

NATIONAL COACHING INSTITUTE

Task 8

Psychological Preparation for Players

Brock D. Bourgase

Table of Contents

1 Assessing a Team

- Team Profile... page 1
- Competitive States Anxiety Inventory... page 1
- Profile of Mood States... page 8
- Competitive Anger and Aggressiveness Scale... page 11

2 Assessing a Player

- Player Profile... page 1
- Questionnaire... page 1
- Mental Training Strategies... page 2

3 Coaching Exceptional Student-Athletes

- The Benefits of High School Sport... page 1
- Gifted Self-Efficacy and Athletics... page 4
- Sport and Learning Disabilities... page 8
- A.D.H.D. and Phys. Ed. Class... page 11

4 Ideal Performance State

- Introduction... page 1
- Awareness... page 1
- Self-Efficacy... page 4
- Self-Talk... page 7
- Positivism... page 9

5 Conclusion

- Mental Training Philosophy... page 1
- Works Cited... page 3

1

Assessing a Team

- **Team Profile...** page 1
- **Competitive States Anxiety Inventory...** page 1
 - Test Breakdown... page 1
 - Team Scores... page 2
 - Multi-Dimensional Anxiety Theory... page 3
 - Mental Training Strategies... page 4
 - Short-Form Anxiety Rating Scale... page 8
- **Profile of Mood States...** page 8
 - Test Breakdown... page 9
 - Team Scores... page 9
 - Mental Training Strategies... page 10
- **Competitive Anger and Aggressiveness Scale...** page 11
 - Test Breakdown... page 11
 - Team Scores... page 12

TEAM PROFILE

The Central East Midget Development Program Boys' Team was comprised with elite athletes aged fifteen and under drawn from across the Toronto region. Five players were enrolled in Grade 8 and seven had just finished Grade 9. Throughout a thirteen-week season, the team practiced twice weekly and played a number of exhibition games. The training program peaked with the Ontario Summer Games in Sudbury, where the team had a record of 4-1 and won the Bronze Medal.

COMPETITIVE STATES ANXIETY INVENTORY

The Competitive States Anxiety Inventory (CSAI-2) is a five-minute test to measure Multi-Dimensional Anxiety Theory. Distinguishing between A-State (Somatic) and A-Trait (Cognitive) Anxiety enables coaches to specifically target their mental training strategies (Martens, Vealey, & Burton, 1990, p. 127).

TEST BREAKDOWN

The CSAI-2 sorts results into physical and mental symptoms of anxiety, in addition to self-confidence (Martens, Vealey, & Burton, 1990, p. 176). The athlete reads the statement and evaluates how they feel at that exact moment. They should not spend too much time on one statement.

A-Trait (Cognitive) Anxiety	A-State (Somatic) Anxiety	Self-Confidence
1. I am concerned about this competition.	2. I feel nervous.	3. I feel at ease.
4. I have self-doubts.	5. I feel jittery.	6. I feel comfortable.
7. I am concerned that I may not do as well in this competition as I could.	8. My body feels tense.	9. I feel self-confident.
10. I am concerned about losing.	11. I feel tense in my stomach.	12. I feel secure.
13. I am concerned about choking under pressure.	14. My body feels relaxed.	15. I'm confident I can meet the challenge.
16. I'm concerned about performing poorly.	17. My heart is racing.	18. I'm confident about performing well.
19. I'm concerned about reaching my goal.	20. I feel my stomach sinking.	21. I feel mentally relaxed.
22. I'm concerned that others will be disappointed with my performance.	23. My hands are clammy.	24. I'm confident because I mentally picture myself.
25. I'm concerned I won't be able to concentrate.	26. My body feels tight.	27. I'm confident about coming through under pressure.

TEST SCORING

- Players respond to each statement indicating how they feel at that particular time
- Responses are scored as follows:

Not At All	One Point	Moderately So	Three Points
Somewhat	Two Points	Very Much So	Four Points

- The scoring for Question 14 is reversed.
- Each player receives a score in the three fields between nine and thirty-six

TEAM SCORES

The team members filled out the questionnaire early in the season before the first exhibition game and shortly before the Ontario Summer Games.

Player	Grade	A-Trait (Cognitive) Anxiety			A-State (Somatic) Anxiety			Self-Confidence		
		Average	12/07/10	3/08/10	Average	12/07/10	3/08/10	Average	12/07/10	3/08/10
A	8	28	28		26	26		17	17	
B	9	22		22	22		22		24	24
C	8	14.5	18	11	14.5	20	9	26	16	36
D	8	23.5	28	19	14.5	14	15	24	24	24
E	9	15.5	17	14	13	11	15	17	21	13
F	8	20.5	19	22	9	9	9	31	27	35
G	9	13	15	11	14	14	14	14	11	17
H	9	18	18		17	17		35	35	
I	9	19.5	20	19	12	13	11	25	23	27
J	9	12.5	16	9	11	11	11	26	26	26
K	9	17	15	19	13.5	16	11	25.5	26	25
L	9	13.5	13	14	17	15	19	26	28	24
TEAM		17.4	18.8	16	14.3	15.1	13.6	24.1	23.1	25.1

AVERAGE SCORES

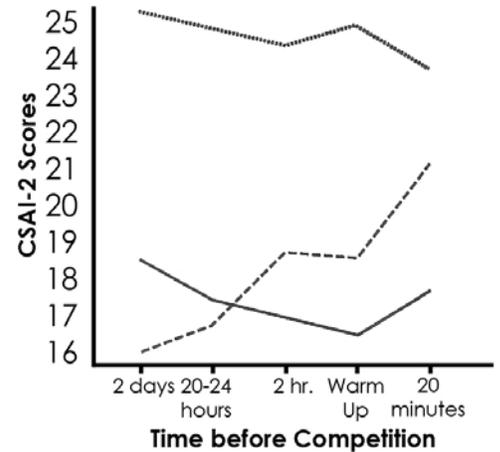
	Cognitive Anxiety	Somatic Anxiety	Self-Confidence
Male High School Athletes	18.48	17.70	24.73
Basketball Players	20.51	18.57	24.64

- Basketball players have higher anxiety levels and lower self-confidence scores than other sports (Martens, Vealey, & Burton, 1990, p. 180).

SCORES OVER TIME

As the competition date approaches, anxiety is reduced. Athletes get a more realistic sense of what they must accomplish and believe that the task is more manageable. A skilful coach will include a great deal of preparation in daily practices so all players feel confident in their abilities at all times. Specific preparation as each competition approaches reduces anxiety.

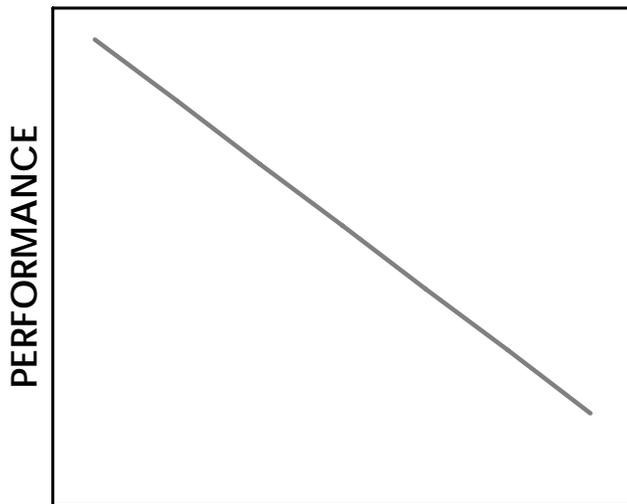
There is a slight increase in anxiety in the minutes immediately before tip-off. Now is not the time for detailed preparation but rather a concise talk to energize and focus the team (Martens, Vealey, & Burton, 1990, p. 152).



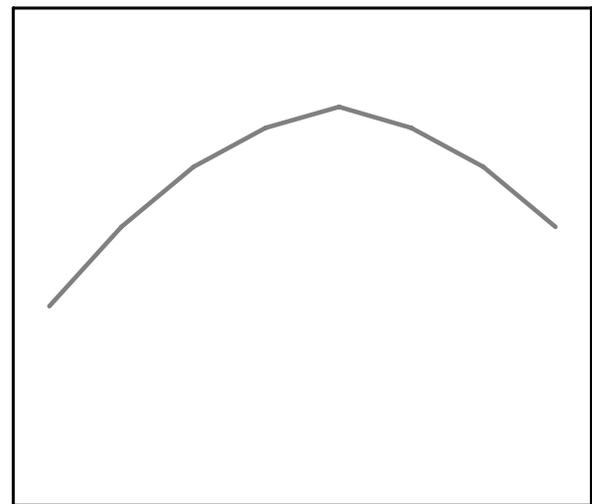
Legend
 Self-Confidence
 ---- Somatic Anxiety
 — Cognitive Anxiety

MULTI-DIMENSIONAL ANXIETY THEORY

Each athlete has a unique reaction to performance anxiety. Every athlete will display a particular combination of symptoms in response to stress. Coaches must allocate time for mental training in a group setting and with individual team members. It is the responsibility of the coach to find the optimal level of anxiety that maximizes the performance of each player (Raglin & Hanin, 2000, p. 95).



COGNITIVE ANXIETY



SOMATIC ANXIETY

Performance usually improves as Cognitive Anxiety falls. As the athlete devotes less mental energy to worries and doubts, they become more confident and make better decisions. Performance tends to peak with a moderate level of Somatic Anxiety, following an Inverted-U relationship. There is some positive correlation between A-Trait and A-State anxiety (Sonstroem & Bernardo, 1982, p. 244). In order to be properly energized for a competition, it is natural to have some physical symptoms of anxiety, such as an elevated heart rate. When anxiety is outside of the personal Zone of Optimal Functioning, performance suffers (Raglin & Hanin, 2000, p. 108).

With regards to Self-Confidence, there is a caveat. Usually, more Self-Confidence equates to a higher the level of performance. However, Self-Confidence may be artificially high because the athlete is not objectively evaluating themselves relative to the opponent. Also, many basketball players believe that shooters can become hot and make several shots in a row. Oddly, the probability of making a shot after making three in a row is only forty-six percent, relative to a fifty-eight percent probability after three consecutive misses (Gilovich, Vallone, & Tversky, 1985, p. 299).

Inappropriate levels of Self-Confidence may lead athletes to attempt higher-risk shots that have a low chance of success. When basketball players doubt themselves, they tend to fall back on safer shots that are more likely to go in the basket.

MENTAL TRAINING STRATEGIES

Early in the season, the team showed less anxiety than other basketball players. Initially, self-confidence was somewhat lower than average. On the whole, nobody was subject to extreme degrees of anxiety, which is expected since all of the athletes had extensive experience (for their age group) in elite basketball competition. Although the Ontario Summer Games were a highly organized event, the athletes had been involved in other intense competitions at the provincial level before.

STRATEGIES FOR THE ENTIRE TEAM

To improve self-confidence and reduce anxiety throughout the team, the coaches employed some general strategies.

Building Cohesion: Since the team was made up of athletes from different schools and clubs, it was necessary to build a positive environment that welcomed all players. This is an important step because basketball teams with high levels of cohesion win more games than those who do not get along as well (Ruder & Gill, 1982, p. 228). Fortunately, the team grew closer together and more comfortable as the season progressed and performance improved in step.

The summer team was at a disadvantage because more stable teams are likely to have an established level of cohesion and become less susceptible to the influence of a single win or loss (Ruder & Gill, 1982, p. 233). Fortunately the positive nature of the coaches, players, and parents kept everyone upbeat after a poor loss early in the season.

Style of Play: At the Ontario Summer Games, it was necessary to use two shifts and give each group equal time. The line-ups were consciously chosen so the players who enjoyed playing up-tempo comprised one shift and those who preferred to play at a slower speed made up the other. This allowed players to complement each others' abilities and have fun (Stabeno, 2004, p. 146). Coaches should remember to always put players in positions where they are capable of succeeding.

Pre-Competition Routine: Coaches must insist upon consistency during pre-game preparation. Basketball players who can maintain the same level of moderate anxiety have the least amount of performance variance (Sonstroem & Bernardo, 1982, p. 244). Coaches should use the same pre-game routines for physical (nutrition, stretching, warm-up, etc.) and mental (energizing, focus, game plan, etc.) preparation.

During the Ontario Summer Games, it was necessary to adjust the warm-up routine slightly because of a transportation schedule which often arrived at the sites forty-five minutes in advance. When the team was waiting for a longer than usual time, the coaches divided the squad into smaller groups and worked on skills. When the score clock hit 25:00, the formal pregame routine would begin. Coaches should oversee the players in case there is anything unusual that will require correction.

Self-Control: Many basketball players demonstrate a lack of self-control and intolerance towards teammates, opponents, and officials (Geron, Furst, & Rotstein, 1986, p. 131). This characteristic may manifest itself in unnecessary fouls (both personal and technical) or frustration that impacts the outcome of the game. Coaches should model the way and show athletes how to handle their emotions on the court, at school, and in the community.

One of the most effective strategies which a coach can employ in the face of adversity - such as a poor call or injury - is to remain calm and centre the team. Using a soothing tone of voice, the coach eases the worries of the players, reframes the situation, and refocuses everyone's efforts.

Energy Level: Over the course of the Ontario Summer Games, it is difficult to keep the players energy, mostly because of poor sleeping and eating habits. Coaches organized regular bedtimes, to varying degrees of success, and encouraged the team to remain rested in their spare time. For a second year running, the dining hall food was very unappetizing and portions tightly controlled. Before a critical semi-final game against the Central West Region team, parents took the players for a nutritious meal to raise energy levels and reduce somatic anxiety.

STRATEGIES FOR INDIVIDUAL PLAYERS

Player A was a quiet player who unfortunately suffered a leg injury and was unable to attend the Ontario Summer Games. As one of the youngest and least experienced players, he felt significant anxiety when faced with elite competition. The coaches provided significant positive reinforcement to maintain his self-confidence. It was also necessary to help the player debrief his performance so he knew what he did well and what he could do better. He was encouraged to use mental visualization to see himself performing well on the court.

Player B suffered mild patellar tendinopathy ("Jumper's Knee") during the middle of the training period was nervous about reinjuring himself. A sports therapist supervised the practices and helped the coaches made accommodations while the player recovered. He needed to regain his confidence in his knee so he could participate fully without holding

back. The player required some additional stretching before games and practices and was able to use some of this time to reduce his somatic anxiety. During games, coaches had to remind the player to increase his active awareness.

