FEMALE ATHLETE SHAME: COACHING BEHAVIOR AND SHAME-COPING RESPONSES

By

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INTRODUCTION

Introduction.

Throughout the world of sports, there is information available about how to enhance athletic performance. An athlete must immerse them self mentally, physically, and emotionally into their sport in order to be successful. Furthermore, an athlete may do anything to bring them self a fraction closer to accomplishing their goals. Also a factor, the coach may be an enormous dynamic for whether an athlete feels motivated to try harder or if the athletes would rather quit the team.

In order to understand how to motivate an athlete, a person must first understand the very basic discoveries and theories that pertain to motivation. "The coach-athlete relationship has been shown to have a profound effect on an athlete's satisfaction in their performance and in their quality of life" (Frey, Czech, Kent, & Johnson, 2011, p. 1). Coaches may have a large impact on athlete motivation, therefore understanding motivation may help a coach be more successful with their athletes.

The feelings that athletes have about their coaches contribute to certain feelings inside of an athlete. These feelings are known as emotions. There are many emotions that are "processes, a process is always changing and emotions are a flow of actions and reactions" (Campos, Tennen, Lazarus, Lazarus, & Tennen, 2006, p. 14). Anything a coach does can cause an action and a reaction from their athletes. Considering that emotions can be positive or negative, an athlete could react adaptively or maladaptively to the coach's behavior. One emotion, shame, is typically thought to be a negative emotion (Lazarus, 2000, p.232). However, shame can elicit both adaptive and

maladaptive reactions from an athlete. Adaptive reactions may include trying harder and/or moving forward from a mistake. While maladaptive reactions may include lashing out against someone or something else and/ or blaming them self for losing the game. Therefore, understanding shame can help athletes learn more adaptive ways to cope with this negative emotion in order to be successful.

Statement of the Problem.

A coach may need to motivate and re-motivate their athletes to perform better, instill commitment and dedication, and create passion and love for the game, through understanding motivation. Depending on the age and competitiveness of the athletes, different approaches are taken by the coach to motivate their athletes. There are books, an endless number of websites, and a plethora of experts on the subject of motivation (e.g., 101 Ways to Motivate Athletes by, Keith T. Manos, Coach Dawn's Guide to Motivating Female Athletes by Dawn Reed, championshipcoachesnetwork.com). Despite the various resources given to help motivate and re-motivate athletes, very little is known about how and why athletes become de-motivated and experience shame.

Outcomes possibly caused by shame in an athlete may be burnout, anger, and quitting. Some possible reasons for these negative outcomes could be psychological (feelings of inferiority) and/or physiological (multiple injuries or lack of talent). Coaches may have a role in athletes' feelings of shame, humiliation, and embarrassment. However, research on the reasons why athletes become de-motivated based on his/her coaches behavior is lacking (Williams, Jerome, Kenow, & Rogers, 2003, p.17). Due to the large amount of time coaches spend with their athletes it is surprising, emotions such as shame, humiliation, and embarrassment, can be felt by an athlete without a coach even

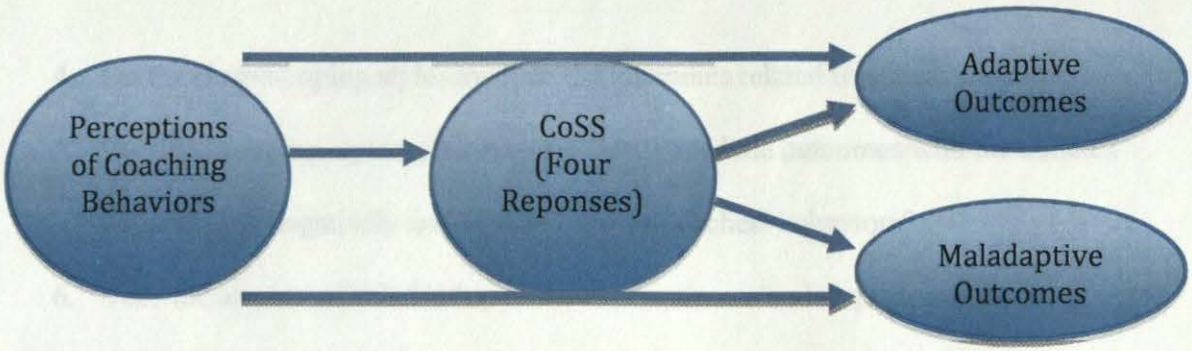

Figure 1.1. Purpose of Study.

realizing the impact that their behavior has on the athlete. For this reason, understanding the mechanism or causes for athletes' feelings of shame may help coaches become more aware of their behaviors.

