidence stating that there is a relationship between self-presentation concerns and competitive anxiety, particularly cognitive anxiety in sport (Bray et al., 2000; James & Collins, 1995; James & Collins, 1997; Wilson & Eklund, 1998). Bray et al. (2000) stated that worrying about what significant others may think in general was significantly related to cognitive and somatic anxiety. That is, anxiety increases when a performer perceives that presentation of the self has been threatened (Leary, 1992; Wilson & Eklund, 1998). However, as discussed in chapters two and three, perceived uncertainty, perceived threat, and reduced perceived control can also affect cognitive anxiety (Jones, 1995; Lox, 1992; Martens *et al.*, 1990a; Prapavessis et al., 1996). Thus, as results from study 2 did not identify elevated cognitive anxiety in substitutes, it may be that the pre-performance phase exposes substitutes to greater perceived threat, less control and greater self-presentation concerns. The pre-performance phase also included organisational stressors, as identified by substitutes in study 1 that may have contributed to elevated anger and depression. Consistent with the findings from study 2, substitute players experienced a rising trend in scores for depression and anger during the pre-intervention period.

These negative emotions may be associated with negative behaviour as research by Lane and Terry (2000) found that negative mood results in decreased effort and reduced performance arousal.

However, following the intervention period, emotions became more positive with some participants reporting less depression, less anger and more vigour, and cognitive anxiety demonstrated a general reduction or became more facilitative for performance. These changes may have occurred in response to altered thoughts and cognitions associated with the substitute role, as according to Jones (2003) emotional responses occur because self-statement modification alters mood by initiating a more appropriate emotional response for performance.

5.4.2 Behavioural changes

All players reported experiencing reduced effort and motivation whilst they were a substitute during pre-intervention, supporting Dosil's (2006) statement that low motivation and effort are prevalent in substitutes. To combat this, goal setting, a recognised behavioural strategy, and pre-performance routines, were implemented for each substitute. Post intervention results suggest that participants became more motivated reporting increased vigour and effort. Pre-intervention scores for vigour were low or fluctuating. However, post intervention scores increased for players 1 and 2 and high scores were maintained for players 3 and 4. In addition, post intervention interviews revealed that all four participants experienced enhanced motivation and effort during preparation and performance. Player 3 stated "*Setting goals helped me the most because I felt that there was something to aim for and this pushed me to want to reach them*" and player 2 stated, "*Having short term goals kept me motivated*". These findings support literature stating that goal setting encourages focus, regulates effort and directs the performer's activities towards enhanced persistence (Anshel et al., 1992; Locke & Latham, 1985).

Motivation also appeared to be regulated by self-talk thus supporting existing research that statements made in a motivational tone and context lead to greater drive and effort (Hardy et al.,

2001a, 2006; Hatzigeorgiadis et al., 2004). However, performers who used instructional self-talk also reported enhanced motivation. Player 1 stated, *“I felt like they [key words] gave me purpose and this made me feel motivated, and when I feel motivated I am more confident”* player 2 stated, *“I also found that repeating keywords to myself over and over again made me more determined during the match”*, player 3 stated, *“Self-talk helped because it would remind me of what things I needed to improve on, and it would help me and push me on more to try and improve on them in a game”* and player 4 stated, *“I tried to work hard and get to the ball...by saying get there”*. Finally substitutes reported enhanced effort during the pre-performance routine consisting of a dynamic stretching protocol that was identical to the warm up that they perform before the game. During the pre-intervention interviews all substitutes reported reduced effort and motivation during their warm up. However, when asked to identifying behaviours that potentially inhibit performance and propose alternative positive behaviours, all four participants stated that they should warm up as if they were starting. Consequently, their motivation and effort during this task improved following the intervention period. This was illustrated by player 1 who said, *“I saw how important it was to make sure that I put 100% in all warm ups”*.

The pre-performance routines also appeared to improve perceived readiness and enhance attention (Nacson & Schmidt, 1971; Schmidt & Wrisberg, 1971). By taking part in physical activity during the rest period that incorporated movements similar to those required during performance (Nacson & Schmidt, 1971; Schmidt & Wrisberg, 1971), these substitutes reported that they felt prepared and activated once substituted into the game, *“I think taking part in the warm-up as if I was starting the game made me mentally prepared and switched on from the start...I started doing the warm up properly then [after the intervention period] that made a difference”* (Player 2).

5.4.3 Limitations

As with any research design there were inevitably weaknesses with time series analysis such as testing effects (Fife-Schaw, 2000). In some cases scores for questionnaires changed before the intervention was implemented. This may have been caused by testing effects whereby repeated administration of the same dependent measures, may have influenced participants response to questions. However, in an attempt to reduced testing effects data were not collected during the treatment phase rather pre intervention scores were compared to post intervention scores for the same measures in order to determine whether or not the treatment was effective.

In some cases the researcher acting as an applied sport psychologist may result in dual role conflict whereby either role becomes compromised by the other. That is, participants may feel obliged to take part in research if they have close relationship with the researcher. Participants who feel obligated may not provide honest responses to questionnaires or take time to complete them accurately. However, participants in the current study volunteered for research project before they knew the researcher, therefore they would not have felt obligated to take part.

5.4.4 Recommendations and implications for future research

Future research should investigate the effectiveness of cognitive behavioural interventions in substitutes by comparing control and treatment groups from two separate teams. This would enhance the degree of certainty that the treatment causes positive changes to thought, emotions and behaviour. Research should also measure performance in order to establish whether substitutes' performance once substitute on to play is enhanced following the implementation of cognitive behavioural strategies. Furthermore, future investigations should use male participants in order to establish whether experiences reported by substitutes in the current study are gender specific. Nonetheless,

despite this need for further research, current findings present implications for applied psychologists and coaches.

In the short term, applied psychologists should help substitutes to develop effective coping strategies in order to deal with the immediate emotional response to becoming a substitute thus preventing emotions such as anger, frustration, and depression from impacting preparation and potentially performance.

In the longer term, sport psychologists should utilise cognitive behavioural strategies that address cognitions, emotions and behaviours when working with players who have become a substitute quite frequently over time. In addition, Socratic questioning proved beneficial in encouraging substitutes to attribute their playing status to more controllable factors such as effort. Therefore, applied psychologists may find that challenging substitutes' thoughts concerning their playing status, may allow them to generate a more realistic interpretation of why they were not selected to start.

However, sport psychologists may need to work closely with coaches in order to do this effectively. Current findings indicated that when substitutes did not receive an explanation from their coach, it allowed them to attribute their playing status to an incorrect decision by their coach. Psychologists should aim to facilitate open communication between substitutes and coaches which could help players to understand why they have become a substitute and facilitating more positive cognitions and subsequently emotions and behaviours in response to their playing status. Finally, coaches should implement goal setting strategies with substitutes in order to promote more constructive thoughts and behaviour towards regaining place as a starter player.

Chapter 6: Summary and Discussion of Main Findings

6.1 Overall summary

Despite research suggesting that the substitute role is stressful, substitutes are an under-studied population group, with existing research often treating substitutes and starters as an homogenous group. Therefore, the focus of this thesis was to investigate the experiences of substitute players in football. To achieve this, a preliminary investigation was carried out with specific focus on perceived stressors and psychological responses to becoming a substitute player (see chapter 2). Results confirmed that substitutes experience stress, with most participants reporting difficult organisational, competitive and emotional experiences. These findings supported literature that identifies that becoming a substitute player is stressful (Anshel et al., 2001; Dunn & Nielsen, 1996; Holt & Hogg, 2002; Prapavessis et al., 1996; Williams et al., 2000; Woodman & Hardy, 2001) and added to it by identifying specific emotions, and organisational and competitive stressors associated with the role. Based on these findings subsequent studies were carried out investigating the substitute role further with specific focus on examining differences in pre-competition response between substitutes and starters (study 2), the coach-substitute relationship (study 3), and the impact of cognitive behavioural interventions on mood, anxiety and self-presentation concerns in substitutes (study 4). Results from these studies describe players' mood and emotional response to becoming a substitute, the impact of team selection on the coach-athlete relationship and substitutes' responses to cognitive behavioural interventions.

These findings are important for several reasons. Firstly they allow for a deeper more detailed understanding of the substitute role to be disseminated to coaches and sport psychologists working in football and possibly all team sports where a similar substitution protocol is employed. They also provide support and pose interesting questions about existing theoretical concepts in sport

psychology. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss these findings in relation to existing literature and highlight how this thesis extends current knowledge in this area. Finally, limitations are discussed and directions for further research are highlighted.

6.2 Discussion of Main Findings

6.2.1 Organisational and competitive stressors

Until now research has simply outlined that football players disliked becoming a substitute player, and were concerned about being substituted into the game (Holt & Hogg, 2002); it did not provide specific detail about the source of these concerns and why they are threatening to performers. Overall results from the current research (studies 1, 3 and 4) revealed that becoming a substitute was stressful and threatening because substitute players were quite often expecting to be a starter and the substitute environment exposed players to different organisational and competitive stressors in comparison with when they were a starter. These findings add clarity to why the substitute role is stressful thus providing a richer understanding of the substitute phenomenon in football.

Results from study 1 also revealed that substitutes experienced organisational stressors in two distinct phases of competition; these were the pre-game phase (before the game commenced) and the pre-performance phase (the period of time that substitutes spent on the substitutes' bench whilst the game was in progress). Competitive stressors were experienced during the performance phase.

As previously discussed these findings support Cerin et al.'s (2000) interactional model of competitive stress which proposes that situational factors such as temporal aspects of stress, moderate athletes' emotional responses. This information is valuable to applied sport psychologists because it allows them to match suitable interventions to the problem experienced by an athlete depending on the time frame in which it is experienced.

Organisational stressors were typically associated with coaches' decisions and instructions as well as logistical restrictions associated with the substitute role (e.g., receiving short notice or late confirmation from their coach that they would not be starting the game or limited space to warm up when the game is in progress). Competitive stressors were typically associated with factors impeding performance (e.g., the pace of the game and the limited time available for substitutes to influence the outcome of the game). Performers experienced a range of factors in response to becoming a substitute player as well as these organisational and competitive stressors. These included negative emotions, self-presentation concerns, reduced perceived control, elevated state anxiety (see chapter 2) and poor coach-substitute relationships. By uncovering these specific stressors and emotional responses, this research has made a significant contribution to the limited literature on the substitute experience. Furthermore, this information is also useful for applied sport psychologists as by understanding substitutes' emotions they can implement more suitable interventions.

6.2.2 Emotional response

Despite individual differences in substitutes' experiences, responses to perceived stressors throughout this programme of research were typically negative. Findings from all four studies clearly indicated that substitutes experienced dissatisfaction concerning their playing status. In particular, substitutes reported experiencing anger, annoyance, frustration, shock, upset (studies 1 and 4) and depression (study 2) in response to becoming a substitute player and the stressors associated with this role. Moreover, results for study 2 indicated that substitutes experienced more anger and depression than starter players, supporting research stating that substitute players are likely to experience more stressors and more pressure than starter players (Morgan, 1980; Prapavessis, 2000). Finally, study 4 identified that substitutes' experienced increasing trend for anxiety and performance inadequacy concerns and decreasing trend in mood, self-confidence and motivation the more often that they were a substitute player. Whilst these findings support research proposing that becoming a substitute results in a negative emotional response (Prapavessis, 2000; Rotella & Newburg, 1989), they also

suggest that substitutes experience a greater range of emotions than the bitterness and rejection reported by substitutes in previous research (Rotella & Newburg, 1989). Furthermore, they draw attention to the fact that substitutes experienced a variety of emotional responses to stress, in addition to anxiety. Consequently, these results support concerns that the emotions of mood as measured by the POMS and BRUMS may be too simplistic for explaining athletes' psychological responses to stress (Mellalieu, 2003). They also provide a more comprehensive understanding of athletes' emotional experiences as opposed to focusing exclusively on stress and anxiety (Lazarus, 1993; Gill, 1994; Jones, 1995).

6.2.3 Anxiety and confidence in substitute players

The fact that substitutes reported perceived threat and elevated anxiety intensity is in line with predictions from Martens' theory (1990a) (as discussed in chapter 2), however, it could be misleading, as examining intensity alone is not sufficient to gain an understanding of athletic experiences (Jones, 1995). According to Jones' (1995) model, facilitative interpretation of anxiety occurs when individuals possess confidence in their ability to control *both* themselves and their environment (Borkovec et al., 1986; Carver & Scheier, 1988; Eysenck & Calvo, 1992; Jones & Hanton, 1994). Furthermore, Hanton et al. (2003) proposed that facilitative anxiety is a consequence of high self-confidence and perceived control. Thus, as substitutes in study 1 reported reduced perceived control, they should have reported debilitating anxiety interpretation as predicted by Jones' (1995) model. However, this was not the case as close examination of overall results indicated that almost 50% (9 out of 20) of substitutes in study 1 and all of the substitutes in study 2 reported that anxiety was facilitative to performance. This discrepancy can be explained by findings of study 2 and existing research whereby high perceived ability (as found in study 1) and self-confidence scores (as found in study 2) can protect athletes from experiencing debilitating thoughts and feelings in relation to competition (Hanton et al., 2004, 2005). Therefore despite reduced control substitutes still

experienced facilitative anxiety. Subsequent findings from study 4 may help explain this further as two participants experienced an improving trend in self-confidence scores when they obtained greater control over their thoughts, emotions, and behaviours (i.e themselves) although control of the environment still evaded them. This suggests that self-confidence and control of 'the self' may be closely linked, and it may be possible that self-confidence leads to facilitative anxiety regardless of whether the athlete can control the environment, because they can control themselves. However, Jones' model (1995) states that if an athlete has control over themselves *and* their environment it will lead to facilitative anxiety, thus it does not differentiate between the environment and the self. Therefore, whilst findings from this research supports the proposal of self-confidence as an individual difference factor in Jones' (1995) model (Figure 6.1) it also adds to research by suggesting that the control construct should be separated to clearly specify 'the self' *and* 'the environment' (see Figure 6.1). That is, figure 6.1 offers a diagrammatic modification of Jones' (1995) model to illustrate this proposal that control of the self can be achieved through enhanced self-confidence, leading to facilitative anxiety regardless of whether the athlete can or cannot control their environment.

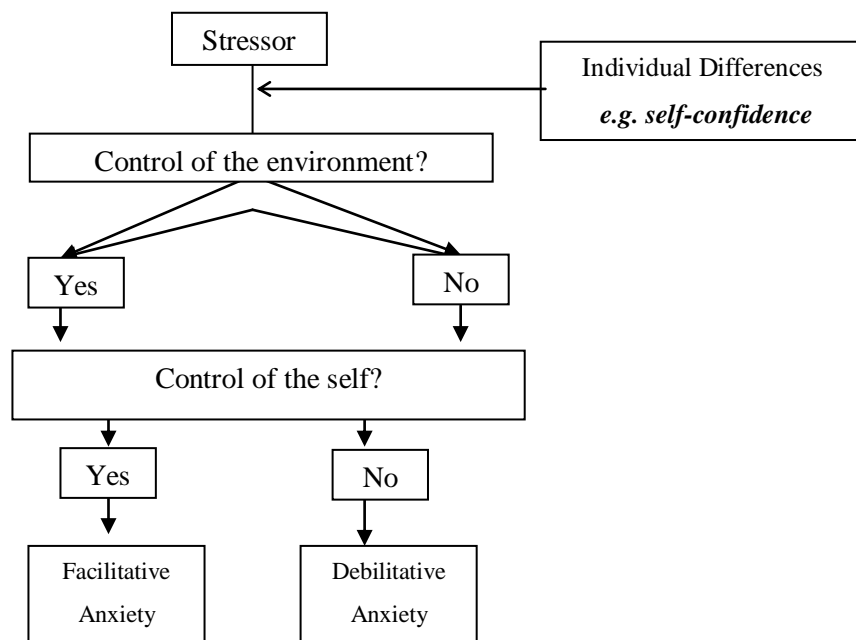


Figure 6.1 Modification of the control construct in Jones' (1995) control model of debilitative and facilitative competitive state anxiety

6.2.4 Self-presentation concerns

In addition to experiencing negative emotions and elevated anxiety, substitutes in study 1 reported concerns about how significant others might view them because of their playing status. However, study 2 indicated that the intensity of these concerns was not greater for substitute players than for starter players. Nonetheless, study 4 revealed that football players demonstrated a gradual increasing trend to experience self-presentation concerns the *more often* they were substituted during the pre-intervention phase (see Figures 5.11-5.37, 5.50, 5.51-5.53). Moreover, substitutes also presented *increasing* scores for depression, tension, and anger across games. Thus, although self-presentation concerns in substitutes may not be necessarily be high in players the first time they become a substitute, it does appear that like emotions, they may increase over time in response to repeatedly becoming a substitute player. Whilst this is in line with the proposal by Leary (1992) that substitutes experience self-presentation concerns when they are a 'chronic' bench warmer, greater support may

have been apparent if studies 1 and 2 had established how many times each participant had been a substitute. Nonetheless, the suggestion that the more often a player is a substitute, the stronger their emotional reaction will become adds to the neglected area of research on temporal changes in affect over long periods, such as seasons and tournaments (Cerin et al., 2000). However, more research is necessary to explore this link further.