Player C was an excellent athlete and leader. Although he was a Grade 8 student, he carried himself very well at all times. It is true that he experienced high levels of somatic anxiety early in the season but this was part of his arousal to get ready to play. The player was often able to drive to the hoop and get fouled. The coaches suggested that he use some breathing exercises to calm down and focus on the free throws.

To help the player build his self-confidence and reduce cognitive anxiety, the coaches encouraged him to take initiative on and off the court. He had so much energy that it was necessary to pull him aside and calm him down when the game became intense.

Player D improved a great deal over the training period. During the first few games, he was very nervous, probably because he was not used to the high level of competition. It was not a matter of confidence, although there was significant cognitive anxiety. The player was tentative on the court and made some mistakes because he panicked and rushed himself.

After speaking to the player about his pre-competition routine, the coaches learned that he used music and self-talk to get ready for games. The coaches recommended that he continue these techniques, in addition to mental visualization picture what he would do when he received the ball. Post-game reflections helped the player debrief his performance. Over the season, the player was able to reduce his levels of anxiety and improve his performance in order to become one of the better players on the team.

Player E had a very jovial demeanour during games and exemplified the “Happy Go Lucky” type of athlete. Although he was one of the leading scorers on the team, he did not yet have a complete game. While rebounding, playing defence, and moving away from the ball, the player lacked intensity so the coaches tried to raise his level of arousal. The player was advised to develop a pre-competition routine to energize himself before games although the coaches often had to remind him to execute the routine.

Player F was a very calm player with good leadership qualities. He was able to play with or without the ball and was rightfully confident in his abilities. To help the player with some cognitive anxiety, the coaches advised him to take a greater role on the court and employ positive self-talk. A young player, he was not familiar with the idea of a pre-competition routine. Coaches guided the player to help him create his own routine.

Player G was very distant and had a passive personality. He did not experience much cognitive or somatic anxiety and it seemed that he had a low level of arousal. In order for him to raise his level of intensity, he needed to face some sort of adversity or obstacle on the court. The coaches proposed that he devote some time before games to get focused and energized. The player was not very confident in his abilities; it was possible that he had low levels of confidence because of his experience at school or at home. The

coaches tried to provide as much positive reinforcement as possible throughout the training period.

Player H quit the team midway through the season. The coaches had been working with him to create a pre-competition routine to help energize himself but there was not enough time to see the results of this mental training.

Player I did not usually experience much nervousness although his levels of anxiety rose during the minutes before tip-off. The coaches spoke to the player and provided some concise instructions to get him ready for the competition. Sometimes, it was necessary to touch base with the player at half-time to see how he was feeling. The coaches indicated some keywords that the player could use as self-talk to get ready.

Some of this initial anxiety may have been due to the novelty of the entire process. Once the player performed successfully at the Ontario Summer Games, he demonstrated a high level of comfort with the entire process. Returning to his high school and club teams in the fall, the player will probably showcase his initiative and leadership skills.

Player J was a leader though the season. He was confident in his abilities although he experienced some cognitive anxiety. Sometimes, the player would pass up a shot in order to be a better teammate. The coaches were always positive, urging him to take more shots on the court. The player was instructed to make use of mental rehearsals and positive self-talk to inspire him to take more shots.

Player K was quiet although his leadership role on the team increased over the course of the summer. He displayed average levels of anxiety and self-confidence throughout the program. The coaches proposed that he try to take more initiative during games and follow a regular pre-competition routine.

The player was one of the few who successfully studied the opposition - for example forcing them to their weak hand - from the start of the season. Also, he exhibited tremendous effort by chasing loose balls and diving to the floor. The coaches acknowledged this hard work as a way to boost the player's self-confidence and convince others to play with the same level of commitment.

Player L was by far the best player on the team and will likely make the U15 Provincial Team next summer. I also had a chance to coach him at the Phase 1 Top Prospects camp, where he showed similar talent and some of the same mental training issues. The player would energize himself before the game and on the bench. This suited his abilities because he was very athletic on the court. The supported the pre-competition routine that the player used to energize himself.

At times - for example after a gaffe by a teammate or a missed called by an official - the player would lose his focus and show frustration. The coaches had to get his attention and bring him back to task. The player needed help reframing situations in order to convert threats into opportunities.

He was always the best player on his school or club team so the coaches counselled him about playing against opponents who were as tough as he was or how to be a leader when playing with teammates who less skilled. At the Ontario Summer Games, the player stepped up and took initiative on both ends of the court to lead the team to victories.

It's difficult for players to make decisions about their long-term future in a sport when they are thirteen and fourteen years old. Ontario Basketball wants him to be a part of the Nike Centre for Performance and Provincial Teams in the future and they will be counselling the player on the available options. While everyone wants the player to have access to expert training, nobody wants him to feel pressured by the process.

SHORT-FORM ANXIETY RATING SCALE

Although the CSAI-2 is reliable, it can be time consuming and impractical to administer shortly before a competition. In order to measure quickly measure somatic and cognitive anxiety and take the pulse of the team before, during, and after a competition, researchers created a short-form questionnaire consisting of two composite statements that were highly correlated with the long-form results (Cox, Russell, & Robb, 1998, p. 31).

INSTRUCTIONS

Relative to the upcoming competition, rate how you feel right now:

Somatic Anxiety Composite Statement

- I feel nervous, my body feels tight, and/or my stomach tense.

Cognitive Anxiety Composite Statement

- I feel concerned about performing poorly and that others will be disappointed with my performance.

TEST SCORING

- Responses are scored as follows:

Not At All	One Point	Quite a Bit	Five Points
A Little Bit	Two Points	Very Much So	Six Points
Somewhat	Three Points	Intensely So	Seven Points
Moderately So	Four Points		

PROFILE OF MOOD STATES

The Profile of Mood States - Adolescents (POMS-A) a questionnaire that evaluates the emotions experienced by youth teams at specific points during the season. The test includes feelings that are grouped into six broader emotional states (anger, confusion, depression, fatigue, tension, and vigour).

The adolescent version of the test was created because some of the questions were deemed too protracted and sophisticated for the education and experience of the typical high school student-athlete. The original test contains sixty-five questions but the adolescent version was tested and is deemed to be a valid replacement (Terry, Lane, Lane, & Keohane, 1999, p. 869).

TEST BREAKDOWN

The test lists feelings that players often experience when competing in elite sport. Players give their responses and describe the intensity of their feelings at that moment.

Anger

- 7. Annoyed
- 11. Bitter
- 19. Angry
- 22. Bad Tempered

Confusion

- 3. Confused
- 9. Mixed-Up
- 17. Muddled
- 24. Uncertain

Depression

- 5. Depressed
- 6. Downhearted
- 12. Unhappy
- 16. Miserable

Fatigue

- 4. Worn-Out
- 8. Exhausted
- 10. Sleepy
- 21. Tired

Tension

- 1. Panicky
- 13. Anxious
- 14. Worried
- 18. Nervous

Vigour

- 2. Lively
- 15. Energetic
- 20. Active
- 23. Alert

TEST SCORING

- Responses are scored as follows:

Not At All	Zero Points	Quite A Bit	Three Points
A Little	One Point	Extremely	Four Points
Moderately	Two Points		

TEAM SCORES

The team filled out the POMS-A after the round-robin at the Ontario Summer Games.

Player	Gr.	Emotional State					
		Anger	Confusion	Depression	Fatigue	Tension	Vigour
B	9	5	1	0	5	3	13
C	8	0	2	0	3	4	8
D	8	11	7	8	6	9	7
E	9	4	0	0	1	1	4
F	8	3	0	0	9	8	16
G	9	2	0	1	3	1	3
I	9	0	1	0	5	4	10
J	9	0	0	0	0	1	7
K	9	3	0	2	2	3	11
L	8	4	1	0	2	4	12
TEAM		3.2	1.2	1.1	3.6	3.8	9.1

AVERAGE SCORES

Anger	Confusion	Depression	Fatigue	Tension	Vigour
1.26	1.66	1.36	3.23	3.63	8.76

MENTAL TRAINING STRATEGIES

STRATEGIES FOR THE ENTIRE TEAM

Players who start the game show significantly more vigour, moderately more tension, and slightly higher levels of anger and fatigue. Bench players may exhibit some depression (Craighead, Privette, Vallianos, & Byrkit, 1986, p. 115). Coaches may need to take these emotions into account when preparing teams for the games.

Anger: The team showed more anger than average. It was challenging to keep the team's arousal focused. No team should play with imprecise anger but rather a driven intensity. Coaches can call timeouts to address specific emotional situations on the court or pull players aside when they are substituting out of the game. Handling these situations before they explode is best but this is not always possible.

Confusion: This team was not any more confused about their goals than their opponents. Although it was not a grave problem, it is still something that coaches should be mindful about. Coaches should not add to the stress of a competition by being too complicated. Instructions should always be quick and to the point.

When a team is not executing a skill correctly, coaches should stop the drill and ensure that the players perform it correctly. Occasionally, the Central East team lost sight of the details on the court, even during something as seemingly insignificant as the pre-game warm-up routine. It was difficult for the coaches to remind the squad of the importance of the "Little Things" but consistency was paramount. Simple self-talk keywords help the players stay focused and on-task.

Depression: Positive feedback helped the team look on the bright side of things. Due to good team chemistry, team members provided social support for each other. Encouraging players to adopt positivism or goal setting tactics enable them to take control of their situation and feel happier about things.

Fatigue: Since the team was slightly fatigued after a tough win against Tri-County, the coaches emphasized rest before playing Central West. To ensure that everyone ate properly before the semi-final match, the parents took the players to East Side Mario's.

Tension: Breathing and centering exercises, stretching and warm-up activities, and imagery helped the team stay relaxed during the Ontario Summer Games. Paying too much attention to a closely learned habit will impede performance. As opposed to flowing smoothly, a free throw or putting motion may become jerky and individual

components carry more weight than required (Horn, 2002, p. 398). A mental cue, like a key phrase or mental image may take some pressure off.

Vigour: The team had an average energy level so coach was more a matter of energizing specific players. Sometimes substitutes may not be ready to enter the game. Most importantly is the creation of an energy level on the bench to prepare players to enter the game and prevent players from tiring out.

STRATEGIES FOR INDIVIDUAL PLAYERS

There is mixed data about whether mood is significantly linked to performance. Some reports hypothesize that above average scores in Vigour and lower scores in the other domains is correlated to successful performance whereas other reports have found the effects are highly individualized (Lane & Chappell, 2001, pp. 183-4).

Player D was a very intellectual player who tended to over-analyze the sport. Affirmations and keywords permitted him to keep his role simple. An athlete's vision inspired him as he prepared before games. **Players E** and **G** required extensive help with their energy level. The coaches could watch their performance early in games and know whether they needed reinforcement or not. It was important that **Player F** maintain good sleeping and nutrition habits to stay energized. Self-talk also helped reduce anxiety and remain relaxed.

COMPETITIVE ANGER & AGGRESSIVENESS SCALE

The Competitive Aggressiveness and Anger Scale (C.A.A.S.) asks players to rate a dozen questions about how much belligerence is tolerable on the playing field (Maxwell & Moores, 2007, p. 183). Certain forms of assertive or aggressive behaviour are acceptable but others are not (Wall & Gruber, 1986, p. 23). Although the C.S.A.I. can monitor arousal level, it may not correctly analyze the anger and aggressiveness which leads to poor decisions, unnecessary fouls, or expressions of frustrations.

TEST BREAKDOWN

INSTRUCTIONS

Rate the acceptability of each of these behaviours on the playing field.

Anger

- 1) I become irritable if I am disadvantaged during a match.
- 2) I feel bitter towards my opponent if I lose.
- 3) I get made when I lose points.
- 4) I show my irritation when frustrated during a game.
- 5) I find it difficult to control my temper during a match.
- 6) Officials' mistakes make me angry.

Aggressiveness

- 7) Violent behaviour, directed towards an opponent, is acceptable.
- 8) It is acceptable to use illegal physical force to gain an advantage.
- 9) I taunt my opponents to make them lose concentration.
- 10) I use excessive force to gain an advantage.
- 11) I verbally insult opponents to distract them.
- 12) Opponents accept a certain degree of abuse.

TEST SCORING

- Responses are scored as follows:

Almost Never	One Point	Quite Often	Four Points
Occasionally	Two Points	Almost Always	Five Points
Sometimes	Three Points		

- Responses are multiplied by the factor weight and summed to create a rating for Anger and Aggressiveness.

Anger			Aggressiveness		
<u>Question</u>	<u>Weight</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Question</u>	<u>Weight</u>	<u>Mean</u>
1	1.45	2.71	7	2.61	1.49
2	1.58	2.23	8	2.67	1.66
3	1.63	3.39	9	1.87	1.98
4	1.55	2.54	10	2.52	1.78
5	2.01	1.88	11	2.02	1.77
6	1.65	3.12	12	1.78	2.37

TEAM SCORES

Influenced by the outcome of a game, intensity levels can decrease after a win and increase after a loss. The importance of games also affects arousal level, such as when games involve the playoffs, large crowds, and rivalries (Wall & Gruber, 1986, p. 25). Coaches can help with exercises to improve breathing, centering, and internal dialogue.

Despite problems measuring anger and aggression, it is still desirable to investigate the issue. High scorers on the C.A.A.S. tend to be involved in more aggressive altercations than their low-scoring peers and may demonstrate a higher frequency of rule-breaking behaviours - in addition to simple aggression - in attempt to overcome frustrations associated with losing (Maxwell & Moores, 2007, p. 188).

In this case, the team was not involved in significant aggressive altercations so the test was not appropriate at this time. If there had been more time or had certain issues transpired, it may have been necessary to undertake further testing.

AVERAGE SCORES

	<u>Contact Sport (incl. Basketball)</u>		<u>Non-Contact Sport</u>	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Anger	24.14	22.23	23.03	21.03
Aggressiveness	28.17	16.31	23.05	17.71
Total	52.31	38.55	46.08	38.74

2

Assessing a Player

- **Player Profile...** page 1
- **Questionnaire...** page 1
- **Mental Training Strategies...** page 2

PLAYER PROFILE

The player was a Grade 8 student-athlete who played the guard position. A good athlete, he was gaining experience in the sport of basketball and developing his skills. He completed the CSAI-2 (Player A) and showed a significant amount of both cognitive and somatic anxiety, in addition to below average self-confidence. Unfortunately, because he injured himself before the Ontario Summer Games, he was not able to see his mental training plan come to fruition.