Purpose of the Study.

The purpose of this study is three fold (illustrated in Figure 1.1): (1) will be to explore the relationships of coaches' behaviors on female college athletes' feelings of shame in game and practice settings, and the athletes' shame-coping responses to these feelings. (2) To explore whether the shame-coping responses mediate relationships between coaches' behaviors and adaptive outcomes (trying harder, proving coach wrong, etc.) or maladaptive outcomes (burnout, quitting, etc.) in female athletes. (3) To discover if having a scholarship or being a starter play a role in outcomes of shame.

Research Questions.

This research will be guided by the following research questions:

1. Are coaching behaviors related to female athletes' feelings of shame?
2. Under what circumstances do female athletes feel shame?
3. Are coaches' behaviors related to outcomes connected to athlete shame?

4. Do the shame-coping styles mediate the outcomes related to athlete shame?
5. Do shame-coping styles, shown in the CoSS, mediate outcomes with the athletes who respond negatively and/or positively to coaches' behaviors?
6. Does the amount of scholarship relate to adaptive or maladaptive outcomes connected to female athlete shame?
7. Does being a starting athlete relate to positive or negative outcomes associated with shame?

Hypothesis.

1. Shaming behaviors will create maladaptive outcomes more often then adaptive.
2. The athletes will have a greater tendency to quit if their coping style is Attack-Self.
3. The athletes will have a greater tendency to try harder if they score high in the Avoidance coping style.
4. Athletes who start and have more scholarship money will show more adaptive outcomes when related to shame

Assumptions.

The assumptions that will be made for this study are:

1. The athletes will be honest when answering the questions on the CoSS.
2. Administering the test will be conducted in the same manner for each team and scoring will be consistent.

Limitations.

This study will be limited by the following factors:

1. The athletes are only being tested within the sports environment. Therefore, there will be no consideration brought to social pressures or personal factors pertaining to the outcomes of shame. (e.g. quitting, depression, and/ or trying harder).
2. Athletes who compete in other sports and at different levels may experience shame in different ways.

Delimitations.

The parameters for this study will be defined by the following factors:

1. Subjects for this study will involve 80 female athletes competing in a Division II school in rural Colorado.
2. The athletes being surveyed compete in traditional team sports: basketball, soccer, softball, and volleyball.
3. The information will be gathered via the CoSS, the Athlete Perception Questionnaire, the Outcome Questionnaire, and a Demographic Survey.
4. Shame is the only emotion being measured.
5. Athlete perception of their coach's behavior is the focus of this study. Therefore, coaching behavior types are not discussed because the athlete's perspective is more important to the relevance of this study.

Definitions of Terms:

1. Emotion: A complex experience of an individual's state of mind as interacting with internal and external influences. Emotions fundementally involves "physiological arousal, expressive behaviors, and conscious expereince." (Myers, 2004).

2. Desire: Something an individual wishes or longs for, they may crave, want, wish, or make a request for (Collins English Dictionary, 2003).
3. Coping: The ability to contend or manage difficulties and overcome these difficulties (The American Heritage Dictionary, 2003). Coping is the constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and /or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person" (Lazarus, p.21, 2006).
4. Motivating: "The activity that an individual uses to help channel strong motives in a direction to satisfy the need or want" (Kumar, 1998, p.213,).
5. Motivation: "The psychological feature that arouses an organism to action toward a desired goal; the reason for the action; that which gives purpose and direction to behavior" (WordNet 3.0, 2003).
6. Motive: "Gives direction to human behavior. Motives are goals directed and may be unconscious or conscious. A motive activates a goal: a restlessness or force that propels behaviors. Motives are present even before the stimuli" (Kumar, 1998, p.211).
7. Needs: Needs are required, what is of necessity (Collins English Dictionary, 2003). "Needs are more comprehensive in nature" (Kumar, 1998, p.212).
8. Shame: A painful emotion caused by a strong sense of guilt, embarrassment, unworthiness, or disgrace. An individual who feels shame can feel like a great disappointment (The American Heritage Dictionary, 2003).
9. Wants: Something that is desired and wished for greatly (The American Heritage Dictionary, 2003). "Wants are expression in a narrow perspective and include

desires and do not necessarily need to be met until all needs are taken care of first" (Kumar, p.212, 1998).