6.2.5 Coach-substitute relationship

The extent to which a player is a substitute also appeared to affect the coach-substitute relationship. Study 3 revealed that the coach-substitute relationship appeared to deteriorate the longer a player was not selected to start. Coaches and substitutes reported experiencing less communication between each other and less commitment towards each other the longer a player was a substitute. These findings support research that substitutes may experience a debilitating relationship with their coach (Jowett et al., 2005), but also add to our understanding of this relationship by identifying the specific elements of the relationship that deteriorated. That is, results from study 3 found that coaches and substitutes experienced poor understanding, poor closeness and less complimentary behaviour. In doing so, support is also offered for Jowett et al.'s (2005) conceptual model (4Cs) of the coach-athlete relationship which suggests that closeness, co-orientation, complementarity, and commitment must be present for a relationship to be successful. Moreover, these findings also highlight that the coach-substitute relationship may deteriorate for various reasons in addition to mistrust as initially outlined by Jowett et al. (2005) as the main factor that may affect the relationship. In fact, since results from studies 1, 3 and 4 outlined that substitutes have less interaction with their coaches, and study 3 found that poor communication contributed to a lack of shared understanding, incongruence and reduced respect and trust between coaches and substitutes, it may be proposed that communication may be a key component to establishing a positive coach-substitute relationship. This supports research that effective communication is necessary in order for coaches and athletes to share expectations for performance (Shelley & Sherman, 1997), whilst poor communication is demotivating (Mageau &

Vallerand, 2003; Turam, 2003) and can lead to conflict and uncertainty as well as lack of shared understanding (Gilbert et al., 1999; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Wang et al., 2001). Consequently, this programme of research has expanded Jowett et al.'s (2005) proposal about substitutes by establishing that the coach-substitute relationship may deteriorate due to poor communication leading to reduced co-orientation, commitment, closeness, and complementarity. Finally, this research also supports the use of the conceptual model of the coach athlete relationship (4Cs; Jowett et al., 2005) in team sports and in relation to the coach-substitute relationship.

6.2.6 The effect of cognitive behavioural techniques on substitutes' thoughts, emotions and behaviours

Findings from studies 1 to 3 indicated that a negative substitute experience consisted of negative emotions, thoughts and behaviours. Therefore, study 4 aimed to provide substitutes with coping strategies to address negative thoughts, emotions and behaviours experienced as a result of frequently being a substitute. Following the intervention period, all four participants experienced less negative thoughts, emotions and behaviour. Thoughts appeared to be more focused on effort and the task at hand, rather than worrying about their playing status. Responses in interviews indicated that substitutes were less depressed and angry and more happy, satisfied, motivated and confident post intervention. Questionnaire results support this with all players presenting a declining trend in scores for depression, anger, performance inadequacy concerns, and improving scores for vigour and anxiety interpretation (became more facilitative). Overall, behaviour also demonstrated some improvement with all four participants reporting during their interview that they enhanced motivation and effort whilst they were substitute players. Two players reported that they actively went to seek out feedback from their coach, whilst one stated that they found it easier to settle into the game once substituted on to play.

Such findings offer support for research outlining the potential for goal setting, self-talk and pre-performance routines to have a motivational effect (Anshel et al., 1992; Hardy et al., 2001a; Hardy et al., 2001b; Hardy, 2006; Hatzigeorgiadis et al., 2004; Locke & Latham, 1985) as well as improving concentration (Anshel & Wrisberg, 1993; Boutcher, 1990; Cohn et al. 1990; Czech et al., 2004; Jackson, 2003; Jackson & Baker, 2001; Kingston et al., 1992; Landin & Herbert, 1999; Locke & Latham, 1985; McCann et al., 2001; Moran, 1996; Swain & Jones, 1995a; Weinberg & Gould, 2003; Wrisberg & Anshel, 1993; Ziegler, 1987). Furthermore, they support the need for interventions such as these to be implemented with substitutes in order to help these players to deal with stressors as well as negative responses to their playing status.

6.3 Overall Limitations

Limitations associated with studies 1 to 4 have already been discussed in preceding chapters. The purpose of this section is to identify overall limitations thus allowing overall findings to be interpreted within the limitations of this thesis.

Firstly, interview and questionnaire data gathered in the current research were obtained from Association Football players. These results may not explain substitutes' experiences from different sports because they may not experience the same organisational and competitive stressors or psychological responses as football substitutes. For example, as previously discussed in chapter 2, substitute players in sports such as field hockey and basketball may have less concerns about becoming a substitute player because rules permit roll-on-roll-off substitutions to be made. Consequently, current findings should only be applied to sports possessing similar organisational and competitive stressors as Association Football.

Secondly, the qualitative design of studies 1 and 3 means it is impossible to infer reliable causality between constructs in Jones' (1995) control model (Jones, 1995), Jowett et al.'s (2005) conceptual model outlining the coach-athlete relationship or Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory of competitive anxiety. Furthermore, one off interviews may have diluted the results provided by participants. Therefore, it may have been more useful to carry out more than one interview with each participant in order to establish a more comprehensive understanding of their experiences.

Thirdly, it was unclear whether substitutes in studies 1, 2 and 3, reported their experiences in relation to the fact that they had become a substitute player just once or that they were consistently a substitute player. Players who were frequently substituted may have reported more negative emotions and dissatisfaction due to the fact that they were continuously prevented from performing.

Conversely, they may also have experienced less dissatisfaction if they were more familiar with the substitute status. In addition, some substitutes who participated in studies 1 and 2 may have been promoted from their reserve team. If this was the case these substitutes may have experienced inflated self-confidence scores when sitting on the bench as it meant that they were in fact improving. Consequently, future research should investigate these individual difference factors further.

Lastly, as discussed in chapter 5, the longitudinal design of study 4 may have resulted in testing effects and the lack of a control group may have increased the threat to internal validity. However, due to the ethical concerns and difficulty associated with assigning participants to a treatment or control group in a competitive situation for a prolonged period, time series analysis proved to be the most suitable design. That is, despite its weaknesses time series analysis facilitated the use of non-randomised groups, multiple data collection or observation points for each participant and the cessation of data collection during the intervention period (Druckman, 2005; England, 2005; Fife-Shaw, 2000; Gribbons & Herman, 1997). This enabled research to be carried out in situ thus

providing a more realistic understanding of substitutes' experiences and responses to cognitive behavioural techniques over the course of a competitive playing season.

Moreover, qualitative methods employed in studies 1, 3 and 4 facilitated understanding of the substitute role and experiences associated with it. Until now little was known about the substitute phenomenon, with research relying on assumption and anecdotal reports rather than research based evidence to discuss the psychological implications of becoming a substitute player. Interviews (in studies 1, 3 and 4) provided rich descriptions of substitutes' experiences with participants telling their story in their own words. According to Streat (1998), such descriptions of competitive situations and contexts provide performers and coaches with valuable opportunities to make connections to their own performance conditions and practices. Therefore, this thesis can provide coaches, players and applied sport psychologists with the opportunity to understand and hopefully improve substitutes' thoughts, emotions and experiences in football.

Qualitative results also facilitated verification of assumptions concerning the substitute experience and existing theoretical concepts (Streat, 1998). Interview results supported the assumption that becoming a substitute is stressful (Anshel et al., 2001; Holt & Hogg, 2002; Woodman & Hardy, 2001) as well as constructs from Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory of competitive anxiety, the control model of debilitating and facilitative anxiety (Jones, 1995) and the conceptual model of the coach-athlete relationship (4Cs; Jowett et al., 2005). Furthermore, interview responses also supported the evaluation of cognitive behavioural techniques for improving thoughts, emotions and behaviours in substitutes (study 4). Although participant responses cannot infer a causal relationship between improved experiences and the intervention process, or constructs in theoretical models (as already discussed), participants' rich descriptions do provide compelling support for these relationships (Streat, 1998). Qualitative methods are a useful way of evaluating interventions within competitive

settings that prevent experimental investigation whereby participants confirm the effectiveness of the intervention they experienced (Strean, 1998).

Qualitative findings from study 1 also provided a platform for quantitative investigation in study 2. The exploratory nature of qualitative inquiry provided detailed description of participants' experiences, but also unearthed proposals and hypotheses that were worthy of further investigation (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). This process of combining qualitative and quantitative also facilitated external validity of overall findings in a process called methods triangulation (Patton, 2002; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). That is, quantitative methods in study 2 provided a more thorough understanding of the substitute phenomenon (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003); accepting the hypotheses generated from study 1 that mood was significantly different between starters and substitutes, but rejecting the hypothesis that self-presentation concerns and competitive anxiety were different. Nonetheless, like most research this process is not certain to provide a complete understanding or confirm that participants 'reality' is true. Inevitably research generates as many unanswered questions as it provides answers. Therefore, whilst the overall findings of this research contributed to a better understanding of the substitute phenomenon, it also fulfilled the iterative process of research by identifying many questions that have remained unanswered (Strean, 1989). The following section outlines these questions and makes recommendations for future research directions and applied practitioners.

6.4 Recommendations for coaches and applied sport psychologists

Despite the fact that this research is exploratory in nature, thus the substitute phenomenon inevitably requires further research; the findings may provide sport psychologists and coaches with invaluable insight to an understudied group. Both coaches and sport psychologists should be aware that substitutes in this research reported dissatisfaction concerning their playing status. In particular, substitutes reported experiencing anger, annoyance, frustration, shock, upset (studies 1 and 4) and

depression (study 2) in response to becoming a substitute player and the stressors associated with this role. Moreover, results for study 2 indicated that substitutes experienced more anger and depression than starter players and study 4 revealed that football players demonstrated a gradual increasing trend to experience greater performance inadequacy concerns the *more often* they were substituted during the pre-intervention phase. Substitutes also presented *increasing* scores for depression, tension, and anger across games. Thus, although self-presentation concerns in substitutes may not be necessarily be high in players the first time they become a substitute, it does appear that like emotions, they may increase over time in response to repeatedly becoming a substitute player. Therefore, coaches and sport psychologists should be aware that substitute dissatisfaction and deterioration in mood and emotions may not materialise until a player has consistently been a substitute over a prolonged period of time. Consequently, it is important that both coaches and applied psychologists are aware of these negative implications so that performance and satisfaction can be maintained. This could be achieved by speaking to players who have been chronic substitutes or monitoring changes in their mood in order to identify emotional responses that could have a negative impact on motivation to train or actual performance once substituted on to play.

Another important finding from study 1 was the temporal aspects of emotions in response to stressors experienced at different times. That is, substitutes were exposed to different stressors during the pre-game phase (before the game commenced) the pre-performance phase (the period of time that substitutes spent on the substitutes' bench whilst the game was in progress) and performance phase (period of time that substitutes spent performing once substituted into the game). This finding allows applied sport psychologists to match suitable interventions to the problem experienced by an athlete depending on the time frame in which is it experienced (Mellalieu, 2003). For example, sport psychologists may use different approaches for dealing with organisational stressors which were only

experienced during the pre-game and pre-performance phases (when substitute is not playing) compared with competitive stressors which substitutes experienced whilst playing.

In addition to emotional responses to environmental stressors substitute players also experienced deterioration in their relationship with their coach. In fact, coaches and substitutes in study 3 reported that that they felt less committed and less likely to communicate with each other the longer a player was a substitute. In addition to this, substitutes believed they had less interaction with their coaches, and study 3 found that poor communication contributed to a lack of shared understanding, incongruence and reduced respect and trust between coaches and substitutes. Poor communication is demotivating (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Turam, 2003) leading to conflict and uncertainty as well as lack of shared understanding between the coach and the athlete (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003), therefore, it may be proposed that coaches should work towards maintaining communication in order to establish a positive coach-substitute relationship (Haslewood et al., 2005). Based on these findings, coaches should aim to provide players with more notice that they are not starting the game as well as a clearer explanation about how they may regain their status as a starter. In doing so coaches may eliminate uncertainty and lack of shared understanding that substitutes reported experiencing (study 1 and study 3). It may also help to reinstate substitutes' control over their performance by allowing them to focus on feedback rather than dwell on negative emotions they may be experiencing. Therefore, coaches should communicate and interact with players regardless of whether they are a starter or a substitute as improving communication could help prevent substitutes from experiencing negative emotions and a negative relationship with their coach.

Whilst lack of communication may have caused substitutes to feel confused and uncertain about performing, overall results indicated that almost 50% (9 out of 20) of substitutes in study 1 and all of the substitutes in study 2 reported that anxiety was facilitative to performance. That is, although it

was hypothesised that substitute players may experience greater more debilitating anxiety than starter players due to experiencing reduced perceived control of their environment or playing status, substitutes actually experienced facilitative anxiety. Moreover, there was no significant difference between substitutes or starter players with regards to anxiety intensity. As discussed in study 2, these results can be explained by the finding that substitutes also had high perceived ability (study 1) and self-confidence scores (study 2) which is in accordance with research stating that self-confidence can protect athletes from experiencing debilitating thoughts and feelings in relation to competition (Hanton et al., 2004, 2005). These findings would suggest that sport psychologists should endeavour to enhance confidence and perceived ability in substitute players in order to maintain facilitative anxiety especially since they are likely to experience reduced perceived control of their environment which is likely to lead to debilitating anxiety (Jones, 1995).

Furthermore, findings from study 4 suggest that reduced control of the environment may be irrelevant for some substitutes as long as they have high perceived control. That is, two participants experienced an improving trend in self-confidence scores when they obtained greater control over their thoughts, emotions, and behaviours (by using self-talk, goal setting and performance routines) although control of the environment still evaded them. This suggests that self-confidence and 'control of the self' may be closely linked, whereby high self-confidence leads to facilitative anxiety regardless of whether the athlete can control the environment, because they can control themselves. Consequently, coaches and sport psychologists should strive to enhance substitute players' confidence and control of their 'self'. This can be achieved by using strategies such as self-talk, goal setting and performance routines as utilised in this research in order to promote facilitative anxiety interpretation before performance. Furthermore, coaches can help to protect substitutes' self-confidence by limiting exposure to comments which refer to a player's technical or tactical weaknesses or reference to any bad past performances (Mamassis and Doganis, 2004). Therefore,

whilst coaches should provide substitutes with explanations as to why they are not starting, they should also bear in mind that they may need that player to perform well when substituted into the game, thus it is extremely important that substitute's self-confidence remains high.

In addition to organisational stressors, coaches and sport psychologists should be aware that substitutes experienced competitive stressors which were typically associated with factors impeding performance (e.g., the pace of the game and the limited time available for substitutes to influence the outcome of the game). Substitute players reported that they often found it difficult to 'settle into the game' and perform well once substituted onto play. This difficulty was associated with the tempo or pace that the game was being played, as well as the fact that substitutes were often substituted on to play when there was not much time left in the game. Coaches should attempt to rectify this difficulty by implementing strategies that ensure substitutes players are physically ready to perform before being substituted into the game. An example of such a strategy can be seen in study 4 where participants engaged in a physically demanding warm up as part of a pre-performance routine before going on to play which subsequently led these substitutes to report that found it easier to settle into the game. Moreover, social validation results from study 4 found that substitutes' overall behaviour demonstrated some improvement with all four participants reporting enhanced motivation and effort, two participants reporting that they actively went to seek out feedback from their coach, whilst one participant stated that they found it easier to settle into the game once substituted on to play. Such findings indicate that practitioners should implement individualised strategies such as goal setting, self-talk and pre-performance routines that facilitate positive cognitions, emotions and behaviours and thus control when working with substitute players. In doing so substitutes may also cope more effectively with the emotions and stressors that they are exposed to. In fact, strategies that allow substitutes to engage in approach coping (consisting of increased effort, increased planning and self-talk; Anshel et al., 2001) may be more effective as they would allow the performer to feel that they

have a certain degree of control over their situation, which is extremely important since reduced control was reported by substitutes as harmful to preparation and threatening to future performance. Thus in addition to enhanced confidence, coaches and sport psychologists should encourage substitutes to engage in behavioural or problem focused coping strategies.