QUESTIONNAIRE

Think of your all-time **BEST** performance and respond to the following questions, keeping that event in mind:

1) How did you feel before the event?

Mentally and physically flat	0	1	2	3	4	5	Energized mentally and physically
Not worried or scared at all	0	1	2	3	4	5	Extremely worried or scared

2) What were you saying to yourself (or thinking) just before the start of the event?

- "I can do this, I can do this, I know I can."

3) How were you focused during the event (i.e. what were you aware of paying attention to while performing)?

- Nothing.
- Completely Focused.

Now think of your all-time **WORST** performance and respond to the following questions, keeping that event in mind:

4) How did you feel before the event?

Mentally and physically flat	0	1	2	3	4	5	Energized mentally and physically
Not worried or scared at all	0	1	2	3	4	5	Extremely worried or scared

5) What were you saying to yourself (or thinking) just before the start of the event?

- "I need to show up against this guy."
- "This game is personal."

6) How were you focused during the event (i.e. what were you aware of paying attention to while performing)?

- Aware of the crowd.
- Aware that friends were watching.

7) What were the major differences between your thinking prior to your best and worst performances?

- | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <u>Best</u> | <u>Worst</u> |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thinking solely about the game. • Ignoring audience. • Feeling confident. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Worried about who was watching. • Questioning own ability. |

8) What were the major differences in your focus of attention during these performances?

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <u>Best</u> | <u>Worst</u> |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focusing only on the game. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trying to impress the spectators. |

9) How would you now prefer to feel just prior to competitions?

Flat	0	1	2	3	4	5	Energized
Not worried or scared at all	0	1	2	3	4	5	Extremely worried or scared

10) How would you prefer to focus your attention during an important competition?

- Only on the game.
- Only winning.

11) Is there anything that you would prefer to change in your approach to competitive events? Or training?

- No.

12) Is there anything that you would prefer to change about the way the coaches approaches you during training or competition?

- No.

MENTAL TRAINING STRATEGIES

Building Confidence: The coaches should be positive with the player. He may not know how he wants to be coached at this point in his career but he intuitively appreciates positive feedback. This will raise his self-confidence score on the CSAI-2.

It's important for this player to take initiative, by being aggressive on the court and taking leadership off of it. The increased confidence will help the player accomplish this.

The player can do their part by using positive self-talk that emphasize their strengths and abilities. They should hold themselves to high standards and expect positive results.

This player needs to know that he can do something before he can successfully perform the skill. In this case, the player mentioned that he was much more confident before the good performances. A coach may not always know when a player is feeling doubtful so the athlete can take ownership of the situation by listening to positive self-talk.

Arousal: The player must focus on relevant information. Based on his replies, his arousal is affected by the presence of friends among the spectators. During the 1988 Olympics, figure skater Elizabeth Manley was inspired by the electric and noisy atmosphere created by the hometown Calgary crowd. She said that she felt “as though she was riding on the wings of the crowd’s ovation” and believed that she was “actually flying (Clarkson, 1999, p. 147).”

The emotional arousal of playing at home can raise testosterone levels for junior hockey players to 185pg/ml, a three-fold increase (compared to 135pg/ml for visiting team, which is slightly more than double normal levels). This could be due to a primal design to defend one’s territory. Increased testosterone leads to more aggression, which is a competitive advantage. The effect has also been seen in British soccer players (Hutchison, Hometown does have its advantages, 2010).

Visiting teams have strong perceptions of opponents’ home court advantage and play cautiously by attempting fewer long distance shots or driving to the basket less often (Sampaio & Janeira, 2003, p. 46).

Awareness: The player needs some help to filter irrelevant stimulus. The coach should establish some keywords that the player should use to focus on the most important pieces of information. The player should concentrate on what he can control, such as his contributions to the team’s success instead of what the opponent is doing.

During the game, the player should endeavour to see the entire court. It will be necessary for him to see the entire court so he can pass the ball to open players but he should ignore spectators. He should try to see teammates and hear what they are saying, not the audience. Playing the position of a guard necessitates that he adjust his focus constantly, narrowing (while shooting, playing defence) and expanding it (running a screen and roll, helping a teammate).

Affirmations: When the player uses statements such as “I can do this” or “I know I can,” he acknowledges that he performs much better than when he talks about his opponent. Since the type of self-talk employed alters his performance, he should keep a number of statements handy to focus on the relevant parts of his performance. As a guard, he could use statements like “Drive and find an open teammate” or “Pressure the ball” in order to improve his performance and help the team win.

Energy Level: It may be necessary for the athlete to use an affirmation to raise their energy level. The player was normally an energetic person but they explained that they had a low energy level before some of the more disappointing games. Other techniques to raise one's energy level would be to show some emotions on the bench or after a good play. If the player were having trouble alternating between flat and energized, he should try and find a consistent level that suits his optimal performance.

Performance Anxiety: The player was affected by transient and reactive anxiety. Transient anxiety is common before competition and disappears when the performance begins. The player was coached to incorporate mental visualization and breathing exercises into a formal pre-competition routine.

Reactive anxiety occurs as a result of insufficient preparation and lack of skill or experience. Coaching adolescent athletes so that they do not engage opponents is very difficult. Not all team members adopt a rational thinking process that keeps them on task. Normally, practice repetition will eliminate the feelings experienced when encountering the opponent.

Little Things: Daily work on mental training and relaxation eliminates the sense of urgency triggered by specific events. The player should avoid the urge to rush and take time to slow down if necessary, such as when a batter steps out of the box to refocus himself. Studies show that aggression rises as the point spread narrows so many coaches treat games as a series of one shift contests, with specific goals for that finite period of time.

Individual Mood: Based on his questionnaire and body language during training sessions and competitions, this player is probably an athlete who is sensitive to his mood (Lane & Chappell, 2001, p. 183). Had he had the time to complete the POMS-A test, it may have shown that he performed best with a strong Vigour score and low Anger and Confusion ratings.

Separating Self from Performance: This player's most successful performances occur when he is able to separate himself from his performance. He was worried that he would not do as well in the program as he could and that others may be disappointed in him. Coaches need to counsel him so the player does not fear failure.

An athlete may fail a task or a goal but that person is not a failure. Coaches should focus on the performance and keep criticism professional. Athletes should repeat rational and positive self-talk in order to avoid "catastrophism."

3

Coaching Exceptional Student-Athletes

- The Benefits of High School Sport... page 1
- Gifted Self-Efficacy and Athletics... page 4
- Sport and Learning Disabilities... page 8
- A.D.H.D. and Phys. Ed. Class... page 11

THE BENEFITS OF HIGH SCHOOL SPORTS

How do we learn to cope with stress? How do we nail that job interview, ace that exam, or make that free throw. Stress and abounds in life yet little time is devoted to teaching how to handle pressure. In addition to healthy living and personal fitness, physical education classes and high school athletics can help students develop the mental focus needed to succeed in a stress-filled world.

Teachers and coaches must consider the student-athlete's entire situation when instructing a student. What happens in the classroom, at home, or in the community influences what happens in the gymnasium.

The purpose of physical and health education (P.H.E.) courses in Ontario is to: "to provide learning experiences that will help students realize their potential in life (Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, 2000, p. 1)." Aside from the obvious fitness and health benefits, there are many reasons that students should continue to take P.H.E., though it is an elective class after Grade 9.

P.H.E. and high school athletics can enhance emotional control, the ability to handle stress, and teamwork skills. These cross-curricular skills, which are required to succeed in other subjects, are often overlooked in high school. Student-athletes do not become involved in P.H.E. and athletics because they are already experts; they participate to have fun, exercise, socialize, and get better.

High school coaches should resist the temptation to control all aspects of the team and realize that they are there to help high ability learners, at-risk students, and those in between may not get the mental training help that can help them improve themselves.

Goal setting is an important part of school, in the classroom and during co-curricular activities. The goals may involve a tricky subject or a challenging skill. Instructors might find it frustrating to light a fire under a student-athlete to inspire them. Encouraging the player to visualize the successful accomplishment of the goal may make mastery seem more realistic and reachable (Jensen, *The Inside Edge*, 2003, pp. 151-2).

When a goal is set but appears unattainable, the student-athlete will experience stress. Physical educators and coaches can help students learn how to set appropriate goals by ensuring that the expectations of a unit are congruent with the ability of the class. Challenges must be suitable for the level of development and achievable within each student-athlete's zone of proximal development (Clinkenbeard, p. 197). Instructors can also guide the class about using affirmations and self-talk to remain focused and positive (Jensen, *The Inside Edge*, 2003, p. 42).

To reinforce mastery goals, coaches should recognize incremental progress towards the goals (Chase, *Children's Self-Efficacy, Motivational Intentions, and Attributions in Physical Education and Sport*, 2001, p. 47). Unqualified praise is powerful fuel for

adolescents and should be the primary type of feedback (Stabeno, 2004, p. 81). However, judicious use of disappointment and mild anger by the teacher can be more effective than a display of pity or sympathy when motivating students who are not realizing their potential (Buchanan & Sparling, 1993, p. 225).

Students who receive feedback about their effort (process) instead of their abilities (outcome) are likely to remain more diligent and confident (Lehrer, 2010, p. 52). People can only do their best so players should be congratulated when they do their best, even if the outcome is less than desirable (Wooden, 1999, p. 2).

This can be crucial if a basketball player experiences a growth spurt early or develops coordination before their peers. We want those players to persevere if they face obstacles and we want those who were not blessed with athletic talent to continue to work hard. Sports and games allow coaches and parents to praise the effort of players and foster their work habits.

Many good students who are intelligent and articulate have trouble remaining calm and focused. Successful emotional control on the court can lead to successful emotional control in the classroom. P.H.E. instructors and coaches have an advantage in that the physical nature of their domain contains intrinsic pressure, which can be controlled. When the chaos on the court is modified, situations can be created where students can succeed (Stabeno, 2004, p. 55).

Student-athletes constantly have to make decisions, such as whether to listen to a friend who may be a poor influence or how much to study for a test. When the players' "fight or flight" response is triggered, decision-making suffers. Under stress, people do not think clearly. People may consider multiple options but do not carefully evaluate each choice.

A person who can make thoughtful and reasoned decisions at one moment may not do so under stress because they do not seek and weight relevant evidence (Baron, 2000, p. 215). Teachers and coaches can aid student-athletes with their response to pressure.

Making successful decisions under pressure in sports will lead to handling other situations well. When a student can handle the intensity of athletics, with an elevated heart rate and in the presence of others, they can manage their emotions when making decisions under pressure elsewhere (Henley, Schweizer, de Gara, & Vetter, 2007, p. 2).

Rick Pitino, coach of the University of Louisville Cardinals, believes that pressure is a constant throughout life and that it is not a negative influence. Pitino believes that the root cause of stress, a negative influence, is a lack of preparedness or a lack of focus (Pitino & Reynolds, 1997, p. 167). Individuals with low athletic self-efficacy are more prone to anxiety and self-conscious behaviour in sporting settings (Gammage, Martin-Ginis, & Hall, 2004, p. 188).

Studying a Senior Boys (Grades 11 and 12) Basketball Team at a laboratory school such

as the University of Toronto Schools (U.T.S.) provided the opportunity to analyze which areas were weakest for high ability learners and how these student-athletes could improve themselves. Although actual skill deficiencies may cause the poor athletic performance, gifted students are often able to catch up and close the gap (Rimm, 1990, p. 340).

Gifted students often have high intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy for academic tasks (Sternberg & Williams, 2002, p. 349). These positive work habits can be applied in multiple disciplines when students are correctly motivated.

Even high ability students can benefit from the mental aspect of sports. Although the gifted curriculum is advanced, little attention is paid to coping with the pressure of an evaluation or performance. In sport, an Ideal Performance State (I.P.S.) is employed to help athletes control their psychological feelings.

During an athletic competition, there are appropriate times to become focused at the task at hand, energized, or relaxed. The I.P.S. also includes good nutrition and a pre-competition routine (National Coaching Certification Program, 1999, pp. 5-31).

Gifted students share significant vulnerability with their non-gifted peers in addition to several factors related to their giftedness. Due to super-sensitivity or social deficits during their early years, gifted children may develop a sense of isolation and high needs for affiliation (Whitmore, 1980, p. 148). Students with high affiliation needs try to avoid public competition and risk taking (Sternberg & Williams, 2002, p. 365).

A basketball team made up of high ability learners was surveyed to determine what strategies players used to achieve various levels of emotional control. These responses, in addition to visualization of the successful result of the game, were incorporated into the pre-game routine. At this point, an obstacle arose that highlighted an important finding of my research: the school staff would not grant an earlier dismissal time to include additional mental preparation time.

At U.T.S., students receive elite instruction in subject-specific areas but cross-curricular material, such as performance anxiety or coping skills, is relegated to the background. Underachievement may occur because of poor self-efficacy, inability to handle pressure, or many other reasons. However, there is no defined place to improve these areas within the high school curriculum.

Studies have outlined the negative effects that competition may have over gifted students. The students may become extremely self-critical to the point that repeated competition will erode their self-concept, even if they are successful. Often highly skilled people do not value positive competitive results as much as mastery goals (Clinkerbeard, 1995, pp. 198-9). The coach must determine the combination of winning, fun, and improvement that makes the team successful and navigate towards that goal.

Coaching high school athletics is a delicate balancing act. The team is secondary to the school, and parents, peers, teachers, and extra-curricular activities fit into the mix. Any

significant action in the field of athletics must recognize these other interests. Student-athletes and school staff need to be aware of concepts, such as metacognition, introspection, mental training, and the I.P.S., and their influence on improvement and performance.

Attribution retraining, encouraging players to choose dispositional attributions that they can control will continue. The team will be encouraged to adapt these tactics to school and other parts of their lives. Everyone is accountable to themselves and each other.