CHAPTER 2:

LITERATURE REVIEW

Motivation is a relevant aspect of human life that can cause an individual to pursue their goals. In this literature review, motivation is explained and illustrated via two important theorists: Maslow (1943) and Herzberg (1959). Understanding these two theorists can help bring to light the role coaches play in athletes' motivation. Additionally, theories about emotion will include the works of Lazarus(1991, 2000, & 2006) and Plutchik (2005). Lazarus and Plutchik researched emotions through different contexts. First, Plutchik looked into the evolutionary side of emotions, meaning how emotions are written in our genetic structures and can adapt and evolve. Second, Lazarus took an approach that developed the Cognitive-Motivational-Relational theory (CMR), which is used to explain and predict emotions.

This literature review also will present theories on one specific emotion: shame. Nathanson (1992) is the main contributor on the topic of shame within this paper. He related shame with many other topics on emotion, especially Plutchik's theory and Lazarus' CMR theory. Elison and colleagues (Elison, Lennon, & Pulos, 2006) researched Nathanson's ideas on shame and created the Compass of Shame Scale (CoSS). Which is used to assess Nathanson's Compass of Shame model. Elison also modified the CoSS to create another survey specifically designed for sport, CoSS-Sport (Elison & Partridge, in press).

Motivation

Motivation is defined as "the psychological feature that arouses an organism to action toward a desired goal; the reason for the action; that which gives purpose and

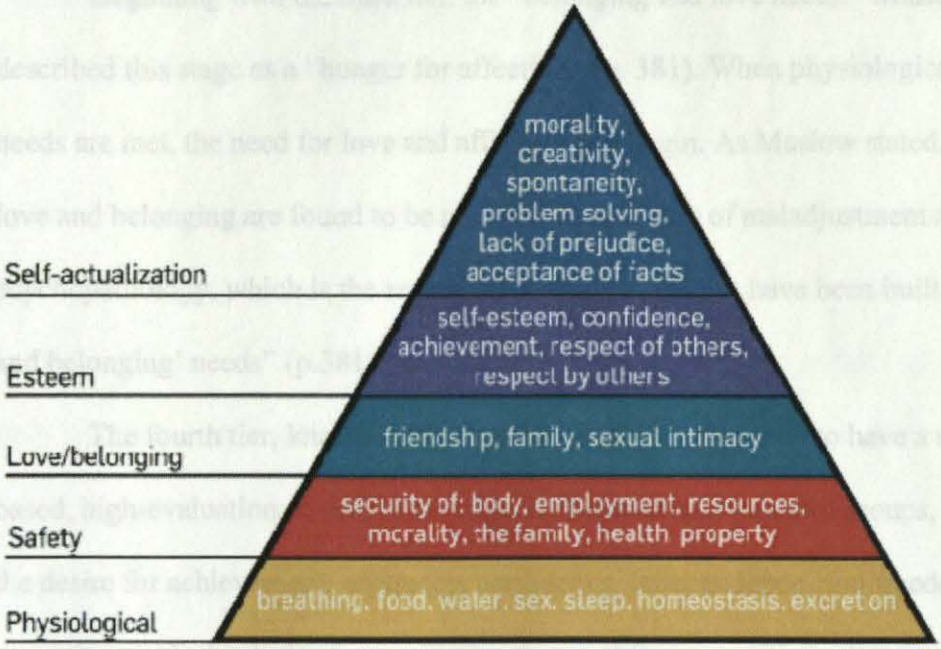

Figure 2.1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

direction to behavior" (WordNet 3.0, 2003). Abraham Maslow (1943) is best known for his research and founding of the "Hierarchy of Needs Theory" and is used to understand human motivation. The Hierarchy of Needs Theory (1943) is a five-stage model explaining how an individual is motivated by needs and how these needs must be satisfied. Figure 2.1 is an illustration of the Hierarchy of Needs Theory Pyramid.