In summary, football players appear to experience various stressors and emotional responses to becoming a substitute player that they are not ordinarily exposed to when they are selected as a starter. Consequently coaches and sport psychologists should not treat starters and substitutes as a homogenous group but rather be aware of the different stressors that they are exposed to and attempt to eliminate or help substitutes to cope more effectively with these stressors. Finally coaches and sport psychologists should aim to overcome problems in coach-substitute relationships, enhance self-confidence, improve perceived control, and encourage substitute players to engage in behavioural coping strategies such as pre-performance routines which may facilitate performance.

6.5 Future Research Directions

According to Cerin et al. (2000) personal factors such as gender and playing experience may influence emotional responses to stress therefore future research should investigate these proposed differences in substitutes. Although gender differences were not investigated in the current research, findings from study 3 indicated that substitutes in the male team were perhaps more accepting of their coaches decision than substitutes in the female team. Therefore, it may be the case that male and female substitutes cope differently which would have subsequent implications for their emotional response. However, these differences could also be attributed to playing status as the male team were semi-professional and the players from the female team were amateurs. Furthermore, a performers' experience of being a substitute player may have varied across participants. For example, players who become a substitute later in their athletic career may not experience dissatisfaction rather they

may in actually be satisfied with the opportunity to continue participation in their sport albeit as a substitute. Therefore, future research should compare coping and emotions in male and female substitute players and investigate the implications that playing status and previous experience of being a substitute player may have on participants' experiences.

Some support was found in study 4 for the fact that players who become substitutes consistently over time may experience different emotional response to their playing status than a player who has become a substitute player for the first time. Further temporal aspects evident in this research included the effect of time on self-presentation concerns. Although research (Leary, 1992) and current findings (study 4) have indicated that emotions become more debilitating and self-presentation concerns increase, further investigation is necessary because, substitutes may experience less debilitating emotions if they cope more effectively or feel familiar with the substitute role and the stressors associated with it. Future research also needs to investigate pre-game and pre-performance changes to self-presentation concerns in substitutes because, as mentioned in study 2, it may be possible that concerns increase the closer substitutes get to performing.

An important aspect of the current research was the use of qualitative research in studies 1 and 3 to investigate constructs within Jones' (1995) and Jowett et al.'s (2005) models and Martens et al.'s (1990a) theory. Although participants' responses supported theoretical constructs, causal relationships between constructs could not be verified thus further research is necessary. Specifically, further research is needed to investigate the relationship between self-confidence and anxiety interpretation with specific reference to Jones (1995) model. That is, with research (Hanton et al., 2004, 2005) and current findings (study 3) supporting the moderating effect of confidence on anxiety interpretation, an adapted model of debilitating and facilitative competitive anxiety including self-confidence (see figure 6.1) should be investigated. Furthermore, the relationship between

communication and each of the four constructs in Jowett's et al.'s (2005) conceptual model of the coach-athlete relationship is necessary to understand the moderating effect of communication on the coach-athlete relationship as indicated by findings in study 3.

Findings from studies 1, 3 and 4 supported Hansen (2003) that substitutes tend to make the attribution that the coach is responsible for them not playing, and not their ability. Accordingly substitutes may require help retraining their attributions. That is, they should have internal, unstable and controllable attributions, as it is motivating to have control over a situation, consequently these types of attributions will allow the player to cope best when they are not selected for the team (Hansen, 2003). In study 4 substitutes set process in addition to performance and outcome goals, which according to Hatzigeorgiadis and Biddle (2002) are less externally and comparatively evaluated than ego orientated goals, and less reliant on success or failure of an external source, therefore more controllable (Nicholls, 1984). Consequently, by having greater control, substitutes could attribute success or failure to internal rather than external factors. However, attributions were not measured in this research therefore; future research should investigate the reasons performers attribute becoming a substitute player to, thus allowing applied practitioners to make suitable interventions in order to improve control and emotional experiences.

Finally, although it was not the intention of this thesis to examine performance in substitutes, research has proposed that becoming a substitute is potentially threatening to performance (Anshel et al., 2001; Holt & Hogg 2002), and identified that negative emotions are debilitating to performance. Therefore, future research should examine the implications of negative mood and emotions on performance in substitute players. Such research may also explain the phenomenon of the 'super sub', an informal title typically given to football substitutes who score a goal or perform significantly well once substituted into a game. That is, substitutes who experience less debilitating cognitions,

emotions and behaviour prior to competition may be more likely to play well and vice versa. If this proposal proved to be the case, coaches and sport psychologists may be able to enhance team success by using interventions (such as those used in study 4) to achieve consistent good performances from substitute players.

6.5 Concluding Remarks

This thesis is the first focused investigation on substitute players in team sport, and whilst it has possibly identified as many questions about substitutes as it has answered, it has also made some interesting discoveries. It draws attention to the substitute role as an understudied issue, identifying it as a stressful experience and a phenomenon worthy of further research in the field of sport psychology. It also identifies that substitutes and starters should be treated as heterogeneous groups and that coaches' and substitutes' experience maladaptive relationships. Finally, it demonstrated the positive impact that cognitive behavioural strategies can have on substitutes' thoughts, emotions and behaviours. Therefore, whilst this thesis can help coaches and applied sport psychologists to improve experiences for substitute players across team sports not only football, it also highlights the substitute role as a phenomenon worthy of further research in the field of sport psychology.

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APPENDIX 1: Information letter for Study 1

Re: Interviewing players regarding experiences of being a substitute.

To whom it may concern,

I am a post graduate teaching assistant at St. Mary's College, Twickenham in London and am writing to you in anticipation that you may be able to assist me with my research. My area of interest is the phenomenon termed by the media as a 'super sub' and by this I mean that I am interested in why some players can perform well after coming on as a substitute, while others do not. Initially I wish to understand the experiences of a substitute, how they may differ from a starting player and how being on the bench could affect their performance. In order to do this I aim to interview semi-professional and professional football players about their experiences, therefore, I am writing to you to ask if it would be possible for me to interview some of your team's players? Because the purpose of the material obtained is strictly for academic research use, information will be gathered, used, and stored in a highly confidential manner, as detailed below.

Players I wish to interview must have been a sub within the last three months of being interviewed and must have come on to play in the games they were sub. Interviews will be conducted in an academic manner, I will not be attempting to influence players into saying something they do not want to. Questions will be based on their experiences of being a substitute and how both personal and environmental factors may affect them. Each interview will last approximately forty-five minutes, be recorded, and later transcribed in order to obtain an accurate account. Both tape recordings and transcripts will be kept secure and will at no time contain the player's names. Players will be given an opportunity to re-read their transcripts to ensure accuracy.

If you feel it is possible for me to interview some of your players, I am willing to attend training grounds and carry them out at suitable times. If you feel that there are further questions you would like answered I will be happy to do so and you may contact me, or my supervisor at the address provided. If however, you feel that it is not possible for me to carry out interviews at your club it would also be appreciated if you could get in touch with me as I would welcome any kind of feedback. Thank you for taking the time to read this letter and I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely

Bernie Woods

APPENDIX 2: Informed consent for Study 1

To whom it may concern,

The following information is provided for you to decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that you are free to decide not to participate or to withdraw at any time. The purpose of this study is to understand the experiences of football substitutes and how being a substitute may affect performance. At this stage of the research an attempt is being made to understand your feelings and most recent experiences of being a substitute, therefore, you are asked to participate in an interview.

Interviews will last approximately forty five minutes and will be tape recorded for later interpretation. All information you disclose will be totally anonymous and no other person will be aware of your feelings or statements other than the researcher. A second researcher may also listen to the tapes to ensure that your views have been accurately accounted for by the first researcher, however they will be completely unaware of your identity. Your name or club name will not be kept with the tapes. Once interviews have been recorded they will be transcribed and summarised to help create an overall impression of the experiences of substitutes. On completion findings of this study may be published in an academic journal however at no time will your name or club name appear in the article. You may on request receive a copy of the findings, you may also be called upon to read through your transcript to ensure that statements you have made have been accurately recorded.

The expected benefits associated with your participation include improved understanding of the experiences of substitutes. Possible understanding of why some substitutes come on and play well and other do not? It may also highlight specific preparation strategies that a substitute should use in order to improve chances of playing well.

If you agree to participate in this study please sign your consent with full knowledge of the method and purpose of the procedures. If you have any further questions please do not hesitate to ask either before participating or during the time you are participating. A copy of this consent form will be given to you to keep.

Signature of Participant

Date

Please Print the Following

Name:

Address:

Home Phone Number:

Mobile Phone Number:

Email:

Do you wish to receive a summary of results for this study? **Yes** **No** (circle one)

Would you like to be involved in the second part of this study to be conducted at a later stage using questionnaires? **Yes** **No** (circle one)

APPENDIX 3: Interview questions for Study 1

Being told you are a substitute

Who told you, you were going to be a substitute?

When did you find out? Was it at training or on the match day?

Where you given a reason? If not why do you believe you are/were a substitute?

(If reason is related to ability) Do you feel that if given an opportunity to play you could fulfil coach's demands or expectations?

Where you given any indication that you might play?

If you were told before match day i.e. training, did it effect your preparation?

Under what circumstances have you become a sub? Promotion to Team from squad position, or dropped from the first team?

Could you explain your feelings on being told that you were a substitute?

On match day can you remember if you warmed up alone or with the team?

Do you decide when to warm-up or do you wait to be told when to warm up?

Is your warm up a controlled systematic process? Or rushed and unorganised?

Before the game did the manager or coach address you in the team talk?

How did your team-mates respond to you?

How did you feel just before the game started? Can you remember what you were doing just as the game started?

Where do you sit when the game starts?

Can you recall what you doing while the game is in progress? Are you watching the game?

Are you watching anyone in particular?

Do the crowd or spectators distract you?

How do/did you expect to perform if you do/were to get on to play?

Can you recall a situation when your team were winning, whilst you were on the bench? Can you remember how you felt? How would you feel to come on to play in this situation? Can you recall a time when you did?

Can you recall a situation when your team was losing? Can you remember how you felt? How would you feel to come on in this situation? Can you recall a time when you did?

What is the worst thing about not playing in both these situations?

Is there anything that could happen in the game that would make you feel like not playing?

Do the circumstances you go on to play affect you? E.g. replacing someone who has been injured or replacing someone not playing well?

If you do get an opportunity to go on and play what is your main aim or objective? Play well to gain place on team / impress manager or coach or team mates / to make a significant contribution towards success (score goal/make important save).

Are you instructed by your coach or manager of your exact role before you go on to play? Do you have a clearly defined role to fulfil?

How important is it for you to play well / make a significant contribution to the game?

A-Trait

Do you feel more anxious/nervous being a substitute or starting the game?

Would you regard yourself as a naturally anxious person? Are there any other situations in your life where you experience the same anxious feelings as when you play sport?

A-State

As a **Starter**—How anxious/nervous are you just before kick off?

Positive or negative effects of this anxiety?

As a **Sub**—How anx/nervous are you in general as the game is in progress?

Positive or negative effects of this anxiety?

How anx/nervous are you in the period between being told you are sub and going on?

So in comparison i.e. just before you go on as starter and just before you go on as sub when are you more anxious? Why?

Overall do you agree with how you found out you were sub and is there anything that you would change about being a sub to help you play better when you came on to play?

APPENDIX 4: Bracketing Interview for Study 1

Interviewer (I): I'm interested firstly to know what level do you play at?

Participant (P): I play at, almost national league level so the equivalent to Division 3 mens.

I: And how long have you been playing?

P: I've been playing for about 15 years.

I: Right and are you with a particular team at the moment?

P: I play for *****.

I: And how long have you been with this team?

P: Em just over a year, a year playing first team and half a year playing reserves.

I: And in relation to your team mates how would you rate your playing ability?

P: fairly good. In relation to the good players, probably close to one or two of the good players. So probably about fairly high up.

I: How would you rate the good players? Why do you think they're good?

I: Is it age or talent or..?

P: Yeah...skill, fitness, em and confidence aswell. They're quite loud.

I: Ok, I would like you now to recall a recent situation when you were told that you were not in the starting line up and were going to be a substitute.. So a situation when you realised you were going to be a substitute.

P: Ok

I: First of all. Who told you you were going to be a sub?

P: Em it was the coach so our club coach.

I: And when did you find out?

P: Eh he told me after a training session the Wednesday before the game. So about three days before the game.

I: In it being three days before the game did that affect how you prepared for the game?

P: Em Sort of yeah, you kind of think well I can relax because you know I'm not starting and don't have a specific thing to do. In a way I felt a little bit more -well I dont have to worry about it now because I'll be sittin on the bench and eventually I'll be told what to do.

I: So from him telling you you weren't playing you took it as your not playing at all?

P: Yeah well when he did say that I was, basically it was when I was playing reserve and then was told right you're sub on the bench so it was kind of I'm on the bench I'm almost there.

I: Right so you were progressing from the reserves and were on the bench for the first team?

P: Yeah

I: Were you given a reason as to why you weren't playing?

P: Em he did actually. He said basically that he thought maybe...see how it goes and the other girls have a bit more experience playing at that level and em to see how it goes and eventually it will give me more experience as I hadn't played at club level before.

I: Do you think if you were given the chance to get on the pitch do you think you'd be able to prove to him that you had the ability?

P: Lookin back at it I probably....yeah sort of felt like if he'd given the opportunity at the right time then you could go on and then your gonna prove to them that you've earned your position so there's a bit of pressure on you. So yeah in a way coz you want to prove to them so you don't want to think I'm not gonna achieve, I'm gonna go out there and do my best.

I: In the run up to the game, and on the match day were you given any indication that you might play?

P: No none at all so basically, in a team talk, we would have a warm-up come in then have a team talk and then he would say like em to go through the team and say right this is the team these are the subs and that's about it.

I: How do you feel about being a sub?

P: Em it is not the best thing in the world coz obviously you wanna play so sittin there is not great. You feel a bit like oh maybe you're not as good as the rest of them so before you go on you're thinkin oh God they think I'm crap coz obviously I'm on the bench and not as good as them.

I: Right how about the fact that you were actually progressing in being a sub?

P: Em

I: Did you even think of that?

P: No because you still feel lesser although you've improved from you being reserve to now being first team em you still feel not as good as the first team players. So in relation to the reserve team players then yeah it's great coz you're better than them but when you go into this new environment you're not as good.

I: So it didn't help?

P: No

I: Right so on that match day em in preparing for the match can you remember how you warmed up what sort of process did you go through?

P: Em before the game we just warmed up as normal with the first team so you just go through the normal warm-up that's all a team kind of thing. But then as soon as the game starts your just on the bench your just sitting there and now and again the coach will say just keep yourself warm so just basically makes you run up and down. And then if your lucky you'll get a few minutes before you go on and he'll say right 'you're goin on' or it might be just 'right you're goin on now and your like 'oh right I haven't warmed up'. Or it might be that 'your goin on in the next five minutes get warmed up'. So it depends on the situation you go on.

I: So the warm-up before the match doesn't differ in being a sub?

P: Em it's different to when you start coz when you start you have completely got that time scale so you've got like 'alright I've got fifteen twenty minutes now to warm up before I go on and play so you can completely prepare. Whereas being a sub you don't know when you...you haven't got that specific start time. You're not like 'I'm going to start now, so you don't really...it could be you come straight off the bench cold so it's kind of different.

I: And during the team talk you mentioned that the coach went through who the team was did he address you in that team talk?

P: No em no not really he just said basically like I think he said if you do go on you'll be going into Jane's position. That's kind of the only guidance you get so I was like 'right I'll watch and see what she does. That's about it so once you're told what position you're goin into.

I: How did the teammates respond to you?