Throughout the school system, little attention is paid to managing the pressure of an evaluation, performance, or major decision. This extends to post-secondary institutions where business students are given no training on how to make good decisions under pressure (Powers, 2005, p. 22). When student-athletes learn about the I.P.S. and hone their coping skills, they can apply the framework across all subjects. There is no defined place for mental training in the high school curriculum, so coaches, teachers, and school administrators need to work together to implement the I.P.S. smoothly.

Persistence is critical in athletics because adversity is always present. Self-efficacy can become a self-fulfilling prophecy (Sternberg & Williams, 2002, p. 370) so coaches must prevent learned helplessness before it takes hold. Gifted students face expectations in school, sports, and at home. These expectations should focus on an incremental view of intelligence and encourage work ethic (Rimm, 1990, p. 333). Perseverance is closely linked to achievement (Gladwell, 2009, p. 258) and sports teach children to keep working hard.

To play sports, athletes and coaches must learn to lose. Life forces students and teachers lose, kids and adults lose. Making decision is mostly instinctive and it is necessary to learn from experience in order to improve performance (Lehrer, 2010, p. 39). Sports provide an essential format for coaches to teach athletes how to debrief (emotions) and debrief (skills) their performance (Halden-Brown, 2003, p. 186). This mistake management leads to better coping skills and improved future performance. Even when student-athletes succeed, they should review their performance and look for areas of improvement, whether it is during an exam or on the basketball court.

In the heat of the moment, we narrow our focus, sacrificing cognitive luxuries such as peripheral vision and logical thinking for the necessities: action and reaction (Lehrer, 2010, p. 99). As the point guard learns to widen the field of vision and move the ball to the appropriate player, the Grade 9 student acquires the ability to remain calm and handle pressure, like what will be faced during examinations and presentation. This experience is enhanced when the student-athlete reflects about their performance afterwards.

Sports require competition with others and there is usually a clock or a scoreboard. These competitive experiences in high school can be moderated by a coach or teacher do that they are learning experiences, not painful regrets. High school sports keeps students fit - both in terms of body and mind.

GIFTED SELF-EFFICACY AND ATHLETICS

“Besides pride, loyalty, discipline, heart, and mind, confidence is the key to all the locks,” said Penn State football coach Joe Paterno. Albert Bandura commented that “among the different aspects of self-knowledge, perhaps none is more influential in people’s everyday lives than conceptions of their personal efficacy (Bandura, 1986, p. 390). Self-efficacy has been explored on parallel fronts in sports and education and plays a key role in both fields.

Self-efficacy is an individual’s beliefs about their competence and the ability to execute a plan of action as a coping mechanism (Keogh, 1984, p. 1). Gifted students have high academic self-efficacy and expect to succeed in school (Sternberg & Williams, 2002, p. 26). An investigation into whether this trait transfers to the playing field provided mixed results: there does not appear to be a gap in self-efficacy but there is a definite discrepancy between performances in each area.

When competing with a team of similar ability, the gifted students-athletes under-achieved. Gifted learners often exemplify many positive study habits for a test but they do not prepare for an athletic event as rigorously. Players may have high personal self-efficacy but they do not have confidence in their team-mates and give the opponent more credit than they deserve. The players did not display strong coping skills and the pressure of athletic competition proved detrimental to their fragile self-concept. Resolving these issues can lead to improved motivation in school and life, effective goal setting and reduced performance anxiety.

Student-athletes on the University of Toronto Schools (U.T.S.) Senior Boys Basketball Team were the subjects of this investigation. The players, males aged fifteen to seventeen, self-evaluated their self-efficacy and discussed their feelings about competition results in meetings, interviews, and survey forms. The Sports Competition Anxiety Test (S.C.A.T.), a self-diagnosis test created by Rainer Martens to show some of the physiological signs of stress, was also administered (Martens, Vealey, & Burton, 1990, pp. 54-55). These results were supplemented with interviews and discussions with coaches and teachers, from U.T.S. and beyond.

Research indicates that these student-athletes hold high, albeit fragile, personal self-efficacy. The players are able to correctly identify their strengths but tend to over-rate their sport-specific ability. Several coaches commented that the players in various sports held extremely high, sometimes inaccurate, opinions of themselves.

Paradoxes abounded throughout the players’ responses. One player felt his team-mates were determined and intelligent but added that they held a defeatist attitude about games. Another athlete, when asked the reasoning behind his competitive anxiety, drew a blank and admitted his nervousness had no basis in fact.

According to the S.C.A.T. the athletes have low anxiety, but performance in games belied that self-diagnosis. The team's apparently nervous, panicked reactions and reduced processing efficiency in games are indicators of anxiety (Murray & Janelle, 2003, p. 171).

Self-efficacy was a common coping strategy and people avoided threatening situations that they believed exceeded their coping skills (Keogh, 1984, p. 2). In the case of many failures, individuals may attribute higher self-efficacy to others, such as team-mates or opponents, who they feel are out of their league (Keogh, 1984, p. 6). Self-efficacy can predict how well an individual handles pressure as perceived incompetence may trigger an abandonment of any coping strategies (Keogh, 1984, p. 14).

Martens devised a supplementary test, the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory (C.S.A.I.-2), to determine whether an individual is generally uneasy or whether they become nervous in response to a particular situation (Martens, Vealey, & Burton, 1990, pp. 166-8). The test includes both cognitive and somatic anxiety. The results of the C.S.A.I.-2 over the season show that stress is reduced and self-confidence increased as the players experienced success on the playing field.

When competition becomes public, new anxieties arise (Firmin, Hwang, Copella, & Clark, 2004, p. 688). For example, a girls volleyball coach commented that the players experienced the most nervousness when serving, due to the silence in the gymnasium and the public focus on the competitor serving the ball. A student's performance on a test is confidential between the teacher and pupil but an athlete's performance in a game is known to everyone, immediately.

High self-efficacy can lead to a raised level of arousal and vice-versa (Keogh, 1984, p. 5). Each student-athlete has a personal ideal level of arousal for competition and coaches must identify this level throughout the season. A combination of strategies should be employed, in conjunction with post-competition feedback, to help adjust arousal for optimal performance (National Coaching Certification Program, 1999, pp. 5.7-5.14).

An example of poor chemistry is the attribution of poor performances to other causes. Students with low self-efficacy are more likely to attribute success and failure to dispositional or situational attributes (Smith, 2002, p. 10). Recently, during a loss, several players complained about their team-mates after they had made mistakes on the court. In the locker room after the game, players spoke up and said that they felt that team members were trying to succeed individually at the expense of others.

Other coaches mentioned that a similar lack of confidence in team-mates appeared in other teams. In one-on-one meetings, players expressed difficulties in learning to trust each other. Although these instances reflect a serious flaw in team chemistry, the problem is not irreparable.

When students make use of excuses, adults or authority figures must intervene to convince students they can achieve their goals and discourage attribution to external

sources (Smith, 2002, p. 10). In sports, coaches must dispel any misconceptions student-athletes hold for their team-mates and shut down the “blame game” before it begins. Work ethic and individual accountability are two of the greatest life lessons sports can impart across the curriculum.

Attribution Retraining is a multi-step process that begins by creating rational expectations, clarifies the reasons behind each negative or positive result, and mitigates students’ emotional responses to the outcome. Teachers should not summarily dismiss feelings of attribution but persuade students to analyse the situation and their responsibility for the turn of events in greater detail (Buchanan & Sparling, 1993, p. 223).

Locus of control is critical to the attribution of responsibility to self (Whitmore, 1980, pp. 179-80). Students should be encouraged to attribute their successes and failures to reasons that have an internal locus of control, stability, and controllability (Buchanan & Sparling, 1993, p. 223). In the classroom, teachers and coaches should steer children towards attributing failure to a lack of effort or preparation, instead of situational factors such as poor ability or bad luck (Chase, 2001, p. 47).

When team or individuals set goals, all stake-holders must believe that the goals are achievable. If the goals are out of reach, there is little intrinsic motivation to succeed. If a student sincerely believes that they cannot achieve a benchmark, they will tune out any feedback or comments suggesting the opposite (Whitmore, 1980, p. 179). Recently, four team members who felt out of their league at a recent tournament showcased poor performances characterized by tentative and passive play, despite personal motivation speeches delivered before the game.

Multi-dimensional Anxiety Theory details two types of anxiety: cognitive, for example worry or self-doubts, and somatic, the physiological symptoms of anxiety such as quickened breathing. There is a negative linear correlation between cognitive anxiety and performance and there is an inverted U relationship between somatic anxiety and performance. When the competition begins, somatic anxiety declines but cognitive anxiety may remain if the athlete possesses poor self-efficacy (Arent & Landers, 2003, p. 436).

The coach ensures each player finds their optimal level of arousal but the athlete is also accountable to maintain their level of activation. Somatic anxiety can be controlled with relaxation exercises such as deep breathing and techniques like positive self-talk or mental imagery reduce cognitive anxiety (Conroy & Metzler, 2004, p. 69).

The head coach at the University of Toronto commented that the women’s basketball team had experienced difficulties transferring their academic intelligence and self-discipline to mental training situations. Another coach remarked that U.T.S. players did not possess sufficient command of their mental training skills to appropriately adjust their level of intensity.

This research highlights teaching implications for gifted students. For example, in physical education, an active kinaesthetic approach was very effective for talented athletes. All gifted students performed best when class was comprised of a variety of activities (Dunn, Griggs, & Price, 1993, pp. 133-4).

Like any other person, gifted students need a supportive, positive environment (National Coaching Certification Program, 1999, pp. 5-7). Self-efficacy can only develop slowly over time (Keogh, 1984, p. 7) so work is always ongoing. There are many cross-curricular themes that came to light which supersede any subject-specific findings. Achievement and a positive self-concept are strongly correlated. The primary difference between under-achievers and successful people is self-esteem (Whitmore, 1980, p. 179).

Learned helplessness, includes three aspects: contingency or controllability of the circumstances, cognition or the attributions people make about the situation, and behaviour or whether individual persist in the face of failure. If a student experiences learned helplessness, they will fall short more frequently or give up more easily when difficulties are encountered (Firmin, Hwang, Copella, & Clark, 2004, p. 688).

Gifted students face pressure to be extraordinary or perfect. To avoid under-achievement and promote self-efficacy, gifted learners should be taught the association between effort and outcome and mastery goals should be promoted (Rimm, 1990, p. 328).

Self-efficacy expectations derived by from direct experience are very influential, compared to those developed by vicarious or symbolic experience or verbal persuasion. Furthermore, someone who over-values their ability risks attempting activities that are too advanced or out of reach (Keogh, 1984, p. 6).

It is important that student-athletes feel that they are successful because these beliefs are more important than anything a teacher or coach can say. An appropriate belief of self-efficacy and confidence in themselves and their team-mates are the keys these students need to unlock the doors on their potential, in the classroom and on the court.

SPORT AND LEARNING DISABILITIES

Adolescents with learning disabilities (L.D.) experience difficulties with self-esteem, quality of life, and social adjustment. Many of these areas - and a life-long interest in fitness and healthy living - can be developed through athletic participation. Since youth affected by L.D. partake in less recreational activities than their peers, it is incumbent upon instructors to foster a positive environment for everyone's physical and mental health (McMahon & Gross, 1987, p. 42).

Sound teaching in the classroom equates to sound coaching on the court. Flexibility is paramount, whether it is utilizing differentiated instruction to suit the strengths of each student-athlete or making allowances for skills that are difficult to master. Instructors must understand that each individual is unique (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, pp.

104-105). Waleed Belcher coaches many exceptional students at Eastern Commerce C.I., emphasizing patience and the ability to use alternative methods to get his message across (Belcher, 2010).

Students who have been diagnosed with L.D. (or those who are undiagnosed but struggling) experience low self-esteem. It is common that exceptional students become accustomed to low achievement and feel powerless, showing minimal effort as a result (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 100).

Self-efficacy can be coping strategy where people avoid activities that they do not believe they can perform well (Smith, 2002, p. 10).

On a basic level, students at-risk of dropping out can be motivated to stay in school and attend class regularly when enjoyable P.H.E. or extra-curricular activities serve as a carrot. On a more personal level, frequent positive feedback can raise self-confidence over time (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 104). Caring compliments from a person in authority transform sport into a medium where youth believe they can achieve high standards (Brathwaite, 2010).

Famous athletes who have overcome L.D. report that their hardest struggle was their battle with their self-esteem (Angle, 2007). Magic Johnson, who faced extensive trouble learning to read as a youth, tells the story of a security guard who said that he would never amount to anything. The Hall of Famer took great satisfaction when he returned to tell the man that he had been drafted by the Los Angeles Lakers (Strauss, 2009).

Teachers simplify their classroom environment and eliminate distractions (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 105). Coaches must do the same in their gyms. To ensure that all players are engaged, coaches should make frequent eye contact and keep the instructions brief so there is not too long a wait before the activity resumes.

Teaching Games for Understanding (T.G.F.U.) can help students with short attention spans. T.G.F.U. has become popular in physical education because it fosters skill development by situating skill development within a dynamic game. If well-designed, students will improve without thinking; they are having fun and practicing without realizing it (Hopper & Kruisselbrink, 2002).

T.G.F.U. also ensures that exceptional students develop their gross motor skills coincidentally so they can keep pace with their peers as they grow up. Some players may have poor balance and co-ordination and need remedial drills (Marshall, n.d.). Various drills can teach these skills without becoming boring or pedantic; if a coach introduces the activity properly, all students will enjoy themselves (Pasquali, 2010).

Elite athletes must make use of deliberate and purposeful practice. Students with L.D. have difficulty organizing what they see in class and teachers can help them put the information in the correct order (Hutchison, 2004, p. 144). If coaches do not help athletes organize what they are practicing, they will never reach a high level. The current

Canada Basketball model suggests that players learn the skill, move on to game speed and intensity, followed by competitive situations with some element of decision-making (Pasquali, 2010).

To instruct skill, coaches should use a consistent and systematic approach. Routines are as important in P.H.E. class as any other component of the timetable. They ensure safety, help students warm up, and establish boundaries for appropriate behaviour. Sometimes, student-athletes with L.D. may not know how to practice; close supervision is required to guide their improvement. Since the memory of team members with L.D. may be affected, directions should be clear and concise, using consistent terminology (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 105).

