

Summer 2011

The Relationships between Optimism and Pessimism and Burnout in Youth Soccer Players

Brandy A. Rentz

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THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN OPTIMISM AND
PESSIMISM AND BURNOUT IN YOUTH
SOCCER PLAYERS

Brandy A. Rentz

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**THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN OPTIMISM AND
PESSIMISM AND BURNOUT IN YOUTH
SOCCER PLAYERS**

A Thesis

Presented to

the College of Graduate Studies of
Georgia Southern University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science in Kinesiology
with an Emphasis in Sport Psychology
In the Department of
Health and Kinesiology

by

Brandy A. Rentz

August 2001

August 2001

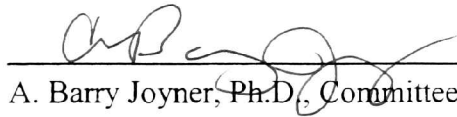
To the Graduate School:

This thesis entitled, "The Relationships Between Optimism and Pessimism and Burnout in Youth Soccer Players," and written by Brandy A. Rentz is presented to the College of Graduate Studies of Georgia Southern University. I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in the Department of Health and Kinesiology with an emphasis in Sport Psychology.

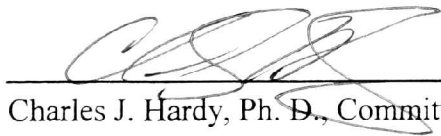


Kevin L. Burke, Ph.D., Thesis Director

We have reviewed this thesis
and recommend its acceptance:

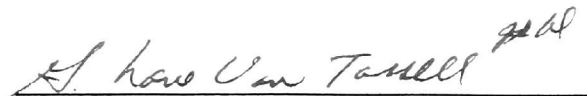


A. Barry Joyner, Ph.D., Committee Member



Charles J. Hardy, Ph. D., Committee Member and Department Chair

Accepted for the College of Graduate Studies



G. Lane Van Tassell
Dean, College of Graduate Studies

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my family.

Honey Rentz

Oh, we've had our disagreements! But, you're still the best friend a sister could ever ask for! Your wit and sense of humor touch so many people, especially me. I wish I had your strength of mind and independence. I pray you'll find all the happiness and satisfaction in life you so deserve. You'll be the best at whatever you do.

I love you, My Honey-Bunny.

Harvey Rentz

You're the rock I can always count on and my voice of reason. You've given me guidance and encouragement throughout my life. We've come a long way since I went off to "big school," and you've been there for me everyday. I admire your hard work, endless courage, undying dedication, and unconditional love.

I hope I make you proud. I love you, Dad.

Vi Rentz

Without your support in every way I never would have made it here. Time and again, you gave me your hand and guided me when I needed you. Thank you. I'm in awe of your unselfishness, the empathy you show the world, your faith in God, and the love and patience you've given to Honey and me. I only hope I can become half the mother you've been to me. I love you, Mom.

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I couldn't have enjoyed so much or even made it through the past two years without my classmates and friends. Mark Aoyagi, thanks for allowing me a glimpse into your life. Lindsey Blom, you're the best listener. I wish I had your organization and stamina for hard work. You amaze me! Jeremy Aven, thank you for being a part of my life and letting me be a part of yours. Thank you, Paula Parker, for your enduring friendship and support. We have to keep in touch! Jamie Mize, Joe Mannion, and Chris Zanghi, y'all kept everything real!

ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN OPTIMISM AND PESSIMISM AND BURNOUT IN YOUTH SOCCER PLAYERS

July 2001

BRANDY A. RENTZ

B.S. CENTENARY COLLEGE OF LOUISIANA

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Directed by: Professor Kevin L. Burke

Sport related burnout has become a concern for many athletes, coaches, and sport psychologists. Although burnout in sport is receiving more attention, the research still remains relatively limited (Capel, 1986; Dale & Weinberg, 1990; Fender, 1989; Gould, Udry, Tuffey, & Loehr, 1996). Dale and Weinberg (1990) indicated a need for future research concerning the identification of characteristics that may predispose athletes to burnout. No past research was found that investigated the relationship between optimism/pessimism and sport burnout. The primary purpose of this investigation was to examine the relationships between optimism and pessimism with burnout. A secondary purpose was to determine whether optimism, pessimism, and burnout differ between gender, race, age, aspects of soccer involvement, and participation in other sports. The Life Orientation Test-Revised (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) and Burnout Inventory for Athletes (VanYperen, 1997) were completed by 100 youth athletes (42 boys, 58 girls)

participating in premier/select ($n = 100$) and high school ($n = 55$) soccer leagues, with 55 soccer players participating in both leagues. A Sport Questionnaire was also administered to obtain demographics information including gender, age, race, specific soccer involvement, and other sport participation. Results revealed statistically significant negative correlations between optimism and burnout ($r = -.271, \alpha < .01$) as well as between optimism and intent to quit ($r = -.308, \alpha < .01$). A significant positive correlation was found between age and burnout ($r = .315, \alpha < .01$). No significant correlation was discovered between pessimism and burnout. Results revealed that youth soccer players classified as optimistic exhibited less burnout and showed less intent to quit soccer within one year.

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The Relationships Between Optimism and Pessimism on Burnout in Youth Soccer Players

Since the theory and definition of burnout was first conceived over 25 years ago, the term has been used and misused by many people to describe a number of conditions and feelings. Burnout has generally been defined as a physical and emotional exhaustion produced by stress (Freudenberger, 1974; Fuqua & Couture, 1986; Maslach, 1978; Perlman & Hartman, 1982). Because of its notoriety and prevalence, the phenomenon of burnout has been a popular research topic (Dale & Weinberg, 1990; Fender, 1989; Perlman & Hartman, 1982; Smith, 1986). The original concentration of burnout research was conducted with people in helping professions such as healthcare personnel, social workers, and teachers (Arthur, 1990; Maslach, 1976, 1978; Perlman & Hartman, 1982). Freudenberger (1974) was the first to focus on these professions and recognized people with a need to give who are dedicated and committed to their jobs, are prone to burnout. Many psychological, physical, social, and organizational factors have been related to burnout. The exhausted state of burnout is characterized by frustration, signs of depression (Freudenberger, 1974), ineffective coping (Maslach, 1976) decreased job productivity (Maslach, 1976; Perlman & Hartman, 1982), and severe depersonalization (Capel, 1986; Perlman & Hartman, 1982). While the original focus was on professional and career related burnout, research has begun to explore the role burnout plays in other areas of life.

Burnout in Sport

Although burnout in sport is receiving more attention, the research still remains relatively limited (Capel, 1986; Dale & Weinberg, 1990; Fender, 1989; Gould, Udry, Tuffey, & Loehr, 1996). Burnout associated with sport has been defined as psychological, emotional, and physical withdrawal from a formerly pursued and enjoyable activity developed by complex interactions between environmental factors and personal characteristics (Smith, 1986). There are many corresponding factors associated with general and sport burnout, and different sport-specific models of burnout have been offered.

Similar to general burnout, chronic stress is the most widely accepted factor related to sport burnout (Coakley, 1992). Smith's (1986) cognitive-affective model emphasized the relationship between stress and burnout. This model theorized burnout occurs after personal assessments of demands, resources, and consequences result in the athletes feeling overwhelmed. Athletes perceive the physical and mental demands placed on them as exceeding their coping resources (Smith, 1986). Silva (1990) also deemed stress as an antecedent to sport burnout. However, his model of negative training stress concentrated on physical stress. The Training Stress Model suggested burnout lies at the end of a continuum and occurs only after an athlete regresses past a point of staleness followed by overtraining (Silva, 1990). Dale and Weinberg (1990) also associated overtraining with burnout recognizing that the physical and psychological reactions to feeling overworked could lead to burnout. Although stress was recognized as an important contributor, Coakley (1992) introduced an alternate explanation for burnout.