P: Em kinda mixed really because they don't really know you. So you're coming into a new team so they don't really address you a lot. Em its weird because they don't really talk to you as such but as soon as you come on to play its like right they all know you and they do cheer you on a bit and say right you've to this and this and this. But you kind of think they haven't got as much confidence in you, because they'll talk to you a lot. They'll talk you through the game whereas you don't really need that. So it's a bit, you feel a bit like your being spoken down to all the time.

I: Not so much part of the team?

P: No not really

I: And in particular you were told that if you got on you were taking the place of *****?

P: Yeah

I: How did that sort of change interaction with her?

P: Em I suppose it probably I don't know I supposed she was probably a bit miffed to think that if she didn't perform well then that's where I was going. I think there's just more of a guidance for me to say right this is your position so I mean if I was to be going on that's were I would be going.

I: Ok and how did you feel just before the game started?

P: Em fine actually because everything is focused on the team coz they're starting so you're basically more often than not you're collecting warm up tops from people and you're like collecting the water bottles or you're making sure that all the footballs are in. So you're kind of doin bits and pieces. You're not actually really thinkin about the game.

I: And while the game is on where are you sitting?

P: Just at the halfway line so on the bench.

I: And what are you doin are you...what are you thinking about who are you watching?

P: We're just chatting gossiping! (laughs) We do watch the game but em there is normally about three or four of us so most of the time we kind of sit there and just listen to the coach. It's funny coz anytime something might happen we're like oh no. We're like oh no someone has to go on and we're like it's you no it's you. You're trying to like guess who it's gonna be. You don't wanna ask. You don't wanna say oh can I go on coz it's not done.

I: Is it not done because you were not part of the team?

P: Yeah but aswell just out of respect for the coach if you keep saying can I go on? He's not gonna let you.

I: Did you find yourself watching ***** in particular?

P: Yeah because your trying to see oh this is the role that she's doing and if she's doing anything bad I think right I wont do that coz then you know right she's messed up there if I have to go on then I'll make sure I don't do that. Especially coz you're listening to what he's saying to her he could be completely slating her and swearing like and they can't hear him but we can so we're listen to what he's saying so you can kinda get some tips.

I: Ok and during the game do the spectators affect you at all?

P: Em not particularly sometimes it depends like if there's many if they stand around the bench and are chatting to you. Em but you feel I suppose that when you do go on that they're watching you coz everything stops and you are the focus of attention for that minute or whatever. So it's like everyone is watching me coming on they know I'm new so they're waiting for me to kinda mess up or to do something good.

I: So when they're chatting to you and you're sitting on the bench does that have a positive or a negative effect?

P: Eh positive I suppose coz I suppose it means that they like you and that they want you to do well. Sometimes they'll give you a bit of encouragement as well but it can work both ways.

I: And when you're on the pitch is it the same?

P: Eh sometimes if you mess up then they'll let you know about it. But it's more I think obvious when your coming in coz as a team you're starting and you're going out as a team the spectators can be watching everyone. But just the fact of that minute you're coming on I think is horrible because you're like 'oh no everyone is watching me I have to do well'

I: how do you expect to play when you get on like that?

P: You've got a very short period of time to kind of impress people because it might be only a few minutes you come on at the end so eh it takes a long time to fit into a game. Especially everyone's starting together normally the game starts really quickly and stuff like that. So coming on as a sub it takes a while to adjust to the play what way it's going are you defending, attacking? It takes a few minutes to settle in and you're not as on the ball as other people you might have a bad touch and everyone shouts at ye.

I: Can you recall a situation when you're team was winning while you were on the bench?

P: Yeah

I: And how did that feel to be on the bench?

P: It felt good because you weren't scared that you were going to be sent on coz although you wanna go on your thinking oh God if your losing oh God I have to go on and I'll be expected to do something. Whereas if you're winning if you go on it doesn't matter if what you do what happens and if they are winning there's a possibility you might not go on so it's kinda more relaxed, I'm thinking oh if I go on now it doesn't matter what I do I just wanna go on and play. So I think if you're losing you're like oh God don't send me on.

I: How does it feel specifically to be on the bench when you're team is losing?

P: It feels a bit weird coz the coach is normally going mental so you hear a lot of the bad comments em you kinds see the true colours of people coz everyone's quite tense. It's not nice to kinda go on when you're losing coz there is a lot put on you're shoulders 'Here she's gonna come on she's gonna help you win'.

I: What's the worst thing about not playing when they're winning?

P: Em it's just you're not part of it if they win everyone's a hero and you're just like if you don't get on it's like you don't feel like you can celebrate the same. You're just sitting there.

I: And how about if they're losing?

P: It's great you can't take the blame. It's because like if you're getting completely slaughtered and at the end of the game you go into the dressing room and the coach is completely tearing everyone apart

you can sit there smugly not afraid that he's gonna have a go at you coz you know 'I wasn't part of the team' you feel a bit more relaxed. Although obviously you don't wanna lose if you're on the bench you can't really take the blame. So its good in that way.

I: Is there any factor about a match that would make you not wanna play?

P: Em if its a really rough game like seeing probably the size of the team. Like I remember if you were on the bench and saw the other subs and saw the size of them and like when they go on you're like 'I don't wanna go on now'. Or if you see like whoever's marking someone in your position em so yeah if it's a rough game, or if it's cold! But yeah if someone gets injured it's not nice coz you have to go on and em everyone's a bit cagey. Like if it's a bad injury and you have to go on and fill that place, especially if it's a bad tackle.

I: And how does that affect you as a player?

P: Em It makes you kind of more I suppose nervous if it is a bad game and bad tackles are going in so a bit nervous really.

I: How do you feel if you're replacing if it is just that **** is playing badly she's not injured and you're replacing her how does that affect you?

P: Em It's kinds good I suppose coz you're thinking right she's not doing too well and I've got my chance now to prove you've got you're opportunity to do what you've been, what you're there to do so it gives you almost I suppose it's almost better than starting coz if you're coming on when someone is playing badly you can only really do better...hopefully.

I: And when you do get an opportunity to get on and play what is your main aim or objective?

P: Probably to impress the coach coz like everything you do you wanna do properly and as soon as you mess up your like 'whats he saying I suppose'. Coz obviously you hear what he's saying about Jane who he's just taken off and you know as soon as you mess up your thinking oh God he's probably over there slating me. So I mean in that sense you just want to do the simple things properly and not give him a reason to say you're not good enough. You wanna impress if you can score or something you're trying to like keep you're place you're trying to do somethin good.

I: And would you have the same attitude of wanting to impress the coach if you were starting?

P: Em yeah but it's kind of different because you're comfortable in the position knowing that this is my place, yeah obviously you wanna impress but you don't really have anything to lose you're not as aware of the fact that you could be taken off coz you're safe. Whereas if you're on the bench you're more aware 'I can go on'. So you're a little bit more secure.

I: So before you go on to play so you're being a substitute for someone are you given a specific role have you a clear role to fulfil?

P: Em, not always sometimes, it depends like you could be told you're going in to specifically mark that player 'I want you to just follow that player everywhere that's all I want you to do' So then you know that at least that's all you need to focus on. It might be just 'sit into that position and just make sure that you're doing your job properly. And it might be as a vague as that, and then you'll find that the players will tell you what to do and talk you through the game they'll say do this do that coz it's different I suppose, they might have been in the game for like fifty minutes. So they'll talk you through it which is a bit annoying sometimes.

I: And as far as I guess reducing you're anxiety going on as a substitute do you prefer to have a clearly defined role?

P: Em yeah coz at least then you know you've got to, you know it might be em 'I want you to mark that player' or whatever, at least then you know right if I do that properly that's all I need to do. It's not like suddenly going on and thinking God right what do I need to do am I marking that player am I marking that player does he want me to sit back or to push on a bit. And I suppose if it's more defined you've got more control over what you should be doing.

I: And it sounds like having a clearly defined role allows you to get into the game quicker?

P: Exactly yeah it does because like otherwise it takes you a while to get into the tempo because everything is happening so quickly.

I: How do other players respond to you when you come on?

P: Most of them are positive I play midfield so midfielders either side of me will talk to me and the captain will normally say right make sure you mark up tight etc. So most of them are positive. One or two have a go and they do shout like if you do mess up. I think they see it as 'she's a sub' and if you mess up their like 'oh God'. They kind of view you as not being as good.

I: How important is it for you to play well and make a significant contribution to the game?

P: Very important you always wanna play well but it's more important I suppose when you're a sub coz you wanna prove to them that you deserve your place firstly and that you can keep your place so once you get in there you don't wanna be taken out.

I: And who are the 'them' you refer to?

P: Players suppose other players, the coach most importantly and spectators.

I: It sounds like being a substitute is generally quite a time of being pretty anxious sitting on the bench. Are you generally anxious or nervous when it comes to playing?

P: Em, sometimes it depends on the importance of the game so most of the time I'm not I just wanna play well. If it's an important game then yeah you get a little bit nervous and every game when you're a sub is an important game when you come on as a sub. If I'm starting it doesn't really bother me

I: Going back to what you said why do you think there's greater importance when you are a sub?

P: Em because you have to really impress you have to make that significant, - you can start the game and not do anything great but you'll be fine because once you don't mess up you're fine and then you'll play the next game. Whereas if you come on as a sub and you don't do anything great or you really didn't do anything great - 'you did ok but we'll still let the other girl go back in next week and you're back on the bench. So if you come on from the bench you make that impact then they'll remember that and say well ok we'll start you next week.

I: And are there any other situations in life when you experience the same feelings or thoughts that you have when you play sport?

P: I suppose yeah exams interviews anywhere that you're expected to perform well.

I: And is it the same sort of anxiety, you mentioned that you're trying to impress someone do you think the same in other situations?

P: Em yeah I'm not generally a nervous kind of person but for a situation where you're expected to do well and you've always got that apprehension that you, you get more nervous or more butterflies of what the negative consequences might be.

I: How do you deal with stressful situations generally?

P: I em don't know just pretend that they're not there and try to convince yourself that you are confident then you probably will be.

I: So how would you describe yourself in terms of anxiety how would you describe yourself?

P: Wouldn't say I'm that anxious

APPENDIX 5: Information sheet for Study 2

Study title

A comparison of mood, self-presentation concerns and anxiety between substitute and starter players in football.

Invitation paragraph

You (your team) are being invited to take part in a research study. Before making a decision as to whether you would wish to take part in the study, please take a few minutes to read the following information. If you have any queries with regard to the information given, please do not hesitate to ask any questions. Thank you for reading this.

What is the purpose of this study

This study is one of a series of investigations aimed at developing a greater understanding of substitutes' experiences in football. The purpose of this study is to compare mood, self-presentation concerns and anxiety between substitute and starter players before the game commences.

Why have I been chosen?

You (your team) have been chosen to take part within this study because your experiences of football coaching could be a valuable source of information for sport psychologists to gain a greater understanding of this phenomenon.

Do I have to take part?

It is up to you as to whether you take part within this study. If you do decide to take part you will be asked to complete three anonymous questionnaires.

What will happen to me if I take part?

By taking part you are asked to complete three questionnaires (see attached) at least one hour prior to competition.

What are the effects of taking part?

There are no apparent negative effects of taking part in this study.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

By taking part within this study you may benefit from understanding differences or similarities between substitutes and starters players before competition. Based on this information preparation could be adapted in order to facilitate performance.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

Yes. However, you are not required to provide your name or the name of your team thus your responses to questions in the questionnaires are anonymous. You are asked to provide your date of birth and mother's maiden name. This information will be used to provide you with feedback should you request it. All personal information (gender, date of birth and mother's maiden name) that is collected about you during the course of research will be kept strictly confidential. Your details will remain anonymous to any of the interview transcript used within this study.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

Results from the study will be analysed reproduced in a PhD thesis and may be published in an appropriate academic journal. Findings may also be presented at a conference. You will not be identified at any stage of publication or presentation.

Who is organising the study?

The study will be organised by senior supervisors and myself. All of the data will be collected and processed by myself.

Contact for further information

Thank you for your time, and if you would wish to contact me at any time with regards to the research study then please don't hesitate to reach me on 020 8240 2338 or at woods@smuc.ac.uk

APPENDIX 6: Example of Inductive Analysis Raw Data & Raw Data Themes for Interview A

Pre-Match

Demographic: Ryman Premier Division

Confident in ability: I reckon I am one of the better players

Demographic, Time since was sub: Three months ago

Informed by the manager: The manager

Reduced control: No control over managers' decision

Reduced perception of control over stressor: it is not up to me at all if I'm in the starting line-up.

Reduced importance of training: I don't think training matters at all

Dropped because was suspended: because I had been suspended there was no way I was getting back into the team because they had done quite well as well.

No influence over decision: Do you think you could have influenced his decision? No not really no.

Devastated and angry at being sub: I was gutted really I just hate it I don't like watching football at all.

Feeling out of control: I was quite annoyed as well and just thinking that I can't really do anything.

Prefer to be left out completely: I'd rather just not be involved than be sub.

Confident in ability to be a starter: Do you think that you should have started based on your playing ability? Yeah definitely I do without a doubt

Found out was sub on match day: I found out at about 2 o'clock on the match day.

One hour notice: Yeah about an hour you find out if you are going to be in the squad or not.

Annoyed at having such short notice: It is annoying if you come expecting to play and then you are sub no one wants to sit on the bench for a game

Not finding out until match-day means players still prepare: Because you always prepare even if you don't know you will be playing.

Reduced internal motivation to warm up: you know haven't got to be ready so you sort of, well I don't really take much notice during the warm up. I've got the hump so I just usually don't really take much notice and that.

Uncertain why was named sub: No not before the game he didn't but after the game he did.

Annoyed at being named sub: I was annoyed anyway at being sub.

Confused at being named sub: but the fact that I didn't really have a reason was just like, you just don't know what to think.

Dropped based on ability: I had been suspended for three games and when I came back the team had done quite well so I sort of realised I wasn't going to be back in it.

Doesn't feel was dropped based on ability: So it wasn't to do you with your ability? No

Confident in ability: Do you feel then if you were given the opportunity to play could you have fulfilled all his demands and expectations? Yeah definitely yeah.

Not addressed in team talk: No. In the team talk we don't...like he tells us the team and who the subs are and that, we get changed and do our warm up.

Left out completely: The eleven that are starting come back in and he talks to them while we are still out warming up and whatever. So we don't actually go.

Feels part of the team: I do feel part of the team because of training and that.

No indication that might play: Did he give you any indication that you might play? No none.

Warmed up with the team: I always do it with the team actually. Subs are allowed to so what they like but I always do it with the team anyway.

Very few spectators: No not many we don't get many anyway

Warmed up the goalkeeper: Yeah like warm up the goalkeeper and that which I wouldn't normally do if I was starting and that's about it yeah.

Unfocused: when I'm sub I just switch off.

Demotivated: ...and I think I can't be bothered with this. I hate it.

Pre-Performance

Hates sitting and watching: I just hate, I can't watch football I just hate it.

Not focused or prepared when going on: It's probably because before the game I haven't really - I thought I can't be bothered so when he says you're going on I'm not really ready so.

Frustrated: If I start watching then I get frustrated

Feels can play better than players that replaced him: and think I can do better than that.

Watching person in own position: I was looking at the person in my position

Believes can perform better: I think I can do better than that.

Compares self: You just compare and think is he better at that than me or am I better?

Coach shouting: Coach is usually shouting or whatever and subs just all sit there....he is just telling them what to do or what if he doesn't think they are doing enough he shouts at them and has a go at them and tells them to work harder.

Views hearing coach shouting as positive: Yeah I suppose it is quite good to hear because then I'll know what he'll be saying if I do something wrong.

Doesn't view self as making a significant contribution to team: I didn't really think it would make much difference if I was playing.

Team performance viewed as unimportant when sub: In general well I've got the real hump if I'm not playing to be honest I don't care.

Bored: I'm just sitting there bored

Warms up on own: I just go and warm up on my own

Reduced motivation during warm up: Its not really a proper warm up I just stand down the other end of the pitch watching the game and look like I'm stretching.

Not Focused: My head is just totally gone I just don't I just can't be bothered.

Not expecting to play: If I am sub I am going to be the last sub he's going to use

Didn't expect to play well: I don't play very well when I come on. So I wasn't really expecting to do really well and I didn't really.