To help adolescents with L.D. develop their metacognition skills, instructors can ask questions or give cues to guide the student towards the right skill or strategy (Hutchison, 2004, p. 144). A post-game technique that is simple but effective is to ask each student to name something they did well and something they could do better in the future.

People with L.D. have the cardiovascular fitness of a sedentary lifestyle which is blamed for their higher mortality rates. Although many of those with L.D. would like to participate, they face barriers such as cost, location, and limited options (Messent, Cooke, & Long, 1999, pp. 410, 417-8). Participating in aerobic exercise will improve the self-confidence of children with L.D. (McMahon & Gross, 1987, p. 276), encouraging a healthy lifestyle.

The City of Toronto tries to make as much programming available for children with L.D., even at additional cost. Ed Brathwaite at the Antibes Community Centre in Toronto often makes accommodations and modifications so that all can participate. Those with severe disabilities are paired with an assistant to help them cope with the activity and meet their needs. For less severe cases, staff remain vigilant to ensure the participant has a good experience (Brathwaite, 2010).

Social difficulties for those with L.D. include poor relationships with peers, repeated inappropriate behaviour, and loneliness (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 99). Participation on a team integrates students into the school community and builds a new network of friends. Coaches help student-athletes with L.D. by serving as role models of positive behaviour and providing counselling. Athletes see positive and happy relationships and carry this social adjustment into other areas of their life (Henley, Schweizer, de Gara, & Vetter, 2007, p. 54).

Students with L.D. and low academic achievement have higher levels of hyperactivity and impulsivity than their peers (Merrell, 1990, p. 293). Some of the most memorable self-control lessons taught by sports include managing emotions and understanding frustrations. When a coach shows a student-athlete how to handle a highly charged situation, it is as powerful and memorable as any formal intervention.

The mental training strategies to reduce mental and physical anxiety in basketball, such

as breathing exercises, reframing, and positivism, also work when preparing for stressful situations at school (Bender & Wall, 1994, p. 328).

Long time Canadian Senior Men's National Team coach Jack Donohue always said to "coach people, not players." This is especially important when working with student-athletes affected by learning disabilities. Caring and understanding, along with trust and respect, builds a foundation. Thoughtful adaptations build the walls that allow players with L.D. to reach for the sky and achieve their potential.

A.D.H.D. AND PHYS. ED. CLASS

Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (A.D.H.D.) affects approximately five percent of school aged children (Johnson & Rosén, 2000, p. 150). Characterized by inattention, lack of concentration, and learning difficulties in addition to some degree of hyperactivity and impulsivity (Corrigan, 2003, p. 535), the condition impacts over thirty-five thousand students in Ontario Secondary Schools. As the exceptionality is further understood by all educators, Physical Health and Education (P.H.E.) teachers but step forward and adjust the curriculum to help all the students in their class.

Studies have shown that A.D.H.D. affected children have difficulties with both gross and fine motor skills plus unsatisfactory levels of overall fitness. Disruptive behaviour led to poor relationships with peers and frustrations for teachers who must work with these students (Harvey, Fagan, & Kassis, 2003, p. 31). Fortunately, there are steps that a P.H.E. instructor can undertake to help students manage their A.D.H.D. symptoms, learn self-control, and get healthy.

Psychologists and physicians diagnose A.D.H.D. using criteria like inattention, impulsivity and hyperactivity. A child must demonstrate the characteristics consistently for a period of six months at a rate greater than their age group. The characteristics should appear in two different settings and manifest themselves before the age of seven.

Psychologists will review the a set of standardized questions to determine whether the student falls into the category of Predominantly Inattentive Type, Predominantly Hyperactive-Impulsive Type, or Combined Type (Association of Chief Psychologists with Ontario School Boards, n.d.).

Students with A.D.H.D. may experience persistent and extreme distractibility (Hutchison, 2004, p. 199). The student cannot screen out irrelevant stimuli in order to concentrate on tasks long enough to complete them and does not sustain thought processes long enough to do school work (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 123).

It may be challenging for them to focus on a single lesson for the length of a seventy-five minute period. P.H.E. classes have natural breaks between different activities as the class progresses (warm-up, introductory activity, skill instruction, guided practice, modified games, cool down). Over the course of a week-long unit, the instructor can alternate

between several activities - each with its own simple and precise goals - to keep the class moving forward.

It is hard keep the P.H.E. environment simple because the students may be sharing a space with another class or exercising outdoors. The instructor must create organization with their own routines and personal behaviour (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 128). The P.H.E. class should be mostly activity with brief moments allotted for instructions.

During these times, the instructor should make eye contact with every A.D.H.D. student for about five seconds to keep them engaged (Stabeno, 2004, p. 76). Teachers and coaches should give one command at a time and remain mindful of using consistent terminology, such as “full-speed”, “pass and cut”, or “head up (Dahlem, 2007, p. 42).” P.H.E. class must have a common language for both staff and students (Stabeno, 2004, p. 74).

Though all adolescents experience some degree of impulsivity, A.D.H.D. students consistently demonstrate this behaviour to extreme degrees (Hutchison, 2004, p. 199). Some secondary teachers loathe covering P.H.E. on-call periods because they fear that the class will degenerate into absolute anarchy. This stereotype is incorrect; although there may be some frenzied moments, A.D.H.D. outbursts can be managed with regular intervention ahead of time and prompt action afterwards (Reitman, O'Callaghan, & Mitchell, 2005, p. 62).

Teaching Games for Understanding (T.G.F.U.) takes advantage of the hyperactivity of A.D.H.D. athletes. Given that, skills can never be completely separated from tactics, the well-conceived approach embeds movement and decision-making skills into fun warm-up, practice, and competitive activities. The students need not think much; they must simply do and enjoy themselves. A.D.H.D. students would enjoy experiencing the excitement and spirit of the game instead of being bogged down with technical minutiae (Hopper & Krusselbrink, 2002, p. 2).

For a number of reasons, such as other failures in school, inappropriate social behaviours, or poor movement skills, those with A.D.H.D. have poor self-esteem (Johnson & Rosén, 2000, p. 156). In more than one third of cases, the condition persists into adulthood (Association of Chief Psychologists with Ontario School Boards, n.d.). To help them manage the condition later in life, it is imperative that instructors have to build self-confidence in these learners.

A mastery-based teaching approach is very suitable for building skills and self-confidence. The instructor should adjust the skill, by modifying the target or equipment with the objective of making the movement easier to perform. As proficiency increases, the speed or scale of the activity can be amplified (Hupp & Reitman, 1999, p. 48). These modifications can reduce off-task behaviour by fifty percent (Reitman, O'Callaghan, & Mitchell, 2005, p. 65).

Unsuccessful attempts are not failures but opportunities to explore mental training strategies. Breathing exercises, mental rehearsals, positive self-talk, and reframing are techniques

A.D.H.D. students can use to get back on track without losing confidence (Jensen, *The Inside Edge*, 2003, p. 29). A caring teacher empowers students to take control of their actions and continue this attitude outside of the gymnasium (Harvey, Fagan, & Kassis, 2003, p. 33).

Negative consequences for poor behaviour lower self-esteem. The rejection (real or perceived) as a result of failure can be demoralizing (Stabeno, 2004, p. 51). People can only do their best so players should be congratulated when they do their best, even if the outcome is less than desirable (Wooden, 1999, p. 2). Skill correction from the instructor should be objective, private, and to the point, perhaps a quick verbal cue word to use in future attempts.

While meeting the needs of these exceptional students, P.H.E. instructors can harness the distractibility and impulsivity of the A.D.H.D. student (Stabeno, 2004, p. 72). By emphasizing strengths, like situational awareness and high energy, teachers craft a fun and fit environment that encourages students to develop their self-esteem and social skills. The physical dimension of sport participation has been shown to have a positive effect on the mood and anxiety symptoms of youth with A.D.H.D. (Kiluk, Weden, & Culotta, 2009, p. 504).

There is some research to indicate that A.D.H.D. boys are more suited to individual sports where they experience less aggression and emotional reactivity than when they play team sports. Consequently, many parents are delaying the participation of their children in team sports until they have developed the necessary social skills (Johnson & Rosén, 2000, p. 156).

A key strand of Grade 9 Healthy Active Living Education is Physical Activity. Students must “demonstrate personal competence in applying movement skills and principles (Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, 1999, p. 8).” Many people - not simply exceptional learners - have painful memories of P.H.E. class because of the social nature of youths playing team sports. Instructors can just as easily evaluate this expectation individually.

However, it is important to keep those with A.D.H.D. moving, for example using a circuit with several stations or a fitness exercise with diverse drills that everyone can do together (Kahn, 2010). Due to short attention spans and excess energy, A.D.H.D. students are experiential learners who “learn by doing (Stabeno, 2004, p. 76).”

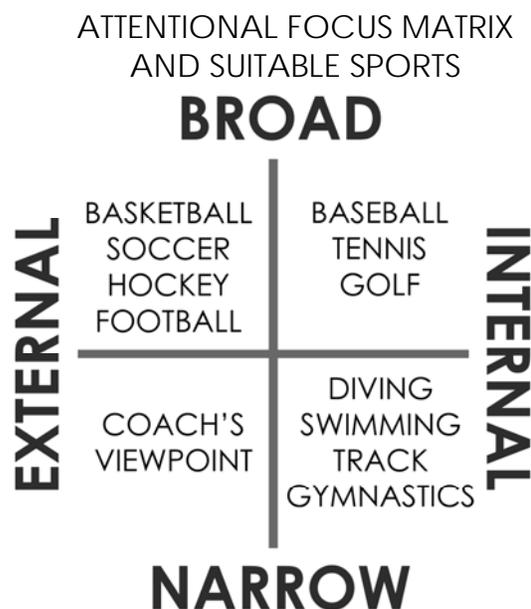
The classroom strategy emphasizing how “working hard is better than sitting around (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 129)” definitely applies in the gymnasium; the worst-case scenario is that students will become healthier. Gross motor skills could be evaluated with a fitness circuit or drills that demonstrate physical performance factors such as agility, aerobic endurance, and power.

It can be hard to find the right motivation for A.D.H.D. students in any class. By presenting a variety of activities and drills, the P.H.E. instructor can gain greater insight for the interests of each exceptional learner (Hutchison, 2004, p. 199). Finding the right

activity can light the flame inside the student, establishing “momentum” at school and inspiring them to greater success (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 129).

The classroom strategy emphasizing how “working hard is better than sitting around (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 129)” definitely applies in the gymnasium; the worst-case scenario is that students will become healthier. Gross motor skills could be evaluated with a fitness circuit or drills that demonstrate physical performance factors such as agility, aerobic endurance, and power.

It can be hard to find the right motivation for A.D.H.D. students in any class. By presenting a variety of activities and drills, the P.H.E. instructor can gain greater insight for the interests of each exceptional learner (Hutchison, 2004, p. 199). Finding the right activity can light the flame inside the student, establishing “momentum” at school and inspiring them to greater success (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 129).



Source: Stabeno, 2004, p. 55

The enthusiastic coach will find a place where the A.D.H.D. athlete can be him or herself and use the symptoms of their condition to their advantage (Stabeno, 2004, p. 55).

Guided discovery can help students understand the wider team implications of their actions on the playing field. For example, during a passing lesson, the instructor could briefly stop the lesson to ask a question like “How can a player thank a teammate for a good pass?” An A.D.H.D. student may be shy to respond a question and may simply ignore it. Environments where all students feel comfortable taking risks include options for private reflection, Think-Pair-Share, small-group discussion, and whole class discussion (Beers, 2003).

Individual activities may be appropriate in some cases but in order to demonstrate Living Skills, students will need to “use appropriate social skills when working collaboratively with others (Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, 1999, p. 11).” Newer activities such as aerobics, weight training, dance, and yoga have entered the P.H.E. classroom and made fitness exciting for more students but there will always be a significant place for team sports.

Although these sports help all students harness their emotions, deal with adversity, and interact with their peers, they can be challenging at first for students suffering from A.D.H.D. (Henley, Schweizer, de Gara, & Vetter, 2007, p. 2).

One of the worst things that a teacher or coach can do is to try to tightly control a student-athlete. Students with A.D.H.D. have high situational awareness and can scan their surroundings very quickly. Sports that suit such athletes are ones that demand a broad external focus, like hockey, soccer, and basketball.

There is a high degree of chaos because so much is happening at once: teammates and opponents move around constantly, participants must be able to quickly move around the playing area, and quick reactions are required (Stabeno, 2004, p. 55).

During such in-class competitions, winning is not as important as effort and social interactions (Stabeno, 2004, p. 105). Student-athletes should pride themselves on setting personal bests and continually improving while recognizing their limitations. These core objectives can be carried over into other classes (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 126).

A protective factor in a child's life is their relationship with friends, families, and other adults (Henley, Schweizer, de Gara, & Vetter, 2007, p. 3). In P.H.E. class, the lack of emotional control possessed by an A.D.H.D. student manifests itself in aggressive behaviour and emotional reactivity (Johnson & Rosén, 2000, p. 156). Strong peer relationships can be constructed by putting the emphasis on sportsmanship during games.

Positive reinforcement (verbal and non-verbal) for good sportsmanship generates more sporting behaviour and increases sport-specific performance. Furthermore, such unqualified praise increases interest in sport and fitness (Hupp & Reitman, 1999, p. 49), building a self-feeding circle of fun, participation, and exercise.

At the beginning of the class, teachers and coaches should clarify the definition of sportsmanship. It is not an abstract concept but a series of specific actions that are achievable by the entire class on a daily basis (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 126). Many Toronto basketball teams will identify the sporting behaviours that team members should represent, such as "let's see who can be the first player to pick a teammate up off the floor" and "stay involved in the game by giving energetic encouragement from the bench."

Another requirement the Healthy Living strand is that students must "identify the factors that contribute to positive relationships with others (Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, 1999, p. 10)." Sport settings are a fitting location to practice appropriate social behaviours. For some A.D.H.D. adolescents, social trial and error in a sports setting is much more tolerable option than clinic-based treatment (Reitman, O'Callaghan, & Mitchell, 2005, p. 59).

A.D.H.D. students see how teachers act and use them as an example for managing emotions (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 127). Throughout the secondary school curriculum, P.H.E. students learn about conflict resolution. Emotional students must first practice self-control strategies before they progress to resolving conflicts in sport and life.