His model characterized burnout as a social, as opposed to individual, phenomenon. This social organization explanation described athletes' reactions to burnout as feelings of disempowerment accompanied by the realizations that sport participation was no longer rewarding to them. Raedeke (1997) offered a model based on a sport commitment perspective in which athletes classified as feeling entrapped by their sport are more prone to burnout, while athletes who are still attracted to their sport with a low feeling of commitment are less prone to burnout. Periods of poor performance or slumps have also been shown to result in sport burnout (Henschen, 1998).

Various psychological characteristics have been linked to sport burnout as well. Similar to general burnout, some psychological variables associated to sport burnout include coping strategies (Gould et al., 1996; Smith, 1986), self-efficacy (Smith, 1986), and locus of control (Smith, 1986). Gould et al. (1996) found athletes showing signs of burnout lacked certain coping skills. Smith (1986) found having low self-efficacy and an external locus of control has also been associated with sport related burnout. Although results indicated a generally low burnout mean, Aoyagi (2001) found low personal control to be related to burnout as well as strong positive relationships between burnout and competitive trait anxiety and between burnout and worry.

Sport burnout research concerning the relationship between gender and burnout has not produced definitive results (Dale & Weinberg, 1990). Dale and Weinberg (1989) determined males possessed higher levels of burnout than females. However, Caccese and Mayberger (1984) found female coaches to be more burned out than male coaches. Aoyagi (2001) discovered similar results in youth athletes when girls reported

significantly higher burnout scores than boys.

Optimism and Pessimism

Optimism is defined as possessing positive expectations and favorable perceptions (Scheier & Carver, 1985; Scheier & Carver, 1987). Research has indicated optimists possess more positive physical, psychological, and general well-being (Lightsey, 1996; Scheier & Carver, 1987). Scheier, et al. (1989) found optimism had strong positive effects on coronary artery bypass surgery (CABS) patients' physical well-being. The optimistic patients overall had fewer complications and faster rates of recovery than their pessimistic cohorts. One study found people who are pessimistic in early adulthood are at higher risks for poor health later in life (Peterson, Seligman, & Vaillant, 1988). People with dispositional optimism believe the future holds desirable outcomes, and those beliefs, in turn, affect their actions. For example, when outcomes seem attainable, optimistic people persist to obtain them (Scheier & Carver, 1987). In conjunction, Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale (1978) found pessimistic people were more inclined to quitting than optimistic individuals.

Seligman (1991) utilizes three dimensions in order to label optimists and pessimists. One description of optimists and pessimists refers to the differing views of permanence when confronted with bad events. Optimists consider defeat to be temporary setbacks. Optimistic individuals perceive the experiences to be challenges and put forth more effort to overcome the negative circumstances. In contrast, pessimists are more likely to believe defeats or negative events will last a long time. Seligman also identified optimists and pessimists in terms of pervasiveness. When negative experiences happen to

pessimists, the situations are considered universal, affecting all aspects of life. In contrast, optimists believe the situations to be specific. The causes and effects are confined to the existing situations and will not influence other areas of life. Personalization also defines optimists and pessimists. Optimists explain bad events externally and good events internally. On the other hand, pessimists view bad events as being internal and good events as external.

Optimism has also been shown to influence decisions regarding coping strategies (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992; Grove & Heard, 1997; Lightsey, 1996; Scheier & Carver, 1987; Scheier, et al., 1989; Scheier, Weintraub, & Carver, 1986). Optimistic individuals are more likely to utilize problem-focused coping (Scheier & Carver, 1987). This form of coping allows people to eliminate or reduce stressors in order to proceed toward goal attainment (Scheier & Carver, 1987). Lightsey (1996) found optimism to be positively related to active forms of coping and negatively related to passive forms. Perhaps the research most applicable to the present study is the Seligman and Schulman (1986) analysis of the relationship between optimism and pessimism and quitting among life insurance sales agents. Agents who were more optimistic maintained their jobs at twice the rate as the agents classified as pessimistic.

Optimism in Sport

Very little research has focused on the role optimism plays in sport. Seligman (1991) noted when everything else is equal, the optimistic athletes and teams will ultimately win because they try harder and persist when faced with challenges. Research conducted on college athletes across several sports examined the relationship between

optimism/pessimism and sport orientation (Czech, 1998). Aspects of sport orientation include competitiveness, win orientation, and goal orientation. Results suggested no significant differences between optimistic and pessimistic athletes for any of the aspects of sport orientation. A recent qualitative research study found optimism and pessimism to be related to successful goal attainment in collegiate golfers (Wilson, 1998). One study discovered, when compared to optimistic swimmers, pessimistic swimmers exhibited more unexpected poor performances (Seligman, Nolen-Hoeksema, Thornton, & Thornton, 1990). Grove and Heard (1997) found optimistic athletes employ the problem-focused coping strategies when faced with slumps in performance.

Dale and Weinberg (1990) indicated a need for future research concerning the identification of characteristics that may predispose athletes to burnout. The purpose of this investigation was to address this need and examine the relationships between optimism and pessimism with burnout. A secondary purpose was to determine whether optimism, pessimism, and burnout vary between gender, race, age, aspects of soccer involvement, and participation in other sports. No past research was found that investigated the relationship between optimism and sport burnout. Decreasing the symptoms and effects of burnout is a current challenge for coaches, parents, and administrators involved in youth sports. Studying optimism and pessimism, and how they relate to the prevention and detection of burnout, could help future sport participants, administrators, and parents manage the signs and symptoms of burnout.

It was hypothesized there would be a significant negative correlation between optimism and burnout as well as between optimism and intent to quit. It was also

expected there would be significant positive correlations between pessimism and burnout, pessimism and intent to quit, age and burnout, length of soccer participation and burnout, and number of practice sessions per week and burnout. It was also hypothesized there would be significant differences between optimistic and pessimistic athletes for burnout scores, genders for optimism, pessimism, and burnout scores. Athletes who participate in other sports including soccer were hypothesized to score lower on burnout than athletes participating only in soccer.

Method

Participants

This study included 100 (42 male and 58 female) youth athletes participating in premier/select ($n = 100$) and high school ($n = 55$) soccer leagues in the southeastern United States. Some of the athletes participated in more than one soccer league. The participants were between the ages of 11 and 19 years old ($M = 15.61$, $SD = 1.56$). All of the athletes ($n = 100$) had been participating in soccer for more than four years. Most of the participants ($n = 50$) practiced soccer 3-4 days a week. Whereas, 15 of the participants practiced soccer 1-2 days a week, 29 practiced 4-5 days a week, and only six participants practiced six days or more a week. A majority of the athletes ($n = 82$) in this study reported participating in another sport in addition to soccer.

Instrumentation

A Sport Questionnaire was administered to obtain demographics information including gender, age, race, specific soccer involvement, and other sport participation. The Sport Questionnaire was created specifically for this study.