High self-perception: You think that they are not playing well because I'm not playing.

Unconcerned about team performance: you don't really mind because you think that he has made a mistake for leaving you out and it is like proving your point by them losing.

Lack of control: I'm sitting there I don't feel like I can do anything really.

Frustrated: It's horrible I just hate watching. Because you know you sort of think in your head that you can make a difference if you come on but you are not getting the chance. It's just so frustrating and does wind me up.

Reduced time to warm up: Not long to be honest about two or three minutes.

Reduced motivation: I just thought to myself it doesn't really matter, there was only about ten minutes left.

Nervous: If he (coach) says to you right you are going on I suppose I do get a bit nervous when he says right you are going on

During Game

Difficulty settling into the game: I can't get into it either like if I come off the bench I just can't get into the game.

Difficulty settling into game: The game was just passing me by I wasn't really in speed with the game.

Difficulty settling into the game: I just couldn't get into the game.

Confident in ability: He (manager) knows what I can do and that so I just didn't feel like I had anything to prove.

Angry: I just get all angry.

Reduced control: I did really want to win but in the back of my head I knew it was too late by that stage and we weren't really going to like win.

Reduced Perceived ability: I was nowhere near as good as I would have been if I had started.

Eager to play: Nothing would make me think 'I don't want to go on there'. Nothing at all.

Increased confidence: If I'm replacing someone who has just been dropped and not injured it gives you a bit of confidence because obviously the coach thinks you can do a better job than him.

Concerned about evaluation: I just don't like people thinking I am a bad player...I don't want people thinking that about me so yeah it does matter to me yeah.

Reduced concern about performance: I worry less when I am sub really. I suppose it is because I am not going to have that long to make mistakes or do good. When I am playing ninety minutes or ten minutes I'm more likely to make more mistakes in ninety minutes than I will in ten minutes, so I just don't really worry about it.

Reduced expectancy to perform well: I think it is a lot harder to make an impression coming off the bench. I think it is easier to make a bad impression coming off the bench that it is to make a good one.

Relaxed: If I am sitting there I am not nervous at all.

Debilitative Anxiety: I think it must be a bad affect because I always play better if I start than if I come on as sub so I think it must be a bad affect.

APPENDIX 7: Self-Presentation in Sport Questionnaire (SPSQ: Wilson & Eklund, 1998) and
Modified CSAI-2 Questionnaire (Jones and Swain, 1992)

Please indicate how true the following statements are for you by
circling an appropriate number.

As a player/substitute, I worry that other people may perceive me as...		Never					Always
1.	appearing tired	1	2	3	4	5	
2.	appearing physically unattractive	1	2	3	4	5	
3.	appearing exhausted	1	2	3	4	5	
4.	appearing distressed	1	2	3	4	5	
5.	appearing athletically incompetent	1	2	3	4	5	
6.	appearing flabby	1	2	3	4	5	
7.	appearing fatigued	1	2	3	4	5	
8.	appearing to lack balance	1	2	3	4	5	
9.	appearing lethargic	1	2	3	4	5	
10.	appearing ugly or unpleasant in my kit	1	2	3	4	5	
11.	appearing untalented	1	2	3	4	5	
12.	appearing unathletic	1	2	3	4	5	
13.	appearing too small or too big for my kit	1	2	3	4	5	
14.	appearing unfocused	1	2	3	4	5	
15.	appearing physically untoned	1	2	3	4	5	
16.	appearing not energised	1	2	3	4	5	
17.	appearing to lose composure	1	2	3	4	5	
18.	appearing not to perform or execute a skill perfectly	1	2	3	4	5	
19.	appearing to lack energy	1	2	3	4	5	
20.	appearing not to perform to my potential	1	2	3	4	5	
21.	appearing to lack ability	1	2	3	4	5	
22.	appearing underactivated	1	2	3	4	5	
23.	appearing nervous under pressure	1	2	3	4	5	
24.	appearing out of shape	1	2	3	4	5	
25.	appearing not physically or mentally ready	1	2	3	4	5	
26.	appearing unqualified	1	2	3	4	5	
27.	appearing weary	1	2	3	4	5	
28.	appearing underskilled	1	2	3	4	5	
29.	appearing unenergised	1	2	3	4	5	
30.	appearing to choke under pressure	1	2	3	4	5	
31.	appearing not to live up to my expectations	1	2	3	4	5	
32.	appearing to lack necessary focus	1	2	3	4	5	
33.	appearing unable to handle pressure	1	2	3	4	5	

APPENDIX 7: The Modified Competitive State Anxiety Inventory–2 (CSAI–2: Jones & Swain, 1992)

Please indicate your *Anxiety Intensity* and the *Impact* this may have on your performance, by circling an appropriate number in BOTH panels

		PANEL 1				PANEL 2							
		Anxiety Intensity				The impact this intensity will have							
	Anxiety Statements	Not At All	A Little	Fairly so	Very much	Very Negative	Unimportant					Very Positive	
1	I am concerned about this competition	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
2	I feel nervous	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
3	I feel at ease	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
4	I have self-doubts	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
5	I feel jittery	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
6	I feel comfortable	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
7	I am concerned that I may not do as well in this competition as I should	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
8	My body feels tense	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
9	I feel self-confident	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
10	I am concerned about losing	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
11	I feel tense in my stomach	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
12	I feel secure	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
13	I am concerned about choking under pressure	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
14	My body feels relaxed	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
15	I am confident I can meet the challenge	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
16	I'm concerned about performing badly	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
17	My heart is racing	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
18	I'm confident about performing well	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
19	I'm concerned about reaching my goal	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
20	I feel my stomach sinking	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
21	I feel mentally relaxed	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
22	I am concerned that others will be disappointed with my performance	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
23	My hands are clammy	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
24	I am confident because I mentally picture myself reaching my goal	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
25	I'm concerned I won't be able to concentrate	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
26	My body feels tight	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	
27	I'm confident coming through under pressure	1	2	3	4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	

APPENDIX 8: The Brunel Mood Scale (BRUMS: Terry et al., 1999, 2003)

Please circle a number that best describes **HOW YOU FEEL RIGHT NOW.**

		Not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a lot	Extremely
1	Panicky	0	1	2	3	4
2	Lively	0	1	2	3	4
3	confused	0	1	2	3	4
4	Worn out	0	1	2	3	4
5	Depressed	0	1	2	3	4
6	Downhearted	0	1	2	3	4
7	Annoyed	0	1	2	3	4
8	Exhausted	0	1	2	3	4
9	Mixed up	0	1	2	3	4
10	Sleepy	0	1	2	3	4
11	Bitter	0	1	2	3	4
12	Unhappy	0	1	2	3	4
13	Anxious	0	1	2	3	4
14	Worried	0	1	2	3	4
15	Energetic	0	1	2	3	4
16	Miserable	0	1	2	3	4
17	Muddled	0	1	2	3	4
18	Nervous	0	1	2	3	4
19	Angry	0	1	2	3	4
20	Active	0	1	2	3	4
21	Tired	0	1	2	3	4
22	Bad Tempered	0	1	2	3	4
23	Alert	0	1	2	3	4
24	Uncertain	0	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX 9: Output file from correlation analysis testing for Multicollinearity between
BRUMS constructs

Correlations

		Tension	Depression	Anger	Vigour	Fatigue	Confusion
Tension	Pearson Correlation	1	-.136	-.130	.012	.295*	.388**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.309	.331	.930	.024	.003
	N	58	58	58	58	58	58
Depression	Pearson Correlation	-.136	1	.734**	-.330*	.011	.240
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.309		.000	.011	.936	.070
	N	58	58	58	58	58	58
Anger	Pearson Correlation	-.130	.734**	1	-.047	.042	.475**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.331	.000		.724	.755	.000
	N	58	58	58	58	58	58
Vigour	Pearson Correlation	.012	-.330*	-.047	1	-.165	.134
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.930	.011	.724		.216	.317
	N	58	58	58	58	58	58
Fatigue	Pearson Correlation	.295*	.011	.042	-.165	1	.098
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.024	.936	.755	.216		.464
	N	58	58	58	58	58	58
Confusion	Pearson Correlation	.388**	.240	.475**	.134	.098	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.070	.000	.317	.464	
	N	58	58	58	58	58	58

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 10: Output files for MANOVA between constructs of BRUMS

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Box's M	56.276
F	2.371
df 1	21
df 2	11534.203
Sig.	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept+Status

Multivariate Tests^b

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.993	1142.148 ^a	6.000	51.000	.000	.993
	Wilks' Lambda	.007	1142.148 ^a	6.000	51.000	.000	.993
	Hotelling's Trace	134.370	1142.148 ^a	6.000	51.000	.000	.993
	Roy's Largest Root	134.370	1142.148 ^a	6.000	51.000	.000	.993
Status	Pillai's Trace	.343	4.445 ^a	6.000	51.000	.001	.343
	Wilks' Lambda	.657	4.445 ^a	6.000	51.000	.001	.343
	Hotelling's Trace	.523	4.445 ^a	6.000	51.000	.001	.343
	Roy's Largest Root	.523	4.445 ^a	6.000	51.000	.001	.343

a. Exact statistic

b. Design: Intercept+Status

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	F	df 1	df 2	Sig.
Tension	4.520	1	56	.038
Depression	23.729	1	56	.000
Anger	12.232	1	56	.001
Vigour	.352	1	56	.556
Frustration	.004	1	56	.951
Confusion	2.518	1	56	.118

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept+Status

APPENDIX 10 continued...

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Tension	662.345 ^a	1	662.345	4.086	.048	.068
	Depression	1219.931 ^b	1	1219.931	21.005	.000	.273
	Anger	857.397 ^c	1	857.397	11.886	.001	.175
	Vigour	145.931 ^d	1	145.931	1.585	.213	.028
	Frustration	77.397 ^e	1	77.397	.516	.475	.009
	Confusion	34.914 ^f	1	34.914	.207	.651	.004
Intercept	Tension	164835.586	1	164835.586	1016.823	.000	.948
	Depression	120347.655	1	120347.655	2072.144	.000	.974
	Anger	122820.017	1	122820.017	1702.630	.000	.968
	Vigour	154552.345	1	154552.345	1678.703	.000	.968
	Frustration	150756.017	1	150756.017	1005.568	.000	.947
	Confusion	148926.224	1	148926.224	882.912	.000	.940
Status	Tension	662.345	1	662.345	4.086	.048	.068
	Depression	1219.931	1	1219.931	21.005	.000	.273
	Anger	857.397	1	857.397	11.886	.001	.175
	Vigour	145.931	1	145.931	1.585	.213	.028
	Frustration	77.397	1	77.397	.516	.475	.009
	Confusion	34.914	1	34.914	.207	.651	.004
Error	Tension	9078.069	56	162.108			
	Depression	3252.414	56	58.079			
	Anger	4039.586	56	72.135			
	Vigour	5155.724	56	92.067			
	Frustration	8395.586	56	149.921			
	Confusion	9445.862	56	168.676			
Total	Tension	174576.000	58				
	Depression	124820.000	58				
	Anger	127717.000	58				
	Vigour	159854.000	58				
	Frustration	159229.000	58				
	Confusion	158407.000	58				
Corrected Total	Tension	9740.414	57				
	Depression	4472.345	57				
	Anger	4896.983	57				
	Vigour	5301.655	57				
	Frustration	8472.983	57				
	Confusion	9480.776	57				

a. R Squared = .068 (Adjusted R Squared = .051)

b. R Squared = .273 (Adjusted R Squared = .260)

c. R Squared = .175 (Adjusted R Squared = .160)

d. R Squared = .028 (Adjusted R Squared = .010)

e. R Squared = .009 (Adjusted R Squared = -.009)

f. R Squared = .004 (Adjusted R Squared = -.014)

APPENDIX 11: Discriminant Function Analysis for BRUMS data

Tests of Equality of Group Means

	Wilks' Lambda	F	df 1	df 2	Sig.
Tension	.932	4.086	1	56	.048
Depression	.727	21.005	1	56	.000
Anger	.825	11.886	1	56	.001
Vigour	.972	1.585	1	56	.213
Frustration	.991	.516	1	56	.475
Confusion	.996	.207	1	56	.651

Eigenvalues

Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	.523 ^a	100.0	100.0	.586

a. First 1 canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.

Standardized Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients:

	Function
	1
Tension	-.135
Depression	.721
Anger	.436
Vigour	-.004
Frustration	-.141
Confusion	-.489

Structure Matrix

	Function
	1
Depression	.847
Anger	.637
Tension	-.374
Vigour	-.233
Frustration	-.133
Confusion	-.084

Pooled within-groups correlations between discriminating variables and standardized canonical discriminant functions
Variables ordered by absolute size of correlation within function.

APPENDIX 11 continued

Functions at Group Centroids

	Function
Status	1
Sub	.711
Starter	-.711

Unstandardized canonical discriminant functions evaluated at group means

Classification Processing Summary

Processed		58
Excluded	Missing or out-of-range group codes	0
	At least one missing discriminating variable	0
Used in Output		58

Prior Probabilities for Groups

Status	Prior	Cases Used in Analysis	
		Unweighted	Weighted
Sub	.500	29	29.000
Starter	.500	29	29.000
Total	1.000	58	58.000

Classification Results^a

		Status	Predicted Group Membership		Total
			Sub	Starter	
Original	Count	Sub	19	10	29
		Starter	3	26	29
	%	Sub	65.5	34.5	100.0
		Starter	10.3	89.7	100.0

a. 77.6% of original grouped cases correctly classified.

APPENDIX 12: Output file from correlation analysis testing for Multicollinearity between
SPSQ constructs

Correlations

		Perf_inad	Fatigue	Appearance	Untalented
Perf_inad	Pearson Correlation	1	.721**	.574**	.648**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	74	74	74	74
Fatigue	Pearson Correlation	.721**	1	.644**	.475**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	74	74	74	74
Appearance	Pearson Correlation	.574**	.644**	1	.532**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	74	74	74	74
Untalented	Pearson Correlation	.648**	.475**	.532**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	74	74	74	74

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 13: Output files for MANOVA between constructs of SPSQ

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices^a

Box's M	11.344
F	1.066
df 1	10
df 2	24784.064
Sig.	.385

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept+Status

Multivariate Tests^b

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.916	188.681 ^a	4.000	69.000	.000	.916
	Wilks' Lambda	.084	188.681 ^a	4.000	69.000	.000	.916
	Hotelling's Trace	10.938	188.681 ^a	4.000	69.000	.000	.916
	Roy's Largest Root	10.938	188.681 ^a	4.000	69.000	.000	.916
Status	Pillai's Trace	.218	4.820 ^a	4.000	69.000	.002	.218
	Wilks' Lambda	.782	4.820 ^a	4.000	69.000	.002	.218
	Hotelling's Trace	.279	4.820 ^a	4.000	69.000	.002	.218
	Roy's Largest Root	.279	4.820 ^a	4.000	69.000	.002	.218

a. Exact statistic

b. Design: Intercept+Status

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^a

	F	df 1	df 2	Sig.
Perf_inad	.050	1	72	.823
Fatigue	1.193	1	72	.278
Appearance	.105	1	72	.747
Untalented	4.260	1	72	.043

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept+Status

APPENDIX 13 continued...