Teachers must monitor their own professional conduct since they are role models for students. Modelling the way is the first principle of strong leadership (Kouzes & Posner,

2003, p. 4). Coaches should consistently greet players and provide constructive feedback when they exit the game. If appropriate (without comprising supervision) staff members or other school leaders can participate in extra-curricular sport and show good sportsmanship.

Physical Activity is further exemplified by “demonstrate knowledge of guidelines and strategies that can enhance their participation in recreation and sport activities (Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, 1999, p. 8).” A program which placed A.D.H.D. athletes with older students who served as coaches increased personal self-confidence and happiness scores, reduced disruptions in class, and improved peer relationships (Johnson & Rosén, 2000, p. 151).

One expectation that cannot be changed is the Active Living requirement that students “demonstrate safe practices regarding the safety of themselves and others (Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, 1999, p. 9).” Difficulty attending to instructions and risk taking behaviour contributes to a higher injury rate for A.D.H.D. children. Impulsivity causes students to act without considering the consequences, repeating the behaviour without learning from experience (Bennett, Dworet, & Weber, 2008, p. 123).

Well-established classroom routines should emphasize safety (for both oneself and others). The entire class must understand the consequences of risky behaviour, for example how the student could hurt themselves or somebody else. If there is a breach of the safety rules, the teacher should reprimand the student in a discreet and non-punitive manner (Coakwell, 2010).

Firstly, P.H.E. instructors can improve the fitness and motor skills of A.D.H.D. students. This will make them healthier and happier. Secondly, P.H.E. class can be a place for students to take advantage of their energy and become enveloped by the myriad of activities. Thirdly, team sports are tremendous opportunities to experience positive peer interactions and receive unqualified praise from the instructor. Finally, the A.D.H.D. students can take their enhanced self-confidence and social skills to their other classes and better manage their condition.

4

Ideal Performance State

- **Introduction...** page 1
- **Awareness...** page 1
 - Active Awareness... page 1
 - Awareness Leads to Anticipation... page 2
 - Using Feedback... page 2
 - Novices and Experts... page 3
- **Self-Efficacy...** page 4
 - Avoiding Burnout... page 4
 - Pre-Competition Routines... page 5
 - Mental Imagery... page 5
 - Performance Oriented Goals... page 5
- **Self-Talk...** page 7
- **Positivism...** page 9
 - Reframing... page 9
 - Arousal Level... page 9
 - Exercises to Energize... page 10
 - Exercises to Relax... page 10

INTRODUCTION

Athletes have a responsibility to discover their Ideal Performance State - the conditions that lead to optimum performance on the court - but they will not be able to do so without the guidance of the coaching staff. Debriefing after games or meetings between competitions can help everyone discover what works best for the team. Although there are multiple methods that coaches can use to help athletes reach their I.P.S., these pages will emphasize some of the techniques I use most: awareness on the court, self-efficacy, self-talk, and using positivism to control arousal level.

AWARENESS

Basketball players need to be aware of what is happening on the entire court. Steve Nash is an elite player not only because he possesses all of the ballhandling skills needed to control the ball in the N.B.A. but he has the awareness to perceive an opportunity and make the correct decision under pressure. If Nash were a quarter-second slow, that chance would have evaporated.

Coaches cannot control the game. If coaches continually give instructions, yelling verbal clues or pointing things out, players will never catch up. At the younger level, coaches cannot micro-manage the game; they must teach players how to be aware. Stopping practice occasionally or using video, allows coaches to help players see things for themselves. Most of the time, basketball players employ a Narrow-External Attentional Focus (Leigh, 2006, p. 121).

ACTIVE AWARENESS

“Most of sport experiences are controlled by man’s feeling about a specific happening. The way a halfback decides to ‘cut’ may well be based on the objective but the eventuation of the move is finalized on a subjective basis. He moves right or left, depending upon his ‘feel’ of the situation. Although based upon the objective, his actions greatly reflect his emotional sensations. **Frequently, emotions cloud awareness of the real more than they illuminate. This is neither good nor bad. It is the way it is. Man can’t simply refuse to consider his emotions (Slusher, 1967, p. 51).”**



There are so many pieces of information that a basketball player must monitor (Jensen, *The Inside Edge*, 2003, p. 46). Without guidance, they may not know what to scrutinize and how to do so. Most challenging for a young athlete is determining what is relevant to the game and what is an irrelevant distraction. Coaches who only focus on the skills an athlete can perform or the breakdown of an opponent are missing a great deal.

RELEVANT AND IRRELEVANT INFORMATION

Athletes should focus on information that is relevant to them and relevant to the task. It should also be something that can be controlled (Dorfman, 2000, p. 215).

BODY

- Strengths
- Weaknesses
- Fatigue and Injuries
- Nutrition
- Dehydration

- Individual Elements of the Skill Movement
- Minor Aches and Pains

- Game Plan
- Communication
- Teamwork
- Present

MIND

- School
- Life
- Past and Future

SOUL

- Intensity
- Stress Management

- Anger and Frustration
- Personal Life
- Doubts

OPPONENT

- Tactics
- Opportunities and Threats
- Individual Opponents
- Past Results

ENVIRONMENT

- Court Conditions
- Equipment
- Heat, Cold, and Humidity
- Fans
- Noise
- Facilities
- Travel

Emotions (caused by the mind and soul) are unavoidable but they can also be controlled. Actors, politicians, athletes, and many others suppress emotions or reshape responses at critical times. Those who lack the ability to control their emotions can be forced into irrational or undisciplined actions. Controlling attentional focus and emotion can improve “clutch performances.”

AWARENESS LEADS TO ANTICIPATION

Canada Basketball wants the offence to have a one second advantage over the defence by remaining in a ready position and moving the ball quickly. A player without the ball should be scanning the court and planning what they will do when they receive a pass. Catching the ball then reading the court before acting leads to slow decisions. If coaches cannot accelerate decision-making skills, they can improve awareness and anticipating, leading to a one-second advantage.

Coaches must develop anticipation and decision-making under game conditions. Providing feedback when players substitute out of the game allows form connections about recent choices (Beilock, Bertenthal, Hoerger, & Carr, 2008, p. 341). Coaches should explain why a decision was good or bad, not simply pass judgment on the action.

The National Sport Organization also desires that each defensive player guard one and a half opponents. They should shut down their personal match-up but also adjust their court position so they can provide help defence. It is a tricky proposition to generate tough man-to-man pressure while knowing the whereabouts of the other players.

USING FEEDBACK

Coaches, athletes, and teams should continually adjust what they are doing relative to their results on the court. The performance is successful when the process is well-executed, irrespective of the outcome. To keep the atmosphere positive, everyone should

separate themselves from their performance (Jensen, *The Inside Edge*, 2003, p. 58). Needing to improve a skill or physical performance factor should not result in personal depression or confusion.

Athletes are responsible for their approach to a competition. Their preparation is the result of the **I**ntensity and **Q**uality of the practice repetitions. Coaches motivate the team to train their physical performance factors and skills but the players must put the work in.

During the competition, all five of the areas of awareness will provide a response. Players should make adjustments based on what they can control, improving the process as a result (Dorfman, 2000, p. 191). A player may need to alter their offensive manoeuvres based on the strengths and weaknesses of an opponent. In a loud arena, a team may need to resort to non-verbal communication.

Approach-Result-Response is a thoughtful approach to many sports but it should not be equated to over-thinking or paralysis. It is natural to be disappointed by an unsuccessful outcome but athletes should avoid excessive tension (Gallway & Kriegel, 1977, p. 27).

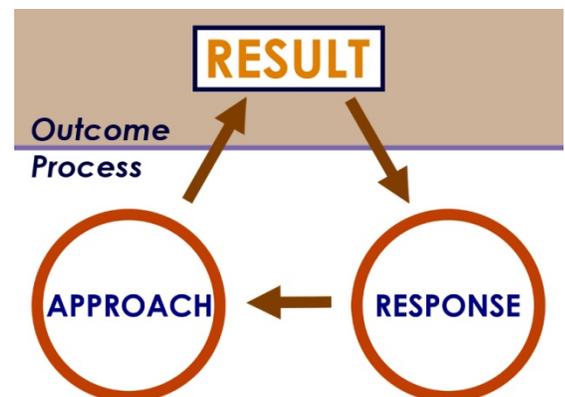
NOVICES AND EXPERTS

Novices perform best when they focus on the individual components that make up a skill but experts perform best when they focus on the overall movement. A rookie player would need to pay more attention to how their body moves as they perform the movement. Conversely, an experienced player will do better when they focus on secondary factors (Beilock, Bertenthal, Hoerger, & Carr, 2008, p. 350).

Athletes need to know how to Choose to Concentrate (Gallway & Kriegel, 1977, p. 171). If it is a skill that is routine for that player, they should adopt a wide focus. When it is a complicated skill, such as a precise pass, or an important moment, like a free throw, the player should concentrate deeply. For example, a rookie would emphasize the dribbling motion but an expert may devote their attention to the movements of others on the court.

Paying too much attention to a closely learned habit will impede performance. As opposed to flowing smoothly, a free throw or putting motion may become jerky and individual components carry more weight than required. A mental cue, like a key phrase or mental image may take some pressure off.

After ensuring that the skill has been mastered, coaches should conduct practices at game speed (Pasquali, 2010). Not only does this provide specific coaching for each athlete but it permits the coaching staff to place all participants along the learning continuum (Beilock, Bertenthal, Hoerger, & Carr, 2008, p. 350).



BUILDING SELF-EFFICACY

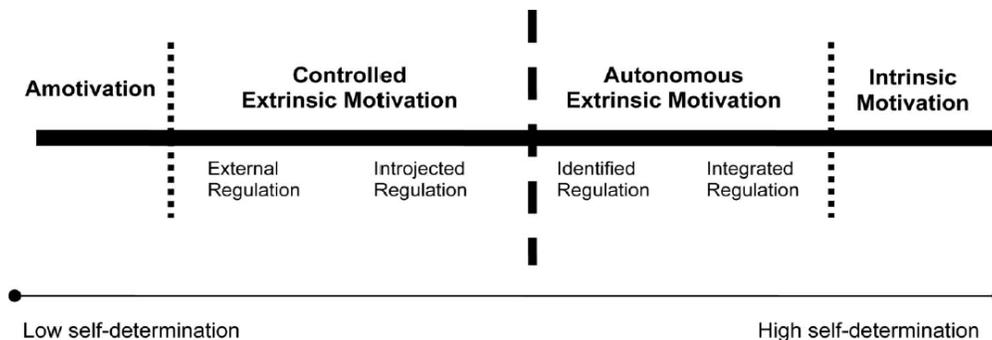
Coaches support the entire athlete. If athletes are confident, not only will they perform well on the court, but they will have fun and do well in all aspects of life.

AVOIDING BURNOUT

Coaches want athletes to enjoy their experience and continue to participate in the sport, whether they move to the Train to Compete or the Active for Life stage. When coaches drive athletes from the sport, due to specific inappropriate or negligent actions or because of a passive lack of initiative, it is a failure of the Canadian Sport System (Cribb, 2010).

Athlete burnout is characterized by a combination of three symptoms - emotional and physical exhaustion, a reduced sense of accomplishment, and sport devaluation - or a global sense of burnout. These indicators can be controlled by motivation and competence in the sport. In fact, a feeling of self-determination and confidence can supersede actual ability in the sport (Lonsdale, Hodge, & Rose, 2009, pp. 785-6).

Coaches can plan training sessions so that athletes are not fatigued, provide positive feedback to boost self-esteem, and show how the sport can help in life. Good coaching builds skills and confidence. Self-determination is tricky; not every participant can easily understand how the sport can meet their needs (Lonsdale, Hodge, & Rose, 2009, p. 786).



I coach because of self-actualization, the top level on Maslow's pyramid of needs. I think that all humans need to achieve so consequently, I believe that Intrinsic Motivation is the most powerful source of motivation available (Sternberg & Williams, 2002, p. 356). Occasionally, a coach will give a fiery speech to energize a team before a big game but if they rely on Extrinsic Motivation too often, it will lose its effectiveness.

Also, higher Extrinsic Motivation scores are correlated with athlete burnout (Lonsdale, Hodge, & Rose, 2009, p. 792). Self-efficacy can become a potent source of Intrinsic Motivation (Horn, 2002, p. 192). Increased group cohesion can provide the social support which builds confidence and prevents burnout. Coaches should not ignore team building activities and how the players relate off the court when putting a squad together. Teams that get along well experience a greater sense of accomplishment (Lonsdale, Hodge, & Rose, 2009, p. 793). The role of every team member should be clearly defined.

PRE-COMPETITION ROUTINES

Most high school and club teams do not have pre-competition routines. Accordingly, each game occurs in a different and unfamiliar environment. When teams follow establish routines, they benefit from the increased confidence that comes from experience. It's as if the team has been in this situation before (MacKay, 2010).

Players should be encouraged to listen to music to help their energy level or practice breathing and stretching exercises. A pre-game meal not only ensures that players are well fed and hydrated but assists players to reach their I.P.S.. Teams may benefit from a shoot-around earlier in the day or a pre-game meeting before hitting the court.

Once players arrive at the competition site, coaches should closely monitor their arousal level. During a pre-game meeting, coaches should not raise the team's energy level prematurely. Focus or relax the team with the final remarks in the meeting room before elevating the energy level in the huddle after the warm-ups. Coaches should be consistent with their routine, such as when starters are announced. If there are changes, the coaches should notify the team in advance so that there is ample time to prepare.

MENTAL IMAGERY

Athletes can incorporate mental imagery into their pre-competition routines. An Athlete's Vision of a game winning performance can energize a player before a decisive match. The vision should be realistic and include all of the factors which comprise active awareness. Although the term implies a visual connotation, all five senses should be part of the mental image. Players should base their images on what they have accomplished during training or previous competitions (Jensen, *The Inside Edge*, 2003, p. 121).

Pre-game shoot-arounds can help athletes preview the environment so that they can incorporate the scenery into their imagery. Basketball images include making a free throw, driving to the hoop and hitting a pull-up jump-shot, or stealing the ball from the opponent. These successful efforts can be used as visual self-talk cues during the game.