Life Orientation Test-Revised. The Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) was utilized to evaluate optimism and pessimism. The LOT-R is a 10-item self-report questionnaire in which participants are asked to indicate the extent of their agreement with each item on a five-point Likert scale ranging from “A” strongly agree to “E” strongly disagree. Three of the items are worded in a positive manner, and three are depicted negatively. Four items are filler items and are not scored in the analysis.

Original scoring and analysis of the LOT-R produced a unidimensional score, which placed optimism and pessimism on opposite ends of a continuum (Scheier & Carver, 1985). However, subsequent research indicated optimism and pessimism may be individual constructs independent of each other, and bi-dimensional scoring of the LOT-R was suggested (Burke, Joyner, Czech, & Wilson, 2000; Chang & McBride-Chang, 1996; Hummer, Dember, Melton, Howe, & Schefft, 1992; Marshall & Lang, 1990). As recommended by Lightsey (1996), this study will utilize both the overall unidimensional and the bi-dimensional scores. When scoring the LOT-R, “A” responses are given a score of five, “B” a four, “C” a three, “D” a two, and “E” are given a score of one. In order to obtain the unidimensional score, the items described negatively are reverse scored then added with the total of the positively worded items. The possible unidimensional scores for the LOT-R range from 6-30. Higher unidimensional scores represent greater optimism. The bi-dimensional score consists of two numbers, the total of the positively worded items and the total of the negatively worded items, neither of which are reverse scored. LOT-R bi-dimensional optimism and pessimism scores range

from 3-15. Higher scores for each of the bi-dimensional measures indicate greater optimism and pessimism. Previous research suggested the LOT-R might be a measure of trait optimism and pessimism as opposed to state optimism and pessimism (Burke et al., 2000).

The LOT-R possesses acceptable levels of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = .78). The test-retest reliability for four months, 12 months, 24 months, and 28 months was found to be .68, .60, .56, and .79 respectively. Convergent validity was established through correlations between the LOT-R and several related scales. Scales used were Pearlin and Schooler's Self-Mastery Scale (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978), State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1974), Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965), and the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (Guilford, Zimmerman, & Guilford, 1976). Cronbach's alphas for the four scales were .75, .88, .89, and .86 respectively (Scheier et al., 1994).

Burnout Inventory for Athletes. The Burnout Inventory for Athletes (BIA) (VanYperen, 1997) was used to measure burnout in the participants. The BIA was specifically designed to measure energy depletion and burnout in youth soccer players (VanYperen, 1997). The BIA includes the general question of "Did it occur last year?" pertaining to seven items about feelings and outlook toward soccer training. The respondent is asked to specify the frequency of each item on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from "1" never to "5" always. Number responses are added together to obtain the BIA score. Total scores for the BIA range from seven to 35. Higher scores indicate greater feelings of burnout. The BIA possesses adequate content validity and internal

consistency (Cronbach's alpha = .80 and .77 seven months later) (VanYperen, 1997). The BIA also includes one statement to measure the participant's intent to quit which declares "I intend to quit playing soccer within one year" with a 7-point response scale ranging from "1" absolutely not to "7" 100% certain.

Procedure

Parental consent forms were distributed individually to and collected from the parents of 12 participants at the beginning of a regularly scheduled soccer practice. All participants were briefed about confidentiality. The participants were assured neither the coaches nor parents would see the completed questionnaires. The soccer players were asked to answer each questionnaire truthfully. Once the parental consent forms were collected and the individual consent forms were signed, the participants were given the questionnaires. The demographics questionnaire was answered first, followed by the LOT-R then the BIA. It took approximately 10 minutes for the participants to complete the questionnaires.

The remaining questionnaires ($n = 88$) were collected during a competitive soccer tournament. The participants were approached by the researcher prior to or after scheduled game times. The soccer players were asked to complete questionnaires about soccer involvement. Each athlete who agreed to participate in the study was given a clipboard including the individual consent form and the three questionnaires. The order of the questionnaires was as follows: demographics questionnaire, LOT-R, and BIA. The questionnaires were returned directly to the researcher.

Results

Frequency distributions were calculated in order to determine means and standard deviations for gender, race, age, and length of soccer participation. Pearson correlations were examined for relationships between age and burnout scores and between length of soccer involvement and burnout scores. Pearson correlations were also utilized in order to determine the relationships between optimism and pessimism and burnout. Independent t-tests explored gender differences for LOT-R and BIA scores as well as differences between athletes who participate in other sports including soccer and athletes who only participate in soccer for burnout scores.

For the purpose of this investigation, participants were classified into three groups based on unidimensional optimism scores. Participants who scored 6-15 were labeled pessimistic ($n = 5$) while participants who scored 21-30 were labeled optimistic ($n = 77$). A neutral classification was given to participants who scored 16-20 ($n = 18$). LOT-R unidimensional scores ranged from 8-30 ($M = 22.27$, $SD = 3.85$) with 77% of the respondents scoring within the optimistic classification. Approximately one quarter (25.3%) of the participants fell in the upper half of the range of scores for the BIA with 74.7% scoring in the lower half. BIA scores ranged from 7-28 ($M = 13.53$, $SD = 3.84$). Intent to quit scores ranged from 1-4 ($M = 1.23$, $SD = .64$).

For the unidimensional scoring of the LOT-R results indicated statistically significant correlations with BIA scores ($r = -.271$, $\alpha < .01$) and intent to quit scores ($r = -.308$, $\alpha < .01$). The bi-dimensional scoring analysis also revealed statistically significant negative correlations between bi-dimensional optimism and BIA scores

($r = -.255, \alpha < .05$) as well as between bi-dimensional optimism and intent to quit scores ($r = -.308, \alpha < .01$). No significant correlations were found between bi-dimensional pessimism scores and BIA scores or between bi-dimensional pessimism scores and intent to quit scores. Results indicated a statistically significant positive correlation between age and BIA scores ($r = .315, \alpha < .01$). Because all of the athletes indicated participating in soccer for four years or more, correlations were not examined for length of years playing soccer and BIA scores. Results suggested no significant difference between the optimistic and pessimistic participants for burnout ($p = .07$). Between genders regarding any of the LOT-R or BIA scores, no significant differences were found. In addition, no significant difference was discovered between athletes who participated in other sports including soccer, and athletes who only participated in soccer, for BIA scores. A statistically significant positive correlation was found between intent to quit scores and BIA scores ($r = .210, \alpha < .01$).

Discussion

It was hypothesized there would be a negative correlation between optimism and burnout. Results of this study support this hypothesis. Data analyses indicated significant correlations between LOT-R unidimensional scores and BIA scores as well as between LOT-R bi-dimensional optimism scores and BIA scores. The negative relationships suggest athletes in this study who are considered more optimistic are less burned out. Within Smith's (1986) cognitive-affective model of athletic burnout, after being confronted with stressful stimuli optimistic athletes may appraise circumstances

differently compared to pessimistic athletes. According to Seligman's (1991) theory of permanence, optimists will perceive the situations as being temporary setbacks. Thus, the optimistic athlete may experience less stress as a result of this outlook. The pessimistic athlete, on the other hand, will view the negative situations as long-lasting and may suffer more stress and eventually experience burnout.

Optimism could also deter possible burnout within a second component of Smith's (1986) model. Optimistic individuals are more likely to utilize problem-focused or active forms of coping (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992; Grove & Heard, 1997; Scheier & Carver, 1987; Scheier et al., 1989) therefore, during the behavioral component of the cognitive-affective model athletes may set goals (Lightsey, 1996) and put forth more effort to conquer the obstacles (Scheier & Carver, 1987; Seligman, 1991) resulting in less instances of burnout.