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Perf_inad	217.959 ^a	1	217.959	3.861	.053	.051
	Fatigue	60.662 ^b	1	60.662	1.664	.201	.023
	Appearance	104.649 ^c	1	104.649	5.197	.026	.067
	Untalented	21.622 ^d	1	21.622	.516	.475	.007
Intercept	Perf_inad	38459.041	1	38459.041	681.361	.000	.904
	Fatigue	23013.851	1	23013.851	631.361	.000	.898
	Appearance	8137.514	1	8137.514	404.115	.000	.849
	Untalented	18246.541	1	18246.541	435.329	.000	.858
Status	Perf_inad	217.959	1	217.959	3.861	.053	.051
	Fatigue	60.662	1	60.662	1.664	.201	.023
	Appearance	104.649	1	104.649	5.197	.026	.067
	Untalented	21.622	1	21.622	.516	.475	.007
Error	Perf_inad	4064.000	72	56.444			
	Fatigue	2624.486	72	36.451			
	Appearance	1449.838	72	20.137			
	Untalented	3017.838	72	41.914			
Total	Perf_inad	42741.000	74				
	Fatigue	25699.000	74				
	Appearance	9692.000	74				
	Untalented	21286.000	74				
Corrected Total	Perf_inad	4281.959	73				
	Fatigue	2685.149	73				
	Appearance	1554.486	73				
	Untalented	3039.459	73				

- a. R Squared = .051 (Adjusted R Squared = .038)
- b. R Squared = .023 (Adjusted R Squared = .009)
- c. R Squared = .067 (Adjusted R Squared = .054)
- d. R Squared = .007 (Adjusted R Squared = -.007)

APPENDIX 14: Discriminant Function Analysis for SPSQ data

Analysis Case Processing Summary

Unweighted Cases		N	Percent
Valid		74	100.0
Excluded	Missing or out-of-range group codes	0	.0
	At least one missing discriminating variable	0	.0
	Both missing or out-of-range group codes and at least one missing discriminating variable	0	.0
	Total	0	.0
Total		74	100.0

Group Statistics

Status		Mean	Std. Deviation	Valid N (listwise)	
				Unweighted	Weighted
Sub	Perf_inad	21.0811	7.58426	37	37.000
	Fatigue	16.7297	6.47495	37	37.000
	Appearance	9.2973	4.49608	37	37.000
	Untalented	16.2432	7.34622	37	37.000
Starter	Perf_inad	24.5135	7.44096	37	37.000
	Fatigue	18.5405	5.56574	37	37.000
	Appearance	11.6757	4.47868	37	37.000
	Untalented	15.1622	5.46460	37	37.000
Total	Perf_inad	22.7973	7.65878	74	74.000
	Fatigue	17.6351	6.06489	74	74.000
	Appearance	10.4865	4.61458	74	74.000
	Untalented	15.7027	6.45263	74	74.000

Tests of Equality of Group Means

	Wilks' Lambda	F	df 1	df 2	Sig.
Perf_inad	.949	3.861	1	72	.053
Fatigue	.977	1.664	1	72	.201
Appearance	.933	5.197	1	72	.026
Untalented	.993	.516	1	72	.475

Eigenvalues

Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	.279 ^a	100.0	100.0	.467

a. First 1 canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.

APPENDIX 14 continued...

Wilks' Lambda

Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	.782	17.248	4	.002

Standardized Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficient:

	Function
	1
Perf_inad	1.121
Fatigue	-.482
Appearance	.894
Untalented	-1.206

Structure Matrix

	Function
	1
Appearance	.508
Perf_inad	.438
Fatigue	.288
Untalented	-.160

Pooled within-groups correlations between discriminating variables and standardized canonical discriminant functions. Variables ordered by absolute size of correlation within function.

Functions at Group Centroids

Status	Function
	1
Sub	-.521
Starter	.521

Unstandardized canonical discriminant functions evaluated at group means

Classification Processing Summary

Processed		74
Excluded	Missing or out-of-range group codes	0
	At least one missing discriminating variable	0
Used in Output		74

Prior Probabilities for Groups

Status	Prior	Cases Used in Analysis	
		Unweighted	Weighted
Sub	.500	37	37.000
Starter	.500	37	37.000
Total	1.000	74	74.000

Appendix 14 continued...

Classification Results

		Status	Predicted Group Membership		Total
			Sub	Starter	
Original	Count	Sub	29	8	37
		Starter	11	26	37
	%	Sub	78.4	21.6	100.0
		Starter	29.7	70.3	100.0

a. 74.3% of original grouped cases correctly classified.

APPENDIX 15: Output file from correlation analysis testing for Multicollinearity between CSAI-2 constructs for intensity

Correlations

		Cog_I	Som_I	SC_I
Cog_I	Pearson Correlation	1	.480**	-.560**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	60	60	60
Som_I	Pearson Correlation	.480**	1	-.489**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	60	60	60
SC_I	Pearson Correlation	-.560**	-.489**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	60	60	60

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 16: Output file from correlation analysis testing for Multicollinearity between
CSAI-2 constructs for interpretation

Correlations

		Cog_Int	Som_Int	SC_Int
Cog_Int	Pearson Correlation	1	.768 **	.536 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	60	60	60
Som_Int	Pearson Correlation	.768 **	1	.429 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.001
	N	60	60	60
SC_Int	Pearson Correlation	.536 **	.429 **	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	
	N	60	60	60

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 17: Output files for MANOVA between intensity constructs of CSAI-2

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices^a

Box's M	5.548
F	.873
df1	6
df2	24373.132
Sig.	.514

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept+Status

Multivariate Tests^b

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.991	2107.142 ^a	3.000	56.000	.000	.991
	Wilks' Lambda	.009	2107.142 ^a	3.000	56.000	.000	.991
	Hotelling's Trace	112.883	2107.142 ^a	3.000	56.000	.000	.991
	Roy's Largest Root	112.883	2107.142 ^a	3.000	56.000	.000	.991
Status	Pillai's Trace	.049	.971 ^a	3.000	56.000	.413	.049
	Wilks' Lambda	.951	.971 ^a	3.000	56.000	.413	.049
	Hotelling's Trace	.052	.971 ^a	3.000	56.000	.413	.049
	Roy's Largest Root	.052	.971 ^a	3.000	56.000	.413	.049

a. Exact statistic

b. Design: Intercept+Status

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^a

	F	df 1	df 2	Sig.
Cog_I	1.352	1	58	.250
Som_I	1.205	1	58	.277
SC_I	3.851	1	58	.055

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept+Status

APPENDIX 17 continued...

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Cog_I	.600 ^a	1	.600	.023	.880	.000
	Som_I	40.017 ^b	1	40.017	1.931	.170	.032
	SC_I	11.267 ^c	1	11.267	.405	.527	.007
Intercept	Cog_I	28952.067	1	28952.067	1116.998	.000	.951
	Som_I	17578.817	1	17578.817	848.111	.000	.936
	SC_I	33796.267	1	33796.267	1215.643	.000	.954
Status	Cog_I	.600	1	.600	.023	.880	.000
	Som_I	40.017	1	40.017	1.931	.170	.032
	SC_I	11.267	1	11.267	.405	.527	.007
Error	Cog_I	1503.333	58	25.920			
	Som_I	1202.167	58	20.727			
	SC_I	1612.467	58	27.801			
Total	Cog_I	30456.000	60				
	Som_I	18821.000	60				
	SC_I	35420.000	60				
Corrected Total	Cog_I	1503.933	59				
	Som_I	1242.183	59				
	SC_I	1623.733	59				

a. R Squared = .000 (Adjusted R Squared = -.017)

b. R Squared = .032 (Adjusted R Squared = .016)

c. R Squared = .007 (Adjusted R Squared = -.010)

APPENDIX 18: Output files for MANOVA between interpretation constructs of CSAI-2

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices^a

Box's M	16.442
F	2.586
df 1	6
df 2	24373.132
Sig.	.017

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept+Status

Multivariate Tests^b

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.556	23.404 ^a	3.000	56.000	.000	.556
	Wilks' Lambda	.444	23.404 ^a	3.000	56.000	.000	.556
	Hotelling's Trace	1.254	23.404 ^a	3.000	56.000	.000	.556
	Roy's Largest Root	1.254	23.404 ^a	3.000	56.000	.000	.556
Status	Pillai's Trace	.189	4.343 ^a	3.000	56.000	.008	.189
	Wilks' Lambda	.811	4.343 ^a	3.000	56.000	.008	.189
	Hotelling's Trace	.233	4.343 ^a	3.000	56.000	.008	.189
	Roy's Largest Root	.233	4.343 ^a	3.000	56.000	.008	.189

a. Exact statistic

b. Design: Intercept+Status

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^a

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Cog_Int	1.687	1	58	.199
Som_Int	3.241	1	58	.077
SC_Int	8.172	1	58	.006

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept+Status

Appendix 18 continued...

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Cog_Int	.000 ^a	1	.000	.000	1.000	.000
	Som_Int	3.750 ^b	1	3.750	.069	.793	.001
	SC_Int	653.400 ^c	1	653.400	8.763	.004	.131
Intercept	Cog_Int	.000	1	.000	.000	1.000	.000
	Som_Int	104.017	1	104.017	1.927	.170	.032
	SC_Int	3496.067	1	3496.067	46.889	.000	.447
Status	Cog_Int	.000	1	.000	.000	1.000	.000
	Som_Int	3.750	1	3.750	.069	.793	.001
	SC_Int	653.400	1	653.400	8.763	.004	.131
Error	Cog_Int	4840.000	58	83.448			
	Som_Int	3131.233	58	53.987			
	SC_Int	4324.533	58	74.561			
Total	Cog_Int	4840.000	60				
	Som_Int	3239.000	60				
	SC_Int	8474.000	60				
Corrected Total	Cog_Int	4840.000	59				
	Som_Int	3134.983	59				
	SC_Int	4977.933	59				

a. R Squared = .000 (Adjusted R Squared = -.017)

b. R Squared = .001 (Adjusted R Squared = -.016)

c. R Squared = .131 (Adjusted R Squared = .116)

APPENDIX 19: Discriminant Function Analysis for CSAI-2 constructs measuring anxiety
interpretation

Analysis Case Processing Summary

Unweighted Cases		N	Percent
Valid		60	100.0
Excluded	Missing or out-of-range group codes	0	.0
	At least one missing discriminating variable	0	.0
	Both missing or out-of-range group codes and at least one missing discriminating variable	0	.0
	Total	0	.0
Total		60	100.0

Group Statistics

Status		Mean	Std. Deviation	Valid N (listwise)	
				Unweighted	Weighted
Sub	Cog_Int	.0000	10.04816	30	30.000
	Som_Int	1.0667	8.65003	30	30.000
	SC_Int	10.9333	10.52397	30	30.000
Starter	Cog_Int	.0000	8.11979	30	30.000
	Som_Int	1.5667	5.75765	30	30.000
	SC_Int	4.3333	6.19418	30	30.000
Total	Cog_Int	.0000	9.05726	60	60.000
	Som_Int	1.3167	7.28940	60	60.000
	SC_Int	7.6333	9.18541	60	60.000

Tests of Equality of Group Means

	Wilks' Lambda	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Cog_Int	1.000	.000	1	58	1.000
Som_Int	.999	.069	1	58	.793
SC_Int	.869	8.763	1	58	.004

APPENDIX 19 continued...

Eigenvalues

Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	.233 ^a	100.0	100.0	.434

a. First 1 canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.

Wilks' Lambda

Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	.811	11.817	3	.008

Standardized Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficient

	Function
	1
Cog_Int	-.490
Som_Int	-.273
SC_Int	1.217

Structure Matrix

	Function
	1
SC_Int	.806
Som_Int	-.072
Cog_Int	.000

Pooled within-groups correlations between discriminating variables and standardized canonical discriminant functions
Variables ordered by absolute size of correlation within function.

Classification Processing Summary

Processed		60
Excluded	Missing or out-of-range group codes	0
	At least one missing discriminating variable	0
Used in Output		60

Appendix 19 continued ...

Prior Probabilities for Groups

Status	Prior	Cases Used in Analysis	
		Unweighted	Weighted
Sub	.500	30	30.000
Starter	.500	30	30.000
Total	1.000	60	60.000

Functions at Group Centroids

Status	Function
Sub	.474
Starter	-.474

Unstandardized canonical discriminant functions evaluated at group means

Classification Results^a

Original	Count	Status	Predicted Group Membership		Total
			Sub	Starter	
		Sub	20	10	30
		Starter	6	24	30
	%	Sub	66.7	33.3	100.0
		Starter	20.0	80.0	100.0

a. 73.3% of original grouped cases correctly classified.

APPENDIX 20: Information sheet for Study 3

Study title

Team Selection: Understanding experiences and perceptions of the coach-substitute relationship.

Invitation paragraph

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before making a decision as to whether you would wish to take part in the study, please take a few minutes to read the following information. If you have any queries with regard to the information given, please do not hesitate to ask any questions. Thank you for reading this.

What is the purpose of this study

The purpose of this study is to understand the decision-making processes of coaches with regards to choosing a successful team. Your involvement within this study will allow sport psychologists to understand what factors coaches' consider when making these decisions, and how coaches interact with substitute players in order to achieve satisfaction all round.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen to take part within this study because your experiences of football coaching could be a valuable source of information for sport psychologists to gain a greater understanding of this phenomenon.

Do I have to take part?

It is up to you as to whether you take part within this study. If you do decide to take part you will be asked to sign a consent form allowing information to be recorded and used in academic fields.

What will happen to me if I take part?

You will be asked to undertake an interview with the researcher on the subject of team selection for approximately half an hour. If you wish to look at the transcribed interview after which then you may have full access to it.

What are the effects of taking part?

There are no apparent negative effects of taking part in this study.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

From taking part within this study you may benefit from the increased understanding of how coaches can improve their decision-making processes as well as their relationships with their players in order to enhance overall satisfaction and team performance.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

All personal information (name, age, gender etc...) that is collected about you during the course of research will be kept strictly confidential. Your details will remain anonymous to any of the interview transcript used within this study.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

Results from the study will be analysed reproduced in a PhD thesis and may be published in an appropriate academic journal. Findings may also be presented at a conference. You will not be identified at any stage of publication or presentation. Players that you may talk about during the interview will not be named nor will they have access to information that you disclose to me.

Who is organising the study?

The study will be organised by senior supervisors and myself. All of the data will be collected and processed by myself.

Contact for further information

Thank you for your time, and if you would wish to contact me at any time with regards to the research study then please don't hesitate to reach me on 020 8240 2338 or at woods@smuc.ac.uk

APPENDIX 21: Informed consent for Study 3

Title of Project: **Team Selection: Understanding coaches' experiences and perceptions of the coach-substitute relationship.**

Name of Researcher: Bernadette Woods

Please initial box

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason.

I agree to take part in the study.

Your Name

Date

Signature

Researcher

Date

Signature

1 copy to be kept by subject; 1 copy to be kept by researcher

APPENDIX 22: Interview questions for Study 3

Coach Questions

Age?

Years Coaching Experience/Qualifications?

How long have you worked in at this club?

Are you solely responsible for team selection? Are there other people involved?

In general, How do you judge or form impressions of a player's ability when you first see them?

Is this judgment or impression likely to change over time?

How do you evaluate a player's worth with regards to whether they start or not?

Ability?

Form?

Can a player influence your decision to start them?

How?

When? (Training/Games)

When do you tell a player that they won't be starting the game?

How much notice?

Do you always give a reason/reasons why they are not starting?

Do you always give an honest answer? Why/why not?

On matchday how much involvement do substitutes have?

Team talk

Half Time

When the game begins what are subs doing?

Do you interact with subs when they are on the bench?

How do they prepare for the game?

How much notice do they get before going on to play? Not injury induced

How much information do they receive?

What are your expectations for substitute players?

Realistically how much of an impact do you expect them to make on a game?

Do you have different expectations for subs and starters?

With regards to the 3 or 4 players I will interview can you answer the following questions with these players in mind.

Complementarity

When you coach these players...

Do you feel interested?

Do you feel ready to do your best with them?

Do you feel understood?

Commitment

Do you think you communicate well?

Do you think you and subs work well in order to achieve goals?

Do you appreciate the sacrifices they experience in order to improve their performance? If any?

Co-orientation

Do you agree with their views? (whether they are different or the same?)

Do you know their strong points and weak points?

Closeness

Do you like these players more or less than others?

Do you trust these players more or less than others?

Do you feel close to these players?

Do you feel that your coaching career with these players is promising?

Player Questions

Age?

Position?

How long have you played for this club?

How long have you worked with this coach?

Can you tell me a little bit about your form this season, how often you have been a sub?

How do you think your coach evaluates a player's worth with regards to whether they start or not?

Ability?

Form?

Can you influence their decision to start you?

How?

When? (Training/Games)

When are you told you won't be starting the game?

How much notice?

Do you always get a reason/reasons why you are not starting?

Do you think you always get an honest answer? Why/why not?

On matchday how much involvement do you have as a substitute?

Team talk

Half Time

When the game begins what are you doing as a sub?

Do you interact with the manager/coach when you are on the bench?

How do you prepare for the game?

How much notice do you get before going on to play? Not injury induced

How much information do you receive?

What are you coach's expectations for substitute players?

Realistically how much of an impact do they expect subs to make on a game?

Do they have different expectations for subs and starters?