PERFORMANCE ORIENTED GOALS

Goals should be Performance Oriented, as opposed to based on Success and Failure. Athletes and Coaches should try to increase their effort throughout the training period. Failure is an opportunity to reframe the situation or practice problem-solving skills. Performance Oriented goals result in more improvement compared to those based solely on outcomes (Horn, 2002, p. 481).

Coaches should not mandate goals. For the goals to be a source of Intrinsic Motivation, they need to be created by the entire team. Coaches and athletes should feel free to negotiate goals to find meaningful improvement targets (Leigh, 2006, p. 81). Once a goal is selected, the coaching staff is responsible for making players accountable.

Introduction to Goal Setting

- Goals should be both situation-specific (increase free throw shooting to 75%) and general (improve fitness).
- Goals should be Performance Oriented.
- Some goals are wholesale changes (left column) whereas others are marginal improvements (right column).
- Deadlines increase accountability.

BEHAVIOUR TO START

1.

2.

3.

BEHAVIOUR TO CONTINUE

1.

2.

3.

BEHAVIOUR TO STOP

1.

2.

3.

BEHAVIOUR TO REDUCE

1.

2.

3.

PERSONAL DEADLINE

REWARD/CONSEQUENCE

SELF-TALK

Self-talk is a strategy used by athletes to manage mood, energy level, and thoughts. It is a dialogue where individuals interpret their feels and perceptions, evaluates their performance, and gives them feedback (Hardy, Hall, & Alexander, 2001, p. 470). It is common among novices and experts, although each athlete must find the self-talk that suits their unique skills. The correct blend of positive discussion can reduce anxiety, increase effort, and enhance self-confidence (van Raalte, Brewer, Lewis, Linder, Wildman, & Kozimor, 1995, p. 51).

Self-talk cues can be energizing or calming, positive or negative, or sport-specific. It is not meant to be a lengthy dialogue but a few precise words to keep the athlete on track and motivated. Whatever cues are used should be the same as those utilized in practice.

Negative self-talk harms the performance of physical tasks (Hardy, Hall, & Alexander, 2001, p. 471). When Hall of Famer Sam Jones was new to the Boston Celtics, he passed up a wide open shot. Bill Russell implored the rookie to take the shot in the future but Jones replied that he was “way off the mark and killing the team.” Russell again encouraged and both would go on to win several titles together but at the time that negative self-talk was forcing Jones into bad decisions: mistakes on the court and mistakes of omission (Carey & Most, 2003, p. 111).

Self-doubts and frustration are also elements of negative self-talk that hamper performance (Araki, Mintah, Mack, Huddleston, Larson, & Jacobs, 2006, p. 6). Reframing the situation to turn a threat into an opportunity or breathing exercises may help athletes gather themselves before resuming self-talk (Jensen, *The Inside Edge*, 2003, p. 29). Pejorative self-talk is different from constructive criticism, which is appropriate for experts who can evaluate their performance and focus on specific points (van Raalte, Brewer, Lewis, Linder, Wildman, & Kozimor, 1995, p. 51). In Sam Jones’ case, he could have thought “release at the top of the jump” or “look under the ball when shooting.”

Coaches should encourage self-talk although not all athletes will buy into the technique completely. The act of engaging in self-talk and the type of self-talk practiced is more important than whether the athlete believes in the concept (Araki, Mintah, Mack, Huddleston, Larson, & Jacobs, 2006, p. 5).

Athletes must be taught how to engage in self-talk. Firstly, athletes must understand how to monitor their performance. Coaches could use video to ask “when you made these shots, how did you feel?” and instruct athletes to watch that specific feeling during performances. This could also occur during breaks in practices and games (“How did you feel during that shift?”). Affirmation statements, such as “I am tough” or “I love this sport,” could serve as an introduction to self-talk (Araki, Mintah, Mack, Huddleston, Larson, & Jacobs, 2006, p. 6). The 1960s Boston Celtics used the word “Pride” as a simple affirmation to inspire hard work and determination before critical games (Carey & Most, 2003, p. 165).

Introduction to Self-Talk

- Self-Talk is an internal dialogue athletes use to improve performance
- Self-Talk should be clear, concise, and constructive
- Self-Talk should be instructional and motivational
- Self-Talk should be practiced in games and practices

ENERGY LEVEL

When I play, my energy level is:

I would like to become...

MORE ENRGIZED

MORE RELAXED

Self-talk cues that I can use are...

SKILL PERFORMANCE

I am trying to improve:

SKILL

SPECIFIC TIP

SELF-CONFIDENCE

When I play, my confidence level is:

Self-talk cues that I can use to feel more confident are...

FOCUS

When I play, my focus level is:

Self-talk cues that I can use to feel more confident are...

SELF-TALK PRIORITIES FOR PRACTICES AND GAMES THIS WEEK

1.

2.

3.

POSITIVISM

Essentially, positivism encourages individuals and teams to take ownership of their performance. If something goes well, the athlete can take credit. If something could be improvement, the athlete is responsible for taking action. Positivism enables athletes to take control of their cognitive and somatic anxiety.

REFRAMING

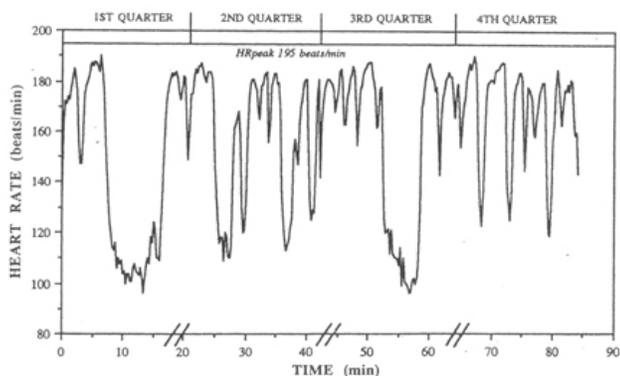
Reframing is one of the most effective mental training techniques that an adolescent can use. Rather than let adversity morph into simmering frustration or anger that boils over, reframing transforms a threat into an opportunity. It is a cognitive skill that changes one's outlook from negative and doubtful to positive and confident (Jensen, *The Inside Edge*, 2003, p. 33). Fear of failure is quite common. Focus on actions, not consequences. A person can control their choices and actions.

ENERGY LEVEL

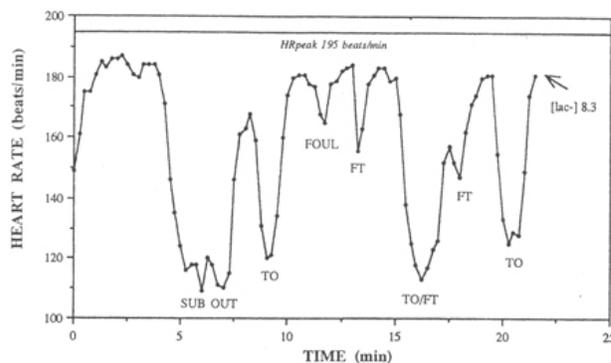
Elevated heart rate is a symptom of somatic anxiety and excessive arousal. A teenaged player begins the game with an average heart rate of 173 beats per minute which gradually decreases to 167 beats by the fourth quarter (Abdelkrim, El Fazaa, & El Ati, 2007, p. 73). The slight decrease by the end of the game could be a result of lower intensity due to more deliberate play and more frequent pauses.

Heart rate also rapidly fluctuates throughout the game. Heart rate peaks during live play (about 185 beats per minute) and decreases when a player is subbed out, during breaks for halftime and timeouts, and when others are shooting foul shots. If the player is focused on the free throw, their heart rate remains high (McInnes, Carlson, Jones, & McKenna, 1995, p. 392).

H.R. RESPONSES FOR THE ENTIRE GAME



H.R. RESPONSES FOR A SINGLE QUARTER



It is necessary for a basketball player to monitor their heart rate. During live action, the heart rate rises but critical free throws require a much lower rate. Substitutes who enter the game must quickly energize themselves in order to contribute to the play.

EXERCISES TO ENERGIZE

BREATHING EXERCISES

- **Increased Breathing Rhythm:** Heighten the breathing rhythm while imagining a greater energy and activity level. Players have quickened their breathing rate while using cue words like **Energy In** (Leigh, 2006, p. 104).

MENTAL EXERCISES

- **Accentuate the Positive:** Remain grounded in reality and rationality but focus on what went well with each performance. Attempt to repeat that achievement next time while improving weaker points (Dorfman, 2000, p. 214).
- **Pre-Game Routines:** Many basketball teams perform a short routine about a minute before tipoff to raise the team's energy level and build cohesion. The New Zealand Senior Men's National Team has recently joined the country's rugby teams by performing the Haka War Dance before games (Johnson C. , 2010).

EXERCISES TO RELAX

BREATHING EXERCISES

- **5 to 1 Breathing:** Visualize the number 5 while taking a deep breath. Exhale completely. Repeat, visualizing the number 4, then 3, 2, and finally 1 and focusing on your relaxation.
- **Three Part Breathing:** Picture the lungs as three different levels. Slowly fill the bottom level, then the middle, and finally the top part before exhaling (Leigh, 2006, pp. 107-9).
- **Center Yourself:** Find a quiet place and assume a comfortable position. Take a deep breath, inhaling slowly and deeply and focusing on filling the diaphragm with air. Hold the breath for a second before exhaling (Jensen, Inner Journey to Excellence, 2000, p. 29).

MENTAL EXERCISES

- **Park Your Mind:** This exercise is the opposite of "forcing it" and entails ignoring anxiety by thinking about something else (Gallway & Kriegel, 1977, pp. 173-4). Broncos' kicker Jason Elam said that: "Pressure is a perception, not a reality. It's only what you allow to be put on yourself." When opposing coaches called timeout to "ice" him, Elam used the opportunity to gather his thoughts and read the wind (Garber, 2006).
- **Broad and Narrow Concentration:** Alternate attentional focus between something very specific, like starting the shooting motion with the lower body, and overall general awareness, such as passing lanes on the court. Naturally, the body will flow back and forth between the two extremes (Gallway & Kriegel, 1977, p. 180).
- **Let Go of Yesterday:** Athletes can learn from the past but should not dwell on it. During a competition, the results of previous competitions are irrelevant. Athletes need to let go of past mistakes and concentrate on what they can control (Dorfman, 2000, pp. 254-6).

5

Conclusion

- **Mental Training Philosophy...** page 1
 - Coaching the Whole Person... page 1
 - Maintaining Perspective... page 1
 - Creating a Caring Environment... page 1
 - Teaching Players How to Think... page 2
 - Assessing Mental Training... page 2
 - Performing under Pressure... page 2
 - Giving Meaningful Feedback... page 3
- **Works Cited...** page 3

MENTAL TRAINING PHILOSOPHY

Like a teacher must teach the entire student, coaches must coach the entire player. To merely help the athlete develop sport-specific skills is a disservice.

COACHING THE WHOLE PERSON

“Man needs to know how to react to a given situation. He must know how to operate, as situations are rarely identical; awareness of the whole becomes most necessary if any realm of transfer is to develop.”

- Howard Slusher

High school and intercollegiate athletics can play an important role in the development of student-athletes because there is no place in the curriculum for mental training.

MAINTAINING PERSPECTIVE

Normally, the realization of self is personal. Sport provides opportunities for actualization through self-extension and achievement. The existentialist doesn't believe that a practice failure is the end of the world because he holds the event in perspective.

During competition, players may over-analyze their performance because of the grandeur of the stage or the stress of socialization. Successful athletes understand that while man receives proof of who he is and affirmation on the court, it is an ongoing process. Only players can truly judge their self-actualization, not coaches, teammates, opponents, or fans.

CREATING A CARING ENVIRONMENT

Coaches endeavour to engender commitment among team members. To convince players to show loyalty to the team, the coach must show loyalty to them. Coaches should be caring towards athletes and consistent. To achieve this consistency, process should be emphasized instead of the outcome. Whether the team wins or loses is not as important as working hard and performing skills the right way.

My goal is to use sport in order to inspire student-athletes to become complete individuals who contribute positively in class or in the community. As a coach, I want to show students what they can achieve and help them get there. Winning a game is a short-term goal relative to imparting a belief in hard work, co-operation, and self-confidence.

“It is better to fail intelligently than to succeed stupidly.”

- Janet Gross Stein

Positive feedback, respectful communication, and compliments go a long way on the basketball court or in the classroom. Athlete burnout is catastrophic and unqualified praise is one of the top ways to prevent it.

TEACHING PLAYERS HOW TO THINK

Thinking on the court is a pre-requisite for success. Seeing an opportunity and seizing it, recognizing an opponent's tactics and adapting to them, communicating with teammates, understanding one's limits and emphasizing one's strengths -- all examples of how thinking separates great teams from the rest of the pack.

"All that we are is the result of what we have thought."

- Gandhi

Teaching players how to think is one of the key functions of a top coach, even at the high school level. A player can develop an excellent jump-shot by copying a shooter like Ray Allen and spending hours in the gym but they cannot develop the cognitive abilities of a player like Steve Nash without significant guidance from a coach.

This does not entail over-analysis. Firstly, coaches are there to help athletes play. There are opportunities to instruct not only what to do, but why although this should not come at the expense of skill development. After coaches introduce a skill, it should be practiced at game speed with active awareness, communication, and decision-making.

ASSESSING MENTAL TRAINING

Generally speaking, a coach should determine the following about his or her team:

1. how the players get focused
2. how the players get energized
3. how the players relax
4. what makes the players physically anxious
5. what makes players mentally uptight

Sources of information include the Competitive States Anxiety Inventory II, the Profile of Mood States - Adolescents, individual meetings, and other tests for anger and aggressiveness or team cohesion. Throughout the season, these results guide the coach; it is necessary to push different buttons; sometimes getting ready for a game means getting energized, other times it requires relaxation.

PERFORMING UNDER PRESSURE

Practices should always occur under game intensity. Players must achieve the athleticism and skill development that it required for elite competition. Intensity and Quality will enable athletes to build physical performance factors and skills quickly.

Coaches should track all competitions throughout the year, whether a part-method 3-on-3 drill or a full-method scrimmage. These records allow the coach to reward success, breed team confidence, and monitor performance effective. There is a connection with those

who find a way to win in practice with those who win games (teamwork, communication, determination, grit, intelligence, or a combination thereof) and a coach should know which players win games and give them more burn.