Analysis of intent to quit scores yielded some notable results that support past research regarding optimism and quitting (Seligman & Schulman, 1986). Both unidimensional and bi-dimensional optimism were negatively correlated with intent to quit scores. These results also substantiate Seligman's (1991) claim that optimists are more persistent when faced with challenges as opposed to pessimists who are more inclined to give up.

Results did not support the hypothesis regarding pessimism and burnout. It was anticipated that pessimism would be positively correlated with BIA scores and intent to quit scores. When compared to optimistic athletes, pessimistic athletes did not score higher on the BIA or the intent to quit scores. The lack of a significant correlation could

be due to the homogenous characteristic of the sample employed in this study. Overall, the participant sample was optimistic. Only 5% of the participants scored within the pessimistic classification for the LOT-R unidimensional analysis. This is consistent with past research (Czech, 1998).

With 74.7% of the sample scoring in the lower half of the range of scores for the BIA, the incidence of burnout was also low. This is in agreement with results of past research concerning youth athletes of similar competition levels (Aoyagi, 2001). As proposed by Gould et al. (1996) one dilemma associated with burnout research is if athletes have experienced burnout they are most likely not participating in sport any longer. The challenge is to identify and study those burned out athletes no longer involved in sport. One study involving tennis players attempted to address this situation by working with the United States Tennis Association in order to identify and include the burned out players who had withdrawn from sport participation (Gould et al., 1996).

No significant correlation between other sport participation and BIA scores was discovered. A reason for the lack of significance may be the low number of burned out participants. If a correlation were found revealing that athletes participating in multiple sports were less burned out, results would have supported Coakley's (1992) unidimensional self-concept theory. If athletes participated in more than one sport, single identities revolving around specific sport involvement would hypothetically not be formed. However, Coakley did not specify whether the single identities athletes formed around sport participation dealt with more than one sport (i.e., creating a unidimensional self-concept of being an athlete or of being an athlete in a particular sport).

Results in the present study indicated no significant correlation between practice sessions per week and burnout or between hours per practice session and burnout. This differs from past research pertaining to practice involvement (Aoyagi, 2001; Gould et al., 1996). One explanation for the lack of a significant finding may be due to the low prevalence of burnout in the participants. A second rationalization offered by Gould et al. (1996) proposed that as a result of feeling burned out participants had already decreased practice involvement.

Regarding the hypotheses about gender, consistent with Czech (1998), results indicated no significant differences between boys and girls for the unidimensional optimism, bi-dimensional optimism, or the bi-dimensional pessimism scores. Contradictory to past research, no significant differences were found between genders for BIA scores (Aoyagi, 2001; Caccese & Mayberger, 1984; Dale & Weinberg, 1989). Thus, research pertaining to gender and burnout remains inconclusive and needs to be investigated further.

Future research should utilize a more reliable and valid measure of burnout in sport. Researchers have struggled to create a questionnaire that is specific to sport and appropriate for various ages. Subsequent studies should attempt to determine in which stage of Smith's (1986) cognitive-affective model of burnout could optimism alter or possibly prevent the deterioration into burnout. Athlete education and potential interventions could be created in order to address the particular stages or circumstances. Research investigating the relationships between optimism/pessimism and burnout should include participants of different ages and skill levels. Being optimistic or pessimistic may

affect older and/or more competitive athletes who are inclined to have higher incidences of burnout. Research should also examine the differences between specific populations such as athletes and non-athletes and individual and team sport athletes. Subsequent research should examine the possibility that athletes are a more optimistic group than non-athletes. Researchers should investigate the possibilities that athletes are more optimistic or the LOT-R is not a valid measure for athletes. Researchers should also consider the necessity of creating a sport-specific inventory to measure optimism and pessimism. Studying burnout and optimism/pessimism variations between groups will create a foundation for sport psychologists to create appropriate programs and interventions for athletes and for coaches to tailor interactions with athletes. Individuals with higher incidences of burnout could be taught how to be more optimistic when faced with adversity in order to decrease the probability of burning out. Future research should investigate and offer suggestions about the ways in which coaches and sport psychologists can help athletes develop more optimistic outlooks. Overall, further research may help coaches and sport psychologists prevent and treat burnout in the future.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Hypotheses and Definitions

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There will be a significant negative correlation between LOT-R unidimensional scores and BIA scores.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a significant negative correlation between LOT-R unidimensional scores and intent to quit scores.

Hypothesis 3: There will be a significant negative correlation between LOT-R bi-dimensional optimism scores and BIA scores.

Hypothesis 4: There will be a significant negative correlation between LOT-R bi-dimensional optimism scores and intent to quit scores.

Hypothesis 5: There will be a significant positive correlation between LOT-R bi-dimensional pessimism scores and BIA scores.

Hypothesis 6: There will be a significant positive correlation between LOT-R bi-dimensional pessimism scores and intent to quit scores.

Hypothesis 7: There will be a significant positive correlation between the athlete's intent to quit and BIA scores.

Hypothesis 8: There will be a significant positive correlation between age and BIA scores.

Hypothesis 9: There will be a significant positive correlation between length of

soccer participation and BIA scores.

Hypothesis 10: There will be significant positive correlations between number of practice sessions per week and BIA scores and between length of practice sessions and BIA scores.

Hypothesis 11: There will be significant differences between boys and girls for LOT-R scores and BIA scores.

Hypothesis 12: There will be significant differences between athletes who participate in other sports including soccer and athletes who only participate in soccer for BIA scores.

Definition of Terms

1. Burnout – psychological, emotional, and physical withdrawal from a formerly pursued and enjoyable activity, developed by complex interactions between environmental factors and personal characteristics (Smith, 1986). The present study utilized the Burnout Inventory for Athletes to measure burnout (VanYperen, 1997). Responses are added together to obtain the BIA score. Higher scores indicate greater feelings of burnout.
2. Intent to quit – measure of whether the athlete plans on ending soccer participation within one year. The present study utilized the Burnout Inventory for Athletes to measure intent to quit (VanYperen, 1997). Intent to quit scores are represented by a single number ranging from 1-7. Higher scores indicate greater intent to quit.
3. Optimism – possessing positive expectations and perceptions on life. Referring to the notion that the future holds desirable outcomes (Scheier & Carver, 1985; Scheier &

Carver, 1987). The present study utilized the Life Orientation Test-Revised to measure optimism (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994). In order to obtain the unidimensional optimism score, the items worded negatively are reverse scored then added with the total of the positively worded items. The possible unidimensional scores for the LOT-R range from 6-30. Higher unidimensional scores represent greater optimism. The bi-dimensional optimism score is calculated by adding the total of the positively worded items. LOT-R bi-dimensional optimism scores range from 3-15. Higher scores indicate greater optimism.

4. Overtraining – repeated failure of the body’s adaptive mechanisms to cope with chronic training stress (Silva, 1990).
5. Pessimism – having a negative outlook on life thinking the future is undesirable (Scheier & Carver, 1985; Scheier & Carver, 1987). The present study utilized the Life Orientation Test-Revised to measure pessimism (Scheier, et al., 1994). The bi-dimensional pessimism score is calculated by adding the total of the negatively worded items. LOT-R bi-dimensional pessimism scores range from 3-15. Higher scores indicate greater pessimism.
6. Premier/select soccer league – type of league requiring athletes to undergo and be chosen from tryouts prior to participation in team practices and games.
7. Staleness – initial failure of the body’s adaptive mechanisms to cope with the psychophysiological stress created by training stimuli (Silva, 1990).