Complementarity

When you are coached...

Do you feel interested?

Do you feel ready to do your best for your manager?

Do you feel understood by your manager?

Commitment

Do you think you communicate well?

Do you think you work well with your manager in order to achieve goals?

Do you appreciate the sacrifices they experience in order to improve your performance? If any?

Co-orientation

Do you agree with their views? (whether they are different or the same?)

Do you know their strong points and weak points?

Do you think they know your strong and weak points?

Closeness

Do you like your manager?

Do you trust him/her?

Do you feel close to them?

Do you feel that your playing career with this manger is promising?

APPENDIX 23: Bracketing Interview for Study 3

Interviewer: Can you firstly outline the purpose and background of your study.

Researcher: This study is investigating coaches' perceptions of substitutes and their involvement with team selection based on interviews carried out in the last study. So trying to find out the reasons behind the decision-making processes that coaches go through because it seems that substitutes experience lots of different emotions in relation to team selection and don't seem to always get an explanation as to why they are sub. So I want to speak to coaches to try to find out their reasons for doing certain things, and do they understand the implications for the actions.

I: The aim of this interview here is to go through the questions you wish to ask coaches' in order to identify any biases that you may have, correct?

R: Yes

I: Leading me to the first question you will ask a coach...

Can you state how many years coaching experience you have and at what level?

R: In my previous study I asked players how old they are and what level they play at in order to get some understanding of their ability. So similarly here I want to get an impression of how long coaches have been coaching, in order to acknowledge the range of experience.

I: What are your coaching objectives or goals for this team?

R: I want to know this because substitutes reported that they had different objectives when they were substitutes in comparison to starting. So I think it is important that in any team that the coaches and athletes are working towards the same goals. So if it is the case here that coaches have very specific outcome goals for a game that players regardless of whether they are a substitute or starter that they have the same objectives. What seems to be the case is that substitutes change their goals from outcome to more task or performance orientated because they want to improve their performance and are not particularly concerned about winning. I think the way coaches interact with athletes differs depending on whether they are task or performance orientated. So if they are more win win win, they may spend less time with substitutes trying to help them to develop and improve. Whereas if they were task orientated and are concerned with development then maybe they will spend more time explaining and dealing with substitutes. I think for substitutes task orientation would be better. I understand that for their role as a coach as it is their job, that they must be outcome orientated because they have to seem to want to win. But I am interested in coaches' responses as I want to see if they can acknowledge their role in development.

I: How would you say your time is divided between actual technical coaching and individual player management?

R: I am asking this question because I assume that they will say in response to the previous question, that they want to win but they want to help develop players at the same time. Based on literature which says that coaches tend to spend more time tending to technical aspects of the game, than to how players feel and the psychological factors that affect their performance. So here I am double-checking their responses to the previous question. So if they say that they are more task then they should be able to say what it is that they do to actually help players develop.

I: What would you expect their answers to be?

R: I think that they will probably say that they spend more time on technical aspects.

I: How do you promote team cohesion and avoid division amongst players?

R: Again following up on the previous question, I want to see if they are actively thinking about how to incorporate substitutes into the whole team, therefore working as a team as a whole rather than assuming the team is a cohesive group. I want to see if they feel there might be divisions based on what they do and how they interact with the team.

I: What challenges do you feel you face in order to choose a successful team?

R: I am interested to find out if there are external pressures placed on them to choose a certain teams or players, for example the chairperson of the club, fans and supporters or even financial reasons. I just want to understand the processes and influences that they experience when selecting a team.

I: What process do you go through to select a team?

R: I want to find out how they actually make their decisions? Is it based on memory, is it a structured process that they go through or is it that they don't really give it much thought therefore have a set team who they believe are the 'good' players who must always play. So I want to know if they simply assume and have an expectancy of how the team usually plays and goes from there. Or, do they have a structure such as the evaluation of performance over time in relation to training and competition. So if they say that selection is made based on the previous performance I want to ask them if that evaluation is recorded or based on anything objective rather than their objective opinion that the player did or didn't play well.

I: How do you evaluate a players worth?

R: So this really follows on from before. What I really want to know is whether or not they mention any psychological factors. Most of the time (according to literature) players are evaluated on a personal level which is really ability and age, a performance level (past performances) and very rarely do coaches consider psychological factors such as confidence or mood and how they might affect performance. So I want to assess this really.

I: How can players influence your decisions on team selection with regards to starting?

R: This is based on responses that substitutes gave (Study1) when they said that they didn't think there was anything that they could do to influence the managers/coaches' decision once it was made. I want to see if that really the case and what coaches think or is it an assumption that substitutes make.

I: Why might you feel that a player needs to be dropped?

R: This question is concerned with the reasons that they might give for dropping a player. Is it based on performance or that they behaved poorly? I wanted to know their justification for dropping a player that is good enough to start, but is not selected.

I: When is team selection done?

R: I am asking this question because I want to find out how close to the game they make their decisions and if they do it quite early, I want to know when they inform the substitute. That is, if the coaches make their decisions early say 4 days before the game why don't they tell the substitutes 4 days before the game.

I: Do you always give clear reasons to the player?

R: This question is based on the responses from substitutes who felt that they never received an explanation as to why they were substitute or they felt that the explanation was a lie. I just want to find out whether coaches give their honest opinion and honest reasons why the player is not playing.

I: How does it feel to tell a player they are not playing?

R: I want to find out how they feel and how the coaches' feelings might influence how (or if at all) they tell players that they are substitute. I imagine they may find it uncomfortable or embarrassed and I am interested whether these factors may be the reasons coaches fail to communicate effectively.

I: What are the most frequent questions that players ask when you tell them that they are not starting? And How do you answer these questions?

R: I want coaches to acknowledge the questions substitutes ask and state how they respond or answer those questions. I think that the most popular question that a player would ask is, 'why am I a substitute?' If this is the case I am interested in why coaches think that players need to ask this question... is it because they may not get sufficient explanation?

I: Are players usually satisfied with their explanation?

R: Here I am double checking what was said by substitutes in the first study, where practically all substitutes reported that they were not satisfied with being a substitute and the explanation they received. So I want to see if coaches are aware of the feelings and emotions associated with the dissatisfaction that substitutes reported experiencing.

I: How do you deal with players who are confident in their ability and believe that you have made the wrong decision in making them a substitute?

R: All of the subs in the previous study were in complete disagreement with their coach's decision and felt that they are confident and believed in their ability to start. I am interested in finding out as whether the coach actually sees them as being confident and how they deal with this. Research says that coaches' perceptions of players ability is actually a truer reflection of how they will play or perform, than players' own perceptions which can be biased.

I: How do substitutes usually interact with you when they have been told they are not playing?

R: Again I am assessing their relationship. I want to see if coaches are aware of any changes in emotions or feelings substitutes might have based on the coaches' decisions.

I: Can a players opinion with regards to playing affect their decision?

R: I want to know if coaches are open to reasoning or discussion, where substitutes try to talk a coach into changing their mind. I am interested in coaches' opinions on whether or not it is possible for players to change their mind.

I: What are your expectations of substitutes coming into the game?

R: I want to know what coaches expect, what is the purpose of the substitute etc. Based on the previous study, substitutes reported that they were not clear on their role and expectations. Some feel under pressure to prove their ability and others don't. I am also interested in how the coach relays their expectations to the substitute, are these actually discussed.

I: How much do substitutes figure in your tactical plans for a game?

R: This is to do with the importance of the substitute role in the eyes of the coach. I am interested in coaches perceptions of substitutes, is it that they are tactically important for a game or are they used for other reasons.

I: What are you doing or thinking when the game is in progress?

R: Substitutes reported that they felt communication between themselves and coaches during the game was poor because they were concentrating on the game. I am interested in finding out how much interaction there is with between coaches and substitutes and at what point they become the focus of their plans. I expect coaches will say that they are focused on the game, so if they don't mention subs I will prompt them to talk about how they interact with subs during this time.

I: What qualities do you expect substitutes to display when sitting on the bench?

R: This question is based on reported uncertainty on the behalf of subs when sitting on the bench. They generally sit their demotivated, disinterested and distracted simply watching the game and getting worked up about the game (generally how bad someone else is playing). I am interested in what qualities coaches expect substitutes to display because it seems that coaches might expect something, however their expectations are not relayed to the substitutes.

I: Is there a set routine or structure to the substitutes warm up?

R: Substitutes reported that they did not have a very structured warm up when on the bench in comparison to how they warm up before the game. I am interested in whether coaches think that they should be more structured. Because if they do, it may be that there is a discrepancy between what coaches expect and what substitutes actually do during their warm up, since this is not monitored as coaches are concentrating on the game, not the substitute.

I: How much notice do you give substitutes that they are going on to play?

R: All subs reported that they only got a couple of minutes so I just want to follow this up.

I: Do you communicate with them before they go out and play?

R: Subs felt that they got little vague general instruction so I want to see what coaches feel about this. Do they give a couple of minutes preparation time (which is probably insufficient) and do they think this is sufficient.

I: How do you feel when you put a substitute into the game? How much do they focus on the substitute when they are performing?

R: I want to see how they feel about the player who has gone on to play. Substitutes in some cases reported that they felt as though they were being watched a little more so felt under more pressure to play well. Some however felt that they were not expected to play well because they are a substitute and there is not a lot that they can do if they are only coming on for a few minutes. I want to know if coaches pay more attention to substitutes once they have gone on to play or are they nervous about how they might play?

I: Why is it that some substitutes can come on and play well whilst others find it difficult?

R: Fundamentally this is the main underlying question of my whole PhD. Is it conceptually that substitutes lose confidence and become more anxious therefore under perform? Or is it as a result of situational factors that override effective preparation therefore causing them to under perform.

I: How much does a substitute's performance during the game influence your decision to play them again in the future?

R: Quite a lot of subs felt that they only had a short time and couldn't get into the game, therefore gave the coach an unrealistic view of how they could play. I want to know what coaches think about the players' performance and do they consider the problems substitutes face.

I: How can a sub achieve a guaranteed starting place?

R: Following up on the previous question, I am simply asking coaches the question that all substitutes want to know the answer to, however, previous reports from substitutes indicate uncertainty and ambiguity with regards to this.

APPENDIX 24: Informed consent for Study 1

The participant should complete the whole of this sheet on their own

Have you read the participant information sheet? Yes No

Have you had the opportunity to ask questions and discuss the study? Yes No

Have you received satisfactory answers to all your questions? Yes No

Do you understand that you are free to withdraw from the study:

- at any time; Yes No
- without having to give a reason for withdrawing? Yes No

If you are a student at the University, are you aware that taking part or not taking part in this study will neither be detrimental to nor further your position as a student. Yes No

Have you had sufficient time to think about your involvement in this project? Yes No

Do you agree to take part in this study? Yes No

Do you have any physical or mental conditions that preclude you from involvement in the study? Yes No

Signature (participant)

Date

Signature (researcher)

Date

APPENDIX 25: Participant information sheet

What will I have to do if I take part?

If you agree to take part in this study, I would like you to meet with me once or twice a week at training sessions for a short period of time (six weeks). We will work together to identify negative thoughts and behaviours that you have that may impede your performance when you come on as a substitute, and also other situations that seem to prevent you from gaining a place as a starter. Once we have done this we will implement strategies in attempt to help you to cope more effectively. The intervention period will last six weeks but will not be invasive or time consuming on your part. Following the intervention period you will be requested to complete three questionnaires each time that you become a substitute player. At the end of the season you will be interviewed again in order for me to gain a detailed understanding of your experiences in this study.

Do I have to take part?

No, participation is completely voluntary. You are not forced or otherwise coerced to participate in this study. You may drop out at any time, and ask any questions you have about the research at any time.

If I agree to take part, what happens to this information?

All the information you give us will remain strictly confidential and will be used for the purposes of this study only. Your responses will be coded and not identifiable by anyone but the main investigator in this study. The data will be stored centrally in a locked cabinet drawer at St. Mary's College. The information may be used in research publications, but the information will be used in a way so as not to identify any of the participants individually.

What do I do now?

You will be interviewed by me about your most recent experiences of being a substitute. You will then meet with me for ten sessions so we can discuss your experience. After each session you will be asked to do some homework for the next session. It is imperative that we work together as a team in order to identify any problem areas you may have. It is important therefore that you are comfortable with doing some homework tasks after each session. If not you are free to drop out from this study.

Questions?

If you have any questions about the study, please contact Bernie Woods via e-mail: woodsb@smuc.ac.uk or by phone: 0208 240 2338

Thank you very much

APPENDIX 26: Example of an initial assessment interview with participant 1

Interviewer (I): To start off could you just summarise how often you have been a substitute recently.

Participant (P): Well, there was last Sunday, then I played, then I was sub again, then I was sub again the week after that. So for the last three weeks out of four I haven't started.

I) So since the season started, what is that percentage wise?

P) Probably 50%. I started the first three and we have played about ten games so I would say 50-60%.

I) How much of an impact has that had on you in relation to your performances?

P) Well a big impact. It is difficult to say really because when I have started I have been nominated player of the match, but then the next week when I have been a substitute I have been useless. So my performances have gone from one extreme to another.

I) How much is this impacting or affecting you?

P) You just don't feel motivated when you know you are going to be a sub. Normally I really look forward to Sunday, but since I have been sub I just dread it.

I) Do you hate coming off the bench to play then?

P) No its just because even when I am a sub I don't get a decent amount of time to make an impact. So I know I won't make a difference anyway.

I) So you go into the game thinking 'I won't make a difference'?

P) I go into it wanting to make one. But then there is also that niggling thought that I am not going to. For example last Sunday I didn't even touch the ball. I want to make a difference but there is always that voice that says 'you're not going to make a difference'. It feels like it is like a token gesture to put me on and not a tactical one.

I) We have spoke about this before haven't we, about the amount of time you get. How much time have you generally been given when you come on?

P) Well the game that went to extra time I got fifteen minutes, the game after that I got ten minutes and Sunday it was about three minutes because the referee said there was two and a half minutes left as soon as I got on there, so I didn't even touch the ball. Before that I can't remember sorry.

I) What does that make you think?

P) It seems that because I am a striker, well its not unlucky that I am a striker, but with them two ***** and ***** (refers to the other two strikers in the team) I don't think she'll (the coach) ever, I mean she does take them off but I can see why she doesn't when she doesn't. We need *****'s pace and then ***** is good if we get a free kick because she's got a chance of scoring that, and she takes all of the set plays, so it is like she (coach) doesn't want to take them off. The only time she ever takes them off is if say we are winning 5-0 and then she puts me on.

I) What does that make you think about yourself?

I) It makes me think that she thinks that those two are better than me and they always will be.

I) Do you think that is true?

P) Well we are totally different players so yeah maybe I do.

I) So you really think so.

P) Yeah because their strongest attributes will change the game more than mine probably will.

I) How does that make you feel, thinking like this?

P) Obviously I am disappointed because I want to prove that I can be better. But I just don't know what to do.

I) So are you stuck in a rut?

P) Yeah sort of, because even if I do manage to hold ***** out of a few games which I did do in the past, although she did have that knee injury. There is always that doubt, I think if I have a half average game ***** average game will always be better than my best one probably.

I) So you are constantly thinking like this?

P) Yeah

I) Do you think about it much during the week?

P) Yeah pretty much. I just live for football so it gets to me. Even if I play great at training, then I know I won't play anyway.

I) What about your parents, they are great supporters and are obviously important to you.

P) Yeah exactly. I feel like I am letting them down. They are always asking about it and there is nothing I can say except 'I don't know really'. I pretty much say to them that I guess them two (***** and *****) are better than me, but they say 'no they're not'. You know what parents are like. They're gutted for me, so in the best way I have it because they are just trying to look out for me.

I) What is your ultimate aim or goal?

P) To play, to start and play. To be a player that plays the whole match. Because even if I do start she (the coach) tends to take me off a lot and that has been like that for the last couple of years. Ok that might be down to my fitness in the past but I want to play the whole game.

I) So how do you think she (the coach) makes her judgements about you?

P) I don't know really. I really don't know. I guess maybe if I haven't had the ball for a while she thinks that I am coasting or getting tired so she just takes me off.

I) So do you think it has come to a point where you are an easy choice?

P) Yeah I think that is it as well. Because in the past when other people get told they are a sub they storm off or whatever, whereas she'll (coach) think oh ***** will just take it. But I am still gutted every time she takes me off.