GIVING MEANINGFUL FEEDBACK

Players require frequent forthright feedback. It's not a criticism of the player but of the performance. If a player can't shoot, they shouldn't jack threes in a game until they improve. On the other hand, players need to know what they do well and receive opportunities to do it during games and practices. When a player DNP-CDs, let them know why and give them a chance to prove you wrong the next time the team practices.

"Although I wanted my players to work to win, I tried to convince them they had always won when they had done their best."

- John Wooden

WORKS CITED

- Abdelkrim, N. B., El Fazaa, S., & El Ati, J. (2007). Time-motion analysis and physiological data of elite under-19-year-old basketball players during competition. *British Journal of Sports Medicine*, 46 (2), 69-75.
- Angle, B. (2007, September 1). Winning the "game" against learning disabilities. *Coach and Athletic Director*.
- Araki, K., Mintah, J. K., Mack, M. G., Huddleston, S., Larson, L., & Jacobs, K. (2006). Belief in Self-Talk and Dynamic Balance Performance. *Athletic Insight*, 8 (4).
- Arent, S. M., & Landers, D. M. (2003). Arousal, Anxiety, and Performance. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 436-45.
- Association of Chief Psychologists with Ontario School Boards. (n.d.). *Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder*. Retrieved July 24, 2010, from The Association of Chief Psychologists with Ontario School Boards Website: <http://www.acposb.on.ca/ADHD.html>
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- Beers, K. (2003). *When Kids Can't Read*. Portsmouth: Heineman.
- Beilock, S. L., Bertenthal, B. J., Hoerger, M., & Carr, T. H. (2008). When Does Haste Make Waste. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 14 (4), 340-52.
- Belcher, W. (2010, July 12). Coaching. (B. Bourgase, Interviewer)

- Bender, W. N., & Wall, M. E. (1994). Social-Emotional Development of Students with Learning Disabilities. *Learning Disability Quarterly* , 17 (4), 323-41.
- Bennett, S., Dworet, D., & Weber, K. (2008). *Special Education in Ontario Schools (Sixth Edition)*. Highland Press: St. David's.
- Brathwaite, E. (2010, July 12). Coaching. (B. Bourgase, Interviewer)
- Buchanan, N. K., & Sparling, S. S. (1993). Gifted Kids Who Can But...: Implications of Attribution Theory. In J. B. Hansen, & S. M. Hoover, *Talent Development: Theories and Practice* (pp. 203-26). Dubuque: Kendall-Hunt.
- Carey, M., & Most, J. (2003). *High Above Courtside*. New York: Sports Publishing.
- Chase, M. A. (2001). Children's Self-Efficacy, Motivational Intentions, and Attributions in Physical Education and Sport. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport* , 72 (1), 47-55.
- Chase, M. A. (2001). Children's Self-Efficacy, Motivational Intentions, and Attributions in Physical Education and Sport. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport* , 72 (1), 47-55.
- Clarkson, M. (1999). *Competitive Fire*. Champaign: Human Kinetics.
- Clinkerbeard, P. R. (1995). Motivation and Highly Able Students. In J. B. Hansen, & S. M. Hoover, *Talent Development: Theories and Practice* (pp. 187-202). Dubuque: Kendall-Hunt.
- Coakwell, B. (2010, July 19). Lecture Notes Module 9. *Special Education Part I*. Toronto, Ontario, Canada: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education Additional Qualifications Courses.
- Conroy, D. E., & Metzler, J. N. (2004). Patterns of Self-Talk Associated With Different Forms of Competitive Anxiety. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology* , 26 (1), 69-89.
- Corrigan, B. (2003). Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder in Sport: A Review. *International Journal of Sports Medicine* , 24 (7), 535-40.
- Cox, R. H., Russell, W. D., & Robb, M. (1998). Development of a CSAI-2 Short Form for Assessing Competitive State Anxiety During and Immediately Prior to Competition. *Journal of Sport Behavior* , 21 (1), 30-40.
- Craighead, D. J., Privette, G., Vallianos, F., & Byrkit, D. (1986). Personality Characteristics of Basketball Players, Starters and Non-Starters. *International Journal of Sport Psychology* , 17 (2), 110-19.
- Cribb, R. (2010, July 8). *Out-of-control amateur coaches mentally abuse players*. Retrieved August 30, 2010, from The Toronto Star:

- <http://www.thestar.com/sports/gthl/article/833529--out-of-control-amateur-coaches-mentally-abuse-players>
- Dahlem, G. G. (2007, September). Word Keys in Basketball Coaching. 42-3.
- Dorfman, H. A. (2000). *Mental ABCs of Pitching*. Lanham: Diamond Communications.
- Dunn, R., Griggs, S. A., & Price, G. E. (1993). The Learning Styles of Gifted Adolescents in the United States. In R. M. Milgram, R. Dunn, & G. E. Price, *Teaching and Counselling Gifted and Talented Adolescents* (pp. 119-36). Westport: Praeger.
- Firmin, M., Hwang, C.-E., Copella, M., & Clark, S. (2004). Learned Helplessness. *Education* , 12 (4), 688-94.
- Gallway, W. T., & Kriegel, R. J. (1977). *Inner Skiing*. Des Plaines: Bantam Books.
- Gammage, K. L., Martin-Ginis, K. A., & Hall, C. R. (2004). If-Presentational Efficacy: Its Influence on Social Anxiety in an Exercise Context. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology* , 26 (2), 179-90.
- Garber, G. (2006, November 15). *Mid-set of the kicker*. Retrieved August 31, 2010, from ESPN:
http://sports.espn.go.com/nfl/columns/story?columnist=garber_greg&id=2661773
- Geron, E., Furst, D., & Rotstein, P. (1986). Personality of Athletes Participating in Various Sports. *International Journal of Sport Psychology* , 17 (2), 120-35.
- Gilovich, T., Vallone, R., & Tversky, A. (1985). The Hot Hand in Basketball: On the Misperception of Random Sequences. *Cognitive Psychology* , 17, 295-314.
- Gladwell, M. (2009). *Outliers*. New York City: Little, Brown and Company.
- Halden-Brown, S. (2003). *Mistakes Worth Making*. Champaign: Human Kinetics.
- Hardy, J., Hall, C. R., & Alexander, M. R. (2001). Exploring self-talk and affective states in sport. *Journal of Sports Sciences* , 19 (7), 469-75.
- Harvey, W. J., Fagan, T., & Kassis, J. (2003). Enabling Students with ADHD to use Self-Control in Physical Activities. *Palaestra* , 19 (3), 31-5.
- Henley, R., Schweizer, I., de Gara, F., & Vetter, S. (2007). How Psychosocial Sport & Play Programs Help Youth Manage Adversity. *International Journal of Psychosocial Rehabilitation* , 12 (1), 51-58.
- Hopper, T., & Kruisselbrink, D. (2002, July). *Teaching Games for Understanding*:. Retrieved July 12, 2010, from AVANTE:
<http://www.educ.uvic.ca/Faculty/thopper/WEB/articles/Advante/TGFUmotorlearn.pdf>
- Horn, T. (2002). *Advances in Sport Psychology*. Champaign: Human Kinetics.

- Hupp, S. D., & Reitman, D. (1999). Improving Sports Skills and Sportsmanship in Children Diagnosed with Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder. *Child & Family Behavior Therapy*, 21 (3), 35-51.
- Hutchison, A. (2010, February 18). Hometown does have its advantages. *The Globe and Mail*, p. L6.
- Hutchison, N. L. (2004). *Teaching Exception Children and Adolescents*. Toronto: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Jensen, P. (2000). *Inner Journey to Excellence*. Rockwood: Performance Coaching Inc.
- Jensen, P. (2003). *The Inside Edge*. Rockwood: Performance Coaching Inc.
- Johnson, C. (2010, September 1). *Canada bows out at world basketball championship*. Retrieved September 1, 2010, from The Globe and Mail: <http://www.theglobeandmail.com/sports/basketball/canada-bows-out-at-world-basketball-championship/article1692536/>
- Johnson, R. C., & Rosén, L. A. (2000). Sports behavior of ADHD children. *Journal of Attention Disorders*, 4 (3), 150-60.
- Kahn, J. (2010, July 20). Fitness Training at the Athletic Centre. (B. Bourgase, Interviewer)
- Keogh, R. (1984). Self-Efficacy: Underlying Mechanism of Behaviour Change and Determinant of Coping Behaviour. *Thesis*. Toronto, Ontario, Canada: University of Toronto.
- Kiluk, B. D., Weden, S., & Culotta, V. P. (2009). Sport Participation and Anxiety in Children With ADHD. *Journal of Attention Disorders*, 12 (6), 499-506.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2003). *Leadership Practices Inventory*. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons.
- Lane, A. M., & Chappell, R. C. (2001). Mood and Performance Relationships among Players at the World Student Games Basketball Competition. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 24 (2), 182-94.
- Lehrer, J. (2010). *How We Decide*. Boston: Mariner Books.
- Leigh, L. M. (2006). *The Psychology of Coaching Team Sports*. Toronto: Sports Books Publishers.
- Lonsdale, C., Hodge, K., & Rose, E. (2009). Athlete burnout in elite sport. *Journal of Sport Sciences*, 27 (8), 785-95.
- MacKay, M. (2010, June 6). Environmental Factors. (B. Bourgase, Interviewer)

- Marshall, J. (n.d.). *How to coach athletes with learning difficulties*. Retrieved July 11, 2010, from Peak Performance: <http://www.pponline.co.uk/encyc/sports-coaching-how-to-coach-athletes-with-learning-difficulties-41300>
- Martens, R., Vealey, R. S., & Burton, D. (1990). *Competitive Anxiety in Sport*. Champaign: Human Kinetics.
- Maxwell, J. P., & Moores, E. (2007). The development of a short scale measuring aggressiveness and anger in competitive athletes. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 8 (2), 179-93.
- McInnes, S. E., Carlson, J. S., Jones, C. J., & McKenna, M. J. (1995). The physiological load imposed on basketball players during competition. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 13 (5), 287-97.
- McMahon, J. R., & Gross, R. T. (1987). Physical and Psychological Effects of Aerobic Exercise in Boys with Learning Disabilities. *Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics*, 8 (5), 274-7.
- Merrell, K. W. (1990). Teacher ratings of hyperactivity and self-control in learning-disabled boys. *Psychology in the Schools*, 27 (4), 289-96.
- Messent, P. R., Cooke, C. B., & Long, J. (1999). Primary and secondary barriers to physically healthy lifestyles for adults with learning disabilities. *Disability and Rehabilitation*, 21 (9), 409-19.
- Murray, N. P., & Janelle, C. M. (2003). Anxiety and Performance. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 25 (2), 171-87.
- National Coaching Certification Program. (1999). *Coaching Theory Level III*. Gloucester: Coaching Association of Canada.
- Ontario Ministry of Education and Training. (1999). *Health and Physical Education*. Toronto: Queen's Printer for Ontario.
- Ontario Ministry of Education and Training. (2000). *Health and Physical Education: Grades 11 and 12 Curriculum*. Toronto: Queen's Printer for Ontario.
- Pasquali, R. (2010, April 18). Coaching Motion Offence. Hamilton, Ontario, Canada: Ontario Basketball.
- Pitino, R., & Reynolds, B. (1997). *Success is a Choice*. New York: Broadway Books.
- Powers, R. (2005). The Lessons of Martha and Conrad. *University of Toronto Alumni Magazine*, 32 (2), 22-3.
- Raglin, J. S., & Hanin, Y. L. (2000). Competitive Anxiety. In Y. L. Hanin, *Emotions in Sport* (pp. 91-111). Champaign: Human Kinetics.

- Reitman, D., O'Callaghan, P. M., & Mitchell, P. (2005). Parent: Enhancing Sports Participation and Social Behavior for ADHD-Diagnosed Children. *Child & Family Behavior Therapy*, 27 (2), 55-67.
- Rimm, S. B. (1990). Underachievement and Superachievement: Flip Sides of the Same Psychological Coin. In N. Colangelo, & G. A. Davis, *Handbook of Gifted Education* (pp. 328-43). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Ruder, M. K., & Gill, D. L. (1982). Immediate Effects of Win-Loss on Perceptions of Cohesion in Intratrual and Intercollegiate Volleyball Teams. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 4 (3), 227-34.
- Sampaio, J., & Janeira, M. (2003). Statistical analyses of basketball team performance. *International Journal of Performance Analysis in Sport*, 3 (1), 40-49.
- Slusher, H. S. (1967). *Man, Sport, and Existence*. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger.
- Smith, C. A. (2002). Motivation, attributions, and self-efficacy in children. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance*, 73 (3), 10-11.
- Sonstroem, R. J., & Bernardo, P. (1982). Intraindividual Pregame Anxiety and Basketball Performance. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 4 (3), 235-45.
- Stabeno, M. E. (2004). *The A.D.H.D. Affected Athlete*. Victoria: Trafford.
- Sternberg, R. J., & Williams, W. M. (2002). *Educational Psychology Custom Edition OISE/University of Toronto*. Boston: Pearson Custom Publishing.
- Strauss, V. (2009, September 25). *The Power of Magic (Johnson)*. Retrieved July 12, 2010, from The Answer Sheet: <http://voices.washingtonpost.com/answer-sheet/dc-schools/the-power-of-magic-johnson.html>
- Terry, P. C., Lane, A. M., Lane, H. J., & Keohane, L. (1999). Development and validation of a mood measure for adolescents. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 17 (11), 861-72.
- van Raalte, J. L., Brewer, B. W., Lewis, B. P., Linder, D. E., Wildman, G., & Kozimor, J. (1995). Cork! The Effects of Positive and Negative Self-Talk on Dart Throwing Performance. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 18 (1), 50-7.
- Wall, B. R., & Gruber, J. J. (1986). Relevancy of Athletic Aggression Inventory for Use in Women's Intercollegiate Basketball. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 17 (1), 23-33.
- Whitmore, J. R. (1980). *Giftedness, conflict, and underachievement*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Submitted to:
Peter Jensen

Date: 2 September 2010

National Coaching Institute (Ontario)
12 Concorde Pl. Suite 204
Toronto, Ontario
M3C 3R8

*"The trouble with me is that every match I play
against five opponents: umpire, crowd, ball boys,
court, and myself"*

- Goran Ivanišević