APPENDIX B

Assumptions, Limitations, Delimitations, and Significance of the Study

Assumptions

1. The participants answered all questionnaires truthfully and to the best of their ability.
2. Participants understood all pertinent aspects of the questionnaires.
3. Participants followed all written directions correctly.
4. The Life Orientation Test-Revised is a valid measure of optimism and pessimism.
5. The Burnout Inventory for Athletes is a valid measure of burnout.
6. The Sport Questionnaire is a valid measure of the populations' demographics and sport involvement.

Limitations

1. Participants were not randomly selected.
2. It is possible that the participants did not provide accurate information on the questionnaires.
3. The participants may have answered the questionnaires in a socially desirable manner.
4. The participants may not have understood the questions on the questionnaires.
5. The Life Orientation Test-Revised has not been validated with youth.
6. The Burnout Inventory for Athletes has not been validated.

7. The Sport Questionnaire has not been validated.

Delimitations

1. The research was delimited to a sample drawn from youth sport level athletes in the southeastern part of the United States with ages ranging between 11 and 19 years of age.
2. The pool of participants used in this research was delimited to youth athletes participating in high school and premier/select level soccer during the Fall of 2000 and Spring of 2001.
3. The research utilized a personal statement questionnaire to assess the gender, age, race, duration of sport participation, and type of sport involvement, the Life Orientation Test-Revised (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) to measure the optimism and pessimism of the athletes, and the Burnout Inventory for Athletes (VanYperen, 1997) to assess the burnout of the athletes.

Significance of the Study

There is a call for more extensive research concerning sport burnout and the characteristics that may predispose athletes to burnout (Dale & Weinberg 1990). No past research was found that investigated the possible connection between optimism/pessimism and sport burnout. The present study attempted to determine what relationships exist between optimism and pessimism and sport burnout. The study also investigated how different aspects of sport participation, such as amount of practice and years of involvement, relate to optimism/pessimism and burnout.

Smith's (1986) cognitive-affective model of sport burnout concentrated on the

relationship between stress and burnout. The model suggested stress and burnout relate to and interact with different situational, cognitive, physiological, and behavioral components. If a relationship between optimism/pessimism and burnout is found, coaches and sport psychologists could teach athletes optimistic thinking and actions to be utilized within the cognitive and behavioral reactions to stress and burnout.

APPENDIX C

Extended Review of Literature

Burnout

Burnout has been defined as what occurs after a lifestyle or relationship neglects to produce the anticipated reward (Freudenberger, 1980). This disappointment has been characterized by a state of fatigue and frustration (Freudenberger, 1980). The stress produced results in physical and emotional exhaustion (Freudenberger, 1974; Fuqua & Couture, 1986; Maslach, 1978; Perlman & Hartman, 1982). Maslach (1976) described burnout as a response to job related stress resulting in a loss of concern for clients and patients. This reaction may eventually lead burned out individuals to quit their jobs (Capel, 1986). Other literature also includes decreased job productivity as a symptom of burnout (Perlman & Hartman, 1982). Overall, past research proposes an external locus of control, a lack of social support, and an increase in stress as the foremost factors contributing to general occupational burnout (Fender, 1989).

The theory of burnout was originally applied to individuals in the helping professions such as healthcare personnel, social workers, and teachers. Therefore, the majority of burnout research has focused on those occupations (Arthur, 1990; Maslach, 1976, 1978; Perlman & Hartman, 1982). More recently, the term burnout has been used loosely to describe many emotions and reactions related to just as many professions and personal activities. Sport is one such activity beginning to receive further attention in the

exploration of burnout (Aoyagi, 2001; Capel, 1986; Dale & Weinberg, 1990; Fender, 1989; Gould, Tuffey, Udry, & Loehr, 1996; Gould, Udry, Tuffey, & Loehr, 1996; Gould, Udry, Tuffey, & Loehr, 1997).

Burnout in Coaches and Athletic Trainers

The initial research regarding sport specific burnout focused on coaches and athletic trainers because of their similarity to the helping professions originally emphasized in burnout research. Smith (1986) defined sport-specific burnout as a psychological, emotional, and physical withdrawal from an activity previously pursued and considered enjoyable. An early sport burnout study focused on the relationship between coaching burnout and gender (Caccese & Mayerberg, 1984). It was discovered female coaches had higher burnout scores on the Maslach Burnout Inventory than male coaches. Dale and Weinberg (1989) explored the relationship between coaches' personalities and burnout. This study found coaches who tended to be more caring and people-oriented were more likely to burnout than coaches who were more authoritarian. Vealy, Udry, Simmerman, and Soliday (1992) found trait anxiety was the strongest predictor of burnout in coaches.

Capel (1986) discovered a positive relationship between role conflict, role ambiguity, and the number of hours in direct contact with the athletes and burnout. Role conflict was the strongest overall predictor of burnout. Capel also found an external locus of control contributed to higher levels of burnout. Locus of control is defined as the perception of the relationship between behavior and the events that follow that behavior (Capel, 1986). People with an external locus of control are discovered to have lower

feelings of achievement and competence (Fuqua & Couture, 1986) and more job related stress (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1979).

Models of Athlete Burnout

Through focused research over the past two decades, different models of burnout related to sport involvement have been presented. Smith's (1986) cognitive-affective model is one of the original and still widely accepted models of burnout (Dale & Weinberg, 1990). This model concentrated on the relationship between stress and burnout and how each relate to and interact with situational, cognitive, physiological, and behavioral components. Smith suggested situations encountered require athletes to utilize different personal and environmental resources. Stress results when the situational demands outweigh the resources. The cognitive component encompasses the thoughts and appraisals that follow subsequent stress. Errors in any of these thoughts or appraisals could promote additional stress. When these appraisals suggest possible harm or danger, physiological arousal occurs. The behavioral component involves coping efforts and behaviors. Burnout occurs when demands deplete available resources over a long period of time. Smith noted athletes who are burned out begin to feel emotionally exhausted and have difficulty experiencing positive emotions.

Stress is also the central focus of Silva's (1990) training stress syndrome model of burnout. This theory placed more emphasis on physical training stress, as opposed to the psychological stress discussed in Smith's (1986) cognitive-affective model. Silva distinguished between positive and negative training stress and described possible results of each. Positive training stress results in training gains that can be maintained or

increased for performance enhancement. Negative training stress is the catalyst which begins a regression on a psychophysiological continuum that could eventually lead to burnout. Silva identified this as the training stress syndrome. The continuum includes two stages which athletes experience before burnout occurs. Staleness is the first response and is defined as the body's initial inability to cope with training stress. Athletes in this phase could adapt well and emerge without serious negative consequences. On the other hand, athletes who cannot adapt regress through the continuum into the overtraining stage. In the training stress syndrome overtraining occurs when the body repeatedly fails to cope with chronic training stress. This stage is characterized by depletion and exhaustion of the psychophysiological response system. The final phase on the continuum is burnout. The difference between burnout and staleness or overtraining is the eventual occurrence of voluntary or involuntary withdrawal from the stressful competitive athletic environment.