I) Lets go back to how you get told that you are sub. Can you explain how that usually happens?

P) Well some days she doesn't tell me. We just walk in and see what number we are on the board. She doesn't even mention it, you just have to come in look at the board and then sit next to the number. I did notice last week she called ***** out and told her why she wasn't playing, but she didn't say anything to me.

I) What do you think about the way she tells you?

P) Well I just want feedback during the week. I would prefer if she said on Thursday that I am going to be a sub because of A or B or whatever. Then I can understand and know where I am going wrong, so when I get substituted on I can do the opposite. But she doesn't say anything. So you dread it thinking you are going to be a sub, then you are and you don't know why either.

I) What does that make you think about yourself?

P) That I am not even worth explaining to why I am a sub. I mean she spoke to ***** and explained why she was dropped and she just left me.

I) How does that make you feel?

P) Gutted and down hearted. You have gone from starting, to not being told your dropped to not even being spoken to, so you carry on being sub.

I) How do you usually react to that?

P) I still prepare the same way although I suppose I am not motivated really. Although you want to be up for it and be part of the squad you just don't feel part of it. You are not being spoken to and you are not being treated like part of the squad. So you feel that you are being left out, not forgotten about, but along those lines.

I) Which is what you have had to deal with since the start of the season?

P) Yeah, well it has been an ongoing thing for the past five years of my life. Anywhere I have been there have been players that are fast or similar to *****, good at free kicks and skilful. I am not like that, I am, not an old fashioned player, but I sort of have to battle for things. I am that sort of player. Nowadays you are looking for pace and skill more so. I am not saying that I do more hard work or effort but that is sort of what I base my game on. Whereas ***** game is to hit it past someone and put pace them and then finish. ***** will do a brilliant free kick. Whereas I will just have to keep hassling defenders to get anywhere.

I) So is that how you judge your ability, in relation to ***** and *****?

P) Yeah I have to because that is how she (coach) bases her decision. I have to try to work out what she is thinking and do something with that based on what the others do.

I) So generally when she (coach) tells you it is normally on match day.

P) Yeah well but this season it has been that way. On a couple of occasions after we have got changed and we are warming up, she will then bring me to the side and talk to me. But the first time I know is by looking at the board and then going to sit down.

I) So when she does take you to one side, what are you thinking?

P) By then I am already disheartened.

I) Do you pay much attention to what she has to say?

P) I do. But, she doesn't really get exactly to her point with regards to what I can do better on. The last couple of times she took me to one side she said 'they (player who replaced *****) have taken their chances and so now you have to do the same when you get on' instead of saying 'they came on and did this and that' as in being specific 'whereas you were weak in this area'. So I need specific detail to know what to do to get back in there.

I) So before the game you tend to be low in motivation?

P) Well you do the warm up, but when you are starting you usually get up for it and get energised, but when you are sub you just go through the motions. In the warm up you don't really push yourself as much as you could because you think well what's the point I'm just going to be sitting down. But if you are starting you want to be sharp, you want to look good so that you can convince yourself that you will play well.

I) So do you feel different when you are a sub?

P) When you are starting you are focused. You are happy and chatting and that but when you are sub you are disheartened and sort of think, not what's the point that is going a bit far. But you have to sit there and just think I have just got to sit through this when you see everyone else getting up for it. You just feel gutted about it. It seems as though even if you are really trying your best she is not even watching you because you are not in her top eleven, you are just there to make the numbers up so you don't need to have a high intensity because she is not really there watching you, it is more about her first eleven which is fair enough.

I) Do these feelings and thoughts carry on whilst you are on the bench?

P) By the time the game is on, although you are gutted you want them to win so you get into the match and then shout and encourage. So you are gutted but you have a distraction so you get into the game and that's it.

I) At this point on the bench what are you thinking about yourself?

P) How do you mean?

I) You said earlier that when you are told you are sub you think quiet badly about yourself, does this carry on when you are on the bench?

P) Yeah and then you see things on the pitch and you think if only I was on there I might have made a difference but you can't keep doing that, you can't keep thinking what if what if. So although I am gutted I am not as bad on the bench. It is more the warm up before the game. Because on the bench I am just watching the game and thinking and looking at the defenders and think if I get on which defender is the weakest and what I can do when I come on.

I) Tell me what you are thinking as you watch them.

P) Well it depends on the game. Some games I can be so disheartened I am watching it and not really be there mentally so watching it as a spectator. Then other games if I am a bit more confident from a previous week or from training then I will watch and see how they play and try to work out the defenders and whether she is left footed or right footed. I know that is getting a bit deep, but you just think if I get on there then you know what to do.

I) So on a good day that is what you do.

P) Yeah when I am more motivated and say I know why I am a sub, not so much in that it is justified but if I can understand it and I know I have played poorly the week before then I will concentrate and think about the game and their defenders and how we are playing etc. But if I am disheartened I don't really concentrate like that.

I) When it is a bad day?

P) I really want to get on but at the same time when I am not on there I am just watching, I am just a spectator. Every now and then during the game you are sent for a little jog to keep warm.

I) What do you think about then?

P) Pretty much nerves, then I try to work out who she might be taking off and then try to work out what position I am going on because sometimes she puts me in midfield.

I) Why do you think you feel nervous?

P) Because those few minutes are precious, I need to make a difference if I want to start in the next game.

I) Do you feel pressurised?

P) Yeah but mostly from myself. Probably not from her (coach) though. Well in my head anyway she will start the same team the next time she is just making a change because we might be winning comfortably. So I go on there thinking, 'really make a difference to make her think'. But at the same time I am thinking 'what's the point, she won't change her mind anyway'.

I) So by thinking I have to make a difference but I probably won't, what happens during your performance? Do you worry about playing well?

P) Yeah I worry far too much.

I) Then what happens during your warm up?

P) If I am a sub and she tells me to warm up, although I am warming up, I just keep looking over at her hoping that she calls me over quicker if I keep making eye contact. So it is not as intense but I am still warming up because when I get on I want to play well.

I) Do you have the same routine as you do when you warm up before the game?

P) No it's just what ever. I do some sprints but I prefer to do them on the pitch. I don't know if she forgets that she has told me to warm up, but it feels like an age before she calls me back. And then she says I have to wait for a throw in because she only makes subs on throw ins, so it feels like forever and all of that makes it worse. It gets me more anxious.

I) Anxious as in 'I want to get on I want to get on' or anxious as in 'I'm really nervous now'?

P) Both because the more I say I want to get on the more nervous I get and then when I get on I am not hyped up but definitely not relaxed. I play better when I am relaxed.

I) When you do get to go on, how do you usually play?

P) Well I am angry because I want to prove a point, but then that sometimes has an opposite affect where I am too eager and my touch on the ball goes all over the place. So I have got to try and not be as angry and be more relaxed. But then that is hard to do, come on and be relaxed. So it is hard to explain.

I) So you need a happy medium.

P) Yeah. Actually thinking back I cannot think of a time when I have come on and actually made much difference in the game. I don't know if that is because I have come on and been too eager but then I never come on feeling relaxed. So I have never come on and done well when I am relaxed.

I) Ok there is a lot to think about between now and Thursday. For homework I want you to think about the thoughts you have when you are sub and what you say to yourself in relation or comparison to other players. And really just reflect on it. Then next time we will look at those thoughts and examine them further. If that is ok and you agree could you just make a note of these thoughts for next time? P) Yeah sure ok.

APPENDIX 27: Participants homework task to identify negative thoughts

Week 1 Identifying negative thoughts:

What thoughts do you have when you are **told** you are a substitute?
I think....

What thoughts do you have when you are a substitute **on the bench**?
I think....

What do you **think about yourself** when you are a sub? Write down the type of things you say or think about yourself when you are a sub.

I think....

APPENDIX 28: Participants homework task to identify alternative positive thoughts

Week 2 Identifying Alternative Thoughts:

Using the thoughts you have previously identified with regards to when you are **told** you are a substitute, pick out the most negative ones and suggest an alternative positive thought.

I think....	An alternative thought could be...

Using the thoughts you have previously identified with regards to when you are **on the subs bench**, pick out the most negative ones and suggest an alternative positive thought.

I think....	An alternative thought could be...

Using the thoughts you have previously identified with regards to when you are **what you think about yourself as a sub**, pick out the most negative ones and suggest an alternative positive thought.

I think....	An alternative thought could be...

APPENDIX 29: Participant homework task to identify negative behaviours

Week 3 Identifying negative behaviours

How do you act or behave when you are **told** you are a substitute? (consider how you might act differently if you were starting)

I act/behave....

How do you act or behave when you are **told** you are a substitute **on the bench**?

I act/behave....

APPENDIX 30: Participant homework task to identify alternative positive behaviours

Week 4 Identifying alternative behaviours:

Using the behaviours you have previously identified with regards to when you are **told** you are a substitute, pick out the most negative ones and suggest an alternative positive behaviour.

I behave....	An alternative behaviour could be...

Using the behaviours you have previously identified with regards to when you are **on the subs bench**, pick out the most negative ones and suggest an alternative positive behaviour.

I behave....	An alternative behaviour could be...

APPENDIX 30: Post intervention Interview questions for participant 1

Post intervention Interview

Interviewer (I): When we met at the beginning of the season I think that you had been substitute about 50% of the time. In fact there had been twelve league games and out of that you had been a substitute 5 or 6 times. Can you recap and just remind me about how you felt about that at the time?

Participant (P): I felt disappointed that I had let myself down. My confidence was low and I lost some respect for my manager. I also remember feeling 'here we go again' as being a sub was a frequent occurrence throughout my football career. I felt unmotivated for a while as I thought I had blown my chance, after starting the first 4 or 5 games I hadn't played well enough to hold my place and was back to the bench again.

I) After the initial interview we met several times to discuss your thoughts and behaviours in relation to being a substitute. Do you remember?

P) Yeah I remember. I talked about what my feelings were when I found out I was sub and then I talked about how I behaved throughout the rest of the day i.e. how my effort levels changed in the warm up for example.

I) What were your thoughts about being a sub like?

P) I thought that I was chosen to be sub just 'to make up the numbers' as I didn't get on much, and if I did it was only for a very small amount of time when we had already won the game. So I didn't even think the manager thought I could change or impact the game as she rarely put me on when things needed changing but just when we were a couple of goals up and in a comfortable position. This made me feel rejected and consequently I didn't feel like a valued member of the squad.

I) Do you think your thoughts about being a sub changed?

P) Yeah. I began to think more positively, I would stay focused and tell myself if I get on I will have an impact on the teams performance, instead of just thinking 'here we go again' and allowing myself to lose concentration.

I) What was your behaviour in relation to being a sub like?

P) It was very negative. My motivation levels were very low, I wouldn't put 100% effort in the warm up, and when warming up during the match I would just be going through the motions because I thought I wouldn't be getting on anyway. But I always made sure that I encouraged and cheered on the girls before and during the match.

I) Do you think you changed your behaviour?

P) Yeah. I saw how important it was to make sure I put 100% in all warm ups. This kept me focused if I got on. I began to concentrate on the game more, like watching the opponents defence – who was their weakest defender? What foot didn't the defenders liked to be pushed onto? Which defenders didn't have much pace? So If I got on I could exploit these. Before

your intervention I wouldn't be doing this, I would have just been sat feeling sorry for myself on the bench.

I) After the first interview we set some goals. Can you remember what your outcome goal was? what did you want to achieve by the end of the season?

P) I wanted to be playing regularly for the first team

I) Ok now what about the others? Performance goals, things you wanted to achieve in the game, can you remember what these were?

P) I'm sure these were to improve my runs so I create more chances for myself

I wanted to score more goals and pressure the defenders more

I) And Process goals, the things you were going to do to achieve your performance goals can you remember what these were?

P) Yeah these were the things I was going to think about to help me achieve my performance goals. So for improving my runs to create chances I was going to think about *creating space for myself, and running on the blind side of defenders.*

For scoring more goals I *needed to panic less and just concentrate on the goalkeepers position, and then place the ball in the corner.*

For pressuring the defenders I *needed to improve my positioning, work alongside my strike partner, and make sure my body shape forces the defender in the direction I want them to go.*

I) And what were your key words to remind you of these process goals?

P) Clear move and call, Place it, and Force it.

I) Do you think they helped?

P) Yeah they helped because they kept my mind mostly clear of negative thoughts and helped me to stay focused on what I needed to do. They were also easy to remember so I didn't feel bogged down by coaching points I just remembered the three key terms.

I) How did you feel when you used them?

P) I felt like they gave me purpose and this made me feel motivated, and when I feel motivated I am more confident.

I) You were also asked to go to the coach to discuss your performance, did you do this?

P) I went to the reserve manager after a reserve match because he was aware of my goals before the match. He was very positive and said I worked well on two of my goals, however my finishing still needed working on.

I) Do you think you achieved your goals? What about Outcome?

P) I think because of niggling injuries in the middle of the season this hindered my chances of achieving my outcome goal, so no I didn't achieve that goal.

I) And Performance?

P) Yeah I think I improved on all of my performance goals

And Finally Process? Yeah key words helped me to achieve all of these goals

I) So do you think you managed to influence or change manager's opinion?

P) Yeah I think my hard work in training and a couple of performances in the reserve team influenced my managers opinion, and I started a few first team games again because of this.

I) Was there any thing different about your pre-performance preparation that helped this?

P) I would concentrate a lot more, put more effort in and not be as withdrawn as I would have been at the beginning of the season.

I) Did you do anything differently when you were substituted into the game after the intervention?

P) I would be more focused on making a positive impact whenever I came on.

I) What difference did it make?

P) Yeah I believe being focused helped me to improve on the three performance goals during the times that I came on as sub after the intervention

I) So what was the difference between the two warm ups, when you were a sub at the start of the season and then after the intervention?

P) I put 100% effort into the warm ups after the intervention, I would also participate a lot more instead of just becoming withdrawn and quiet which is what I did before the intervention.

I) So if you did change your warm up would you continue to do so in the future?

P) Yes I will definitely continue with my improved warm up routine I'm really happy with that.

I) What do you think about yourself as a player now in comparison to what you thought about yourself at the start of the season when you were consistently sub?

P) I know now that I am a valued member of the squad. When I was consistently sub I felt undervalued and worthless. The intervention helped me to highlight the positive areas of my game and not just the negative areas, so this has helped me gain more confidence in my ability because when I was just consistently sub all I would think about were the negative areas of my game and then my confidence would be low. So I was always on at myself.

I) What would you think about yourself should the same thing happen next season and you sit on the bench?

P) I would be very disappointed because that would mean I haven't done enough hard work to force myself into the team.

I) Really?

P) Yeah it would mean that things would need to be done, like question the manager or if needs be change clubs.

I) What would you think about yourself as a player if you were to be sub over and over again? How would you cope with that?

P) If it was over and over again I wouldn't think much of myself. I would think no one respected or rated me as a player and although I would want to prove them wrong, with the having few chances to play I think my confidence would be very low and I would probably lose motivation and dedication. But I hope that doesn't happen ever again, I think that I can come on and play well now, at least I know what I should be doing. So if I am sub once or twice then I can hopefully turn it around again and get back in the team.

I) So would you be happy being a sub?

P) No. I will never be happy being sub. I want to play all 90minutes of every match.

I) What did you used to think about being a sub at the start of the season?

P) I thought that subs were just there to make up the numbers and were not respected or rated as players.

I) Is that still true now?

P) After the intervention I'm more aware that managers do rate and respect the subs. Now I think subs are on the bench because areas of their game need to be worked on. They're still important members of the squad and they will be given a chance in the team if they keep working hard.

I) So were you satisfied with your performances towards the end of the season?

P) Although some areas of my game may not have improved drastically – my finishing for example still needs a lot of work on, I am still satisfied with my performances towards the end. I still work very hard for the team and I go into games with less fear now and more positive thoughts. In the last few games I enjoyed my football more because I wasn't thinking negative all the time. If I missed a chance instead of thinking 'that's it you've blown your chance to score now' – which is what I would have thought at the start of the season, I would think 'next time go round the keeper'. I think these thoughts had a positive effect on my performances because I was motivated to create more chances instead of just dwelling on the missed chances and errors that had occurred.

If there is anything else that you would like to say or add?

Just thank you very much for all your help.