Coakley (1992) approached burnout from a different perspective by characterizing burnout as a social problem rather than an individual phenomenon. Although Coakley's Unidimensional Identity Development and External Control Model recognized that stress is associated with burnout, the model concentrated on social factors and the athlete's reactions to them. This sociological model illustrated that athletes develop unidimensional self-concepts limited to their sport participation and the relationships fostered within it. The creation of single identities confines them and makes it nearly impossible to develop outside of the sport environment. The unidimensional self-concept and lack of control result in feelings of insecurity and inability to cope with sport outcomes and consequences, which eventually affect performance. The decrease in

performance leads them to social and emotional withdrawal and burnout.

A fourth model offered was derived from a sport commitment perspective (Raedeke, 1997). Because not everyone who experiences stress also experiences burnout, Raedeke's Sport Commitment Model suggested burnout is also a response to feeling entrapped by their sport. Experienced swimmers ($N = 236$) between 13 and 18 years of age were given an extensive questionnaire created to measure a number of factors including athlete burnout, benefits and costs associated with swimming, swimming enjoyment, personal investments, alternative attractiveness, social constraints, swim identity, and perceived control. Raedeke found athletes classified as feeling entrapped by sport had high burnout scores, and conversely, those who were still attracted to sport and felt low commitment had low burnout scores.

Athlete Burnout

Cohn (1990) based his study of sources of stress and burnout in youth golf players on Smith's (1990) cognitive-affective model of burnout. The purpose of the study was to determine the sources of competitive stress and to investigate how that stress is related to perceived burnout. Cohn utilized a qualitative research design and interviewed the athletes in order to ascertain data on sources of stress and perceived burnout. The results of this study supported Smith's (1986) burnout model. Specifically, the youth golfers cited many training and competitive demands as reasons for feeling burned out. The most frequently reported reasons included too much time spent practicing and playing, no sense of enjoyment, no feelings of direction in terms of goals or objectives, experiencing slumps, and pressure from self and others to succeed. The golfers perceived the demands

outweighed coping resources, which resulted in feelings of burnout. Results of this study also support the performance-related burnout discussion, which indicates burnout could be caused by slumps or periods of poor performance (Henschen, 1998).

A comprehensive three-part study of athlete burnout was conducted with tennis players (Gould, Tuffey et al., 1996; Gould, Udry et al., 1996; Gould et al., 1997). Phase 1 (Gould, Udry et al., 1996) included 62 athletes. Players were identified and labeled either burned out ($n = 30$) or comparison ($n = 32$) by United States Tennis Association (USTA) personnel. Each participant completed a series of questionnaires about their sport involvement. Results revealed a number of demographic variables, psychological and personality characteristics in which burned out athletes differed from the comparison players. Some variables include high amotivation, withdrawal, perfectionism, and a lack of coping strategies. Phase 2 (Gould, Tuffey, et al., 1996) included 10 tennis players identified as being the most burned out in the first phase of the study. The study utilized a qualitative research design. Researchers interviewed the participants in order to identify characteristics or symptoms of burnout. Results indicated a lack of motivation, frustration, being moody and irritable, and physically lacking energy were the most frequently mentioned characteristics. The third phase of the study (Gould et al., 1997) included three participants already burned out from tennis. The participants were specifically chosen because each showed a different foundation for burning out. One player's burnout was attributed to high levels of perfectionism and overinvolvement. A second athlete was burned out due to pressure and a desire for a social life. The third player physically overtrained and possessed inappropriate goals, which led to burnout.

Researchers concluded all burnout cases were individual and specific to each particular athlete. Although general research proves invaluable and useful, interventions should be tailored and geared toward the individual.

Optimism/Pessimism and Coping

When defining optimism and pessimism, the terms have commonly been considered in regards to outcome expectancies (Scheier & Carver, 1985). The meaning of optimism in the outcome expectancies context is possessing positive expectations and favorable perceptions on life. In contrast, pessimism is considered having a negative outlook on life thinking the future is undesirable (Scheier & Carver, 1985, 1987).

Many studies have examined the influence of optimism and pessimism on decisions about coping strategies (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992; Grove & Heard, 1997; Lightsey, 1996; Scheier & Carver, 1987; Scheier, et al., 1989; Scheier, Weintraub, & Carver, 1986). Two types of coping strategies are problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping (Scheier & Carver, 1987). People utilizing problem-focused coping make an effort to manage the sources of stress, eventually remove the threatening stimuli, and then proceed toward goal attainment. In contrast, people employing emotion-focused coping attempt to remove the emotional distress caused by the threatening stimuli as opposed to removing the actual stressor. Scheier and Carver (1987) noted if people expect positive outcomes, they are more likely to utilize problem-focused coping. Optimists usually possess positive expectations; therefore, they will most likely employ problem-focused coping. Scheier, et al. (1986) examined optimism and ways of coping in male and female undergraduate students and found optimism to be positively

associated with problem-focused coping. Another study of 672 college freshmen also found the same association between optimism and active coping (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992). This form of active coping also involves goal setting (Lightsey, 1996). Optimistic coronary artery bypass surgery (CABS) patients were more likely to set goals and make post surgery plans than the pessimistic CABS patients (Scheier, et al., 1989). Another aspect of active coping consists of efforts to seek out and obtain social support. Research has indicated optimists are more likely than pessimists to find some sort of social support to aid them during difficult times (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992; Lightsey, 1996; Scheier, et al., 1986).

Optimism/Pessimism and Health

Research has been conducted on how optimism and pessimism affect health and wellness. After a thorough review of literature, Lightsey (1996) summarized the issue by stating optimism is strongly related to physical and psychological health. Scheier and Carver (1985) administered questionnaires to 141 male and female undergraduate students. The researchers wanted to test the hypothesis that optimistic individuals would report being bothered less by 39 commonly occurring symptoms (i.e., dizziness, muscle soreness, fatigue) during a set period of time. Results indicated students categorized as optimistic reported being bothered less by the designated physical symptoms than the other participants. Scheier et al. (1989) examined 51 middle-aged men who had undergone bypass surgery. The researchers obtained information about physical recovery, mood, and overall quality of life from the participants just prior to surgery, 6-8 days postoperatively, and six months postoperatively. Along with supporting past research

about optimism and coping efforts, the results revealed optimism was also associated with faster rates of recovery and fewer postoperative complications. In addition, the optimistic participants were able to return to normal life activities with an overall higher quality of life faster than the participants identified as pessimistic.

Peterson, Seligman, and Vaillant (1988) utilized data from a separate longitudinal study in order to determine if pessimism was a risk factor for physical illness. Results indicated men who were pessimistic were less healthy later in life than the optimists. Specifically, the researchers summarized being pessimistic did not predict the immediate health of the participants but successfully predicted physical illness two and three decades later in life.

Optimism in Sport

After considerable observation and testing, Seligman (1991) made a few predictions involving sport and optimism. All things being equal, Seligman asserts the optimistic athletes and teams will be victorious. Under pressure and in the face of difficult challenges, optimists will try harder. Also, when athletes go from being pessimistic to being optimistic they will win more. Czech (1998) examined sport orientation's relationship with optimism and pessimism. The Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) and the Sport Orientation Questionnaire (SOQ) (Gill & Deeter, 1988) were administered to 259 male and female athletes. Sport orientation includes competitiveness, win orientation, and goal orientation. No significant differences were found for any of the three aspects of sport orientation between optimistic and pessimistic athletes. Another study investigated the relationship

between optimism/pessimism and goal attainment in collegiate golfers (Wilson, 1998). After implementing a two-month goal setting program, researchers found optimistic athletes reached more goals than the pessimistic athletes.

Seligman, Nolen-Hoeksema, Thornton, and Thornton (1990) investigated optimism/pessimism and performance in two university swimming teams. The results indicated pessimistic swimmers exhibited more unexpected poor performances than their optimistic cohorts. The researchers also simulated defeat by giving false scores and times to the swimmers after a performance. They found, although optimistic swimmers' subsequent performance did not change, pessimistic swimmers' performance declined. In conjunction with the research regarding coping strategies and optimism, Grove and Heard (1997) studied athletes' reactions during slumps in performance and found optimism to be positively related to athletes utilizing problem-focused coping.

Optimism and Quitting

One study particularly applicable to the present research topic focused on optimism and pessimism as predictors of quitting. Seligman and Schulman (1986) investigated 104 life insurance sales agents. New agents were administered questionnaires during initial training immediately after being hired. Researchers also collected information at the end of one year to determine which agents had quit. Results indicated pessimistic sales agents were twice as likely to quit their jobs than the optimistic agents. More than half (67%) of the sales agents still working at the end of one year were classified as optimistic.

Measuring Optimism and Pessimism

The Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) measures optimism and pessimism. The LOT-R is a 10-item self-report questionnaire in which participants are asked to indicate the extent of their agreement with each item on a five-point Likert scale ranging from “A” strongly agree to “E” strongly disagree. Three of the items are worded in a positive manner, and three are depicted negatively. Four items are filler items and are not scored in the analysis. When scoring the LOT-R, “A” responses are given a score of five, “B” a four, “C” a three, “D” a two, and “E” are given a score of one.

Past research and literature has placed optimism and pessimism on opposite ends of a continuum (Scheier & Carver, 1985). The unidimensional scoring of the LOT-R is based on this assumption. In order to obtain the unidimensional score, the items described negatively are reverse scored then added with the total of the positively worded items. Higher unidimensional scores represent greater optimism.

Further research considered optimism and pessimism to be independent of each other, and bi-dimensional scoring of the LOT-R was suggested (Burke, Joyner, Czech, & Wilson, 2000; Chang & McBride-Chang, 1996; Hummer, Dember, Melton, Howe, & Schefft, 1992; Marshall & Lang, 1990). The bi-dimensional scoring recognizes optimism and pessimism can both exist within a person (Burke et al., 2000). The bi-dimensional score consists of two numbers, the total of the positively worded items and the total of the negatively worded items, neither of which are reverse scored. Higher scores for each of the bi-dimensional measures indicate greater optimism and pessimism.

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What other *organized* sports do you participate in and how long have you participated in each one?

(Please check *all* sports that apply and how long you have participated in each one.)

	less than 2 years	longer than 2 years but less than 4 years	more than 4 years
_____ Baseball	_____	_____	_____
_____ Basketball	_____	_____	_____
_____ Cheerleading	_____	_____	_____
_____ Cross Country	_____	_____	_____
_____ Diving	_____	_____	_____
_____ Football	_____	_____	_____
_____ Field Hockey	_____	_____	_____
_____ Golf	_____	_____	_____
_____ Ice Hockey	_____	_____	_____
_____ Lacrosse	_____	_____	_____
_____ Softball	_____	_____	_____
_____ Swimming	_____	_____	_____
_____ Tennis	_____	_____	_____
_____ Track	_____	_____	_____
_____ Volleyball	_____	_____	_____
_____ Other Sport	_____	_____	_____
_____ name of other sport			
_____ Other Sport	_____	_____	_____
_____ name of other sport			

Life Orientation Test - Revised

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

A = I agree a lot.
 B = I agree a little.
 C = I neither agree nor disagree.
 D = I disagree a little.
 E = I disagree a lot.

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. In uncertain times, I usually expect the best. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 2. It's easy for me to relax. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 3. If something can go wrong for me, it will. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 4. I'm always optimistic about my future. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 5. I enjoy my friends a lot. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 6. It's important for me to keep busy. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 7. I hardly ever expect things to go my way. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 8. I don't get upset too easily. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 9. I rarely count on good things happening to me. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 10. Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad. | A | B | C | D | E |

Burnout Inventory for Athletes

Did it occur last year:					
	never	seldom	regularly	mostly	always
1. You did not feel like attending training?	1	2	3	4	5
2. You preferred to spend time on things other than soccer?	1	2	3	4	5
3. You felt tired more than usual?	1	2	3	4	5
4. You felt burned out from soccer?	1	2	3	4	5
5. You were thinking: "Why am I doing this?"	1	2	3	4	5
6. You had difficulty falling asleep at night?	1	2	3	4	5
7. You were fed up with anything having to do with soccer.	1	2	3	4	5

You intend to quit playing soccer within one year.
(Please circle one.)

Absolutely not

100% certain

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX E

Institutional Review Board Forms

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD RESEARCH PROPOSAL FORM FOR RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN PARTICIPANTS

Brandy A. Rentz

Department of Health and Kinesiology, College of Health and Professional Studies

I. Statement of the problem to be studied

Burnout has been defined as a psychological, emotional, and physical withdrawal from activities previously enjoyed by athletes. Decreasing the symptoms and effects of burnout is a current challenge in youth sports. Past research has looked at possible links between burnout and various psychological traits. This study will focus on the influence of optimism and pessimism on burnout in youth soccer players. Research questions to be addressed: Are optimistic individuals less prone to burnout? Are pessimistic individuals more prone to burnout? Does burnout cause a person to be more pessimistic?

II. Describe your research design.

A short sport (demographics) questionnaire, the Life Orientation Test–Revised (Scheier, Carver, and Bridges, 1994 - optimism/pessimism inventory), and the Burnout Inventory for Athletes (Van Yperen, 1997) will be given to 100 male and female youth soccer players (ages 11 – 19) participating in high school, recreational, and premier/select soccer leagues during the Fall of 2000. Participants will be volunteers selected on the basis of involvement in teams whose coaches have also agreed to the data collection. Coaches will be present when the questionnaires are administered during a scheduled practice. Completion of questionnaires will take about 15 minutes. Participants will be categorized based on optimism, pessimism, and burnout scores.

III. Description of possible risk to human participants. If procedures involve the use of any biohazardous materials or substances (including, but not limited to, hazardous chemicals, restricted drugs, needles or other contaminable

materials, and/or infectious agents) the researcher must complete the IBC Biosafety Protocol (See the DIRB Chair for appropriate forms).

Because only questionnaire data will be collected, there will be minimal risk to participants.

IV. Description of possible benefits to human participants and society in general.

Studying outlook on life (optimism and pessimism) and how it relates to the prevention and detection of burnout on youth soccer players could help future sport participants manage their own signs and symptoms of burnout. Because burnout is a phenomenon also found in many professions the results of this research could have implications for society in general.

V. Information on participants to be utilized in the research. Describe the sample and sampling technique. If flyers or advertisements are used include a copy. If using in-class methods, please provide a rationale for why the data has to be collected during class time as well as the educational benefits that the students will realize by participation.

The research will include 100 male and female youth soccer players (ages 11-19) participating in high school, and premier/select soccer leagues during the Fall of 2000. The teams are not randomly selected. Participants will be volunteers selected on the basis of involvement in teams whose coaches have also agreed to the data collection. Permission and informed consent will be obtained from all pertinent coaches and authority figures. The PI will administer the questionnaires to the players during a scheduled practice session. Completion of questionnaires will take about 15 minutes.

VI. Materials and procedures to be used. Please attach a copy of any questionnaire, interview questions, flyers and/or newsprint or other materials that may be used.

See attached sport (demographics) questionnaire, Life Orientation Test–Revised (LOT-R), and Burnout Inventory for Athletes (BIA).

VII. Procedures to secure informed consent.

Informed consent will be secured from the older participants (15-20 year olds) with a short consent to participate in a research project form (see attached participant form). For the younger (14 years and younger), the parents will sign the consent forms, and the participant will sign a short assent form (see attached parent consent form and participant assent form). Participants will be given the forms prior to administration of the research questionnaires. No deception will be necessary. Team coaches will also sign a Permission to Approach Players form prior to administration of the research questionnaires to the players (see attached coach form).

VIII. Procedures to gain consent and utilize minors in the research.

Consent will be gained from the parents of minors (see attached parent form).

IX. Please provide an explanation, if any of how the data collected will relate to illegal activities.

No illegal activities will be used during this data collection.

GEORGIA SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY
Department of Health & Kinesiology
College of Health & Professional Studies

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT FORM

I understand that the questionnaire I am about to complete is part of a research project entitled, “The Relationships Between Optimism and Pessimism and Burnout in Youth Soccer Players” conducted by Brandy A. Rentz under the supervision of Dr. Kevin L. Burke.

This research is designed to examine the possible relationship between levels of optimism and pessimism and burnout in youth soccer players. By signing below, I am agreeing to allow Brandy A. Rentz and colleagues to use the information I provide in presentations and publications with the understanding that results will be disseminated in group fashion only. I understand that any relationship between myself and the information I contribute to this study will be kept confidential.

I understand that I may terminate my participation in this study at any time without prejudice to myself. Given the nature of this questionnaire, I further acknowledge that the investigator may, at her discretion, terminate my participation in this project at any time deemed appropriate.

Should you have any questions concerning this research project, please call Dr. Kevin L. Burke at (912) 681-5267. If you have any questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant in this study, you may contact the Institutional Review Board Coordinator at the Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs (912) 681-5465.

Signature

Date

Printed Name

**GEORGIA SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY
Department of Health & Kinesiology
College of Health & Professional Studies**

COACH'S PERMISSION TO APPROACH PLAYERS

I understand that the questionnaire my players are about to complete is part of a research project entitled, "The Relationships Between Optimism and Pessimism and Burnout in Youth Soccer Players" conducted by Brandy A. Rentz under the supervision of Dr. Kevin L. Burke. This research is designed to examine the possible relationship between levels of optimism and pessimism and burnout in youth soccer players.

By signing below, I am agreeing to allow Brandy A. Rentz to approach my players for possible participation in the research project. I understand that any relationship between myself and the information my players contribute to this study will be kept confidential.

Should you have any questions concerning this research project, please call Dr. Kevin L. Burke at (912) 681-5267. If you have any questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant in this study, you may contact the Institutional Review Board Coordinator at the Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs (912) 681-5465.

Signature _____ Date _____

Printed Name _____

GEORGIA SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY
Department of Health & Kinesiology
College of Health & Professional Studies

PARENTAL CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT FORM

I understand that the questionnaire my son/daughter is about to complete is part of a research project entitled, “The Relationships Between Optimism and Pessimism and Burnout in Youth Soccer Players” conducted by Brandy A. Rentz under the supervision of Dr. Kevin L. Burke.

This research is designed to examine the possible relationship between levels of optimism and pessimism and burnout in youth soccer players. By signing below, I am agreeing to allow Brandy A. Rentz and colleagues to use the information my son/daughter provides in presentations and publications with the understanding that results will be disseminated in group fashion only. I understand that any relationship between my son/daughter and the information he/she contributes to this study will be kept confidential.

I understand that my son/daughter may terminate his/her participation in this study at any time without prejudice to himself/herself. Given the nature of this questionnaire, I further acknowledge that the investigator may, at her discretion, terminate his/her participation in this project at any time deemed appropriate.

Should you have any questions concerning this research project, please call Dr. Kevin L. Burke at (912) 681-5267. If you have any questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant in this study, you may contact the Institutional Review Board Coordinator at the Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs (912) 681-5465.

Signature

Date

Printed Name

Son/Daughter's Name

GEORGIA SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY
Department of Health & Kinesiology
College of Health & Professional Studies

ASSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT FORM

I understand that the questionnaire I am about to complete is part of a research project entitled, “The Relationships Between Optimism and Pessimism and Burnout in Youth Soccer Players” conducted by Brandy A. Rentz under the supervision of Dr. Kevin L. Burke.

My parents have given consent for me to participate in this project. By signing below, I am agreeing to allow Brandy A. Rentz and colleagues to use the information I provide in presentations and publications. I know that my results will be kept confidential.

I understand that I may end my participation in this study at any time without unfairness to myself. The investigator may end my participation in this project at any time deemed appropriate.

Signature

Date

Printed Name

Georgia Southern University
Office of Research Services & Sponsored Programs

Institutional Review Board (IRB)

Phone: 912-681-5465

Fax: 912-681-0719

Ovsight@gasou.edu

P.O. Box 8005

Statesboro, GA 30460-8005

To: Brandy Rentz
Health and Kinesiology

Cc: Dr. Kevin L. Burke, Faculty Advisor
Health and Kinesiology

From: Mr. Neil Garretson, Coordinator
Research Oversight Committees (IACUC/IBC/IRB)

Date: November 28, 2000

Subject: Status of Conditional IRB Approval to Utilize Human Subjects in Research

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) Committee has received your revised and/or additional application materials for the approved research titled, "The Influence of Optimism and Pessimism on Burnout in Youth Soccer Players." You have satisfactorily met the conditions of your Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, as detailed in the November 20, 2000 approval letter.

Please remember that this approval is in effect for one year (11/20/00 – 11/20/01) and if at the end of that time there have been no substantive changes to the approved methodology, you may request a one year extension of the approval period.

Good luck with your research efforts, and if you have any questions, comments, or concerns about the status of you approval, please do not hesitate to contact me.

APPENDIX F

Biographical Summary

Brandy A. Rentz

Brandy A. Rentz is a Master of Science in Kinesiology graduate student specializing in Sport Psychology in the Department of Health and Kinesiology at Georgia Southern University. Brandy double majored in Psychology and Health and Exercise Science as an undergraduate at Centenary College of Louisiana. She graduated magna cum laude in 1997 receiving the Health and Exercise Science Senior Excellence Award from the college. Brandy was a member of the women's soccer team at Centenary where she was chosen for the Trans-American Athletic Conference All-Academic Team from 1993-1995 before a knee injury ended her college soccer career. She was also a member of Chi Omega Women's Fraternity and Alpha Chi Honor's Fraternity. Brandy was a teaching assistant for the Physical Activity Program at Georgia Southern University where she received the Outstanding Teaching Assistant Award for two consecutive years. As a member of the Association for the Advancement of Applied Sport Psychology, Brandy's research interests include psychology of injury, optimism/pessimism, team dynamics, and team cohesion. Her future plans are to earn a doctoral degree in sport psychology and teach at a college or university. Brandy is a proud Texan (where everything *is* bigger), originally from Plano, a large suburb of

Dallas. She enjoys sports, participating in intramural soccer and flag football, and watching hockey and football. She loves to read and travel and is crazy about dogs.