For the purpose of this study, the higher-level tiers (love and belonging, self-esteem, and self-actualization) will be discussed due to their relevance in this research on human emotions. "Needs are organized into a hierarchy or relative prepotency. Once needs become satisfied, new needs appear and must be met (Maslow, 1943, p. 375).

Beginning with the third tier, the "belonging and love needs." Maslow (1943) described this stage as a "hunger for affection" (p. 381). When physiological and safety needs are met, the need for love and affection can begin. As Maslow stated, "Absence of love and belonging are found to be main causes in cases of maladjustment and psychopathology, which is the reason many clinical studies have been built around 'love and belonging' needs" (p.381).

The fourth tier, known as the "esteem needs," is the need to have a stable, firmly based, high-evaluation of self. This stage is characterized into two groups, one group is the desire for achievement, adequacy, confidence, independence, and freedom and the second group is the desire for reputation, the need for recognition, attention, importance, and appreciation. Maslow explained (1943):

> Satisfaction of these needs leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability, and adequacy of being useful and necessary to this world. But thwarting of these needs produces feelings of inferiority, of weakness, and of helplessness. These feelings in turn give rise to either basic discouragement or else compensatory or neurotic trends (p.382).

Maslow's research took into consideration that the fixed order of the stages are not "as rigid" as originally thought. Individual people view some needs as being more important than others, which allows individuals to place their own needs on different levels on the model (Maslow, 1943, p.386). In the fifth tier, "self-actualization," the term 'needs' becomes interchangeable with desires. "Desires are something an individual wishes or longs for, they may crave, want, wish, or make a request for" (Collins English Dictionary, 2003). The term desires is used due to the sense that individuals want to feel

they are useful to the world (Maslow, 1943, p.382). This stage refers to the desire for self-fulfillment and to become everything that an individual is capable of becoming (Maslow, 1943). This need may be a challenge for people to understand because not much is known about self-actualization and it continues to be researched in its entirety (Maslow, 1943). An example relevant in sports would be an athlete making a goal to reach the highest level in their sport, by striving to be an expert in their sport, by realizing their potential, and working towards this goal every moment of their life.

As previously stated, Maslow's model is arranged in a hierarchy of prepotency. Prepotent is defined as something that is greater in power, force, or influence than any other thing (The American Heritage Dictionary, 2003). Maslow (1943) stated, "At once other or higher needs emerge, they dominate an individual and when each need is satisfied, new and still higher, needs emerge. This is the arrangement of prepotency" (p.375). The most prepotent goal monopolizes the consciousness and individuals are motivated by the desire to achieve what needs have the greatest influence or maintain the conditions on which the basic needs rest. For example, an individual may believe that achievement in the world and feeling self worth is more important than finding love and affection.

Maslow developed the Hierarchy of Needs Theory based on earlier theories that tried to explain why and how people engage in working behavior (Kumar, 1998). Most early theorists did not cover the complexity of the reasons behind motivation due to the complex nature of individuals. Maslow realized this and took all aspects of human beings into account. Maslow's theory has received a great deal of acknowledgement and application, especially among business managers. No individual is ever truly satisfied

because there is always another want or need that takes the place of the last one (Kumar, 1998). According to Kumar, "Unfortunately, research findings do not collaborate with theory. Maslow provided no empirical substantiation, and several studies that sought to validate the theory found no support" (p.222), but Kumar agrees that Maslow's theory still holds significance in understanding complex human behavior, which is focused on in the higher tiers of Maslow's model (Kumar, 1998, p.223).

Maslow's research helped to propel similar research on motivation. For example, following Maslow, Frederick Herzberg developed the Two-Factor Theory (1959). Herzberg theorized that employee productivity is tied to two factors. One factor is the motivation dynamic such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, interest, and growth. If these are met, then job satisfaction can be enhanced. The second factor is the hygiene dynamic such as salary, security, work conditions, quality of supervision, and intrapersonal relations. If these factors are neglected, then job dissatisfaction will occur. Hertzberg (1959) stressed that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two different factors, while removing factors causing dissatisfaction will increase job satisfaction, factors contributing to satisfaction must also be addressed (Herzberg, 1959, p.90). Herzberg found that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two very different factors and not opposites factors because a person can be dissatisfied with their job but satisfied with the work (Kumar, 1998, p.225). Figure 2.2 depicts the results of Herzberg's research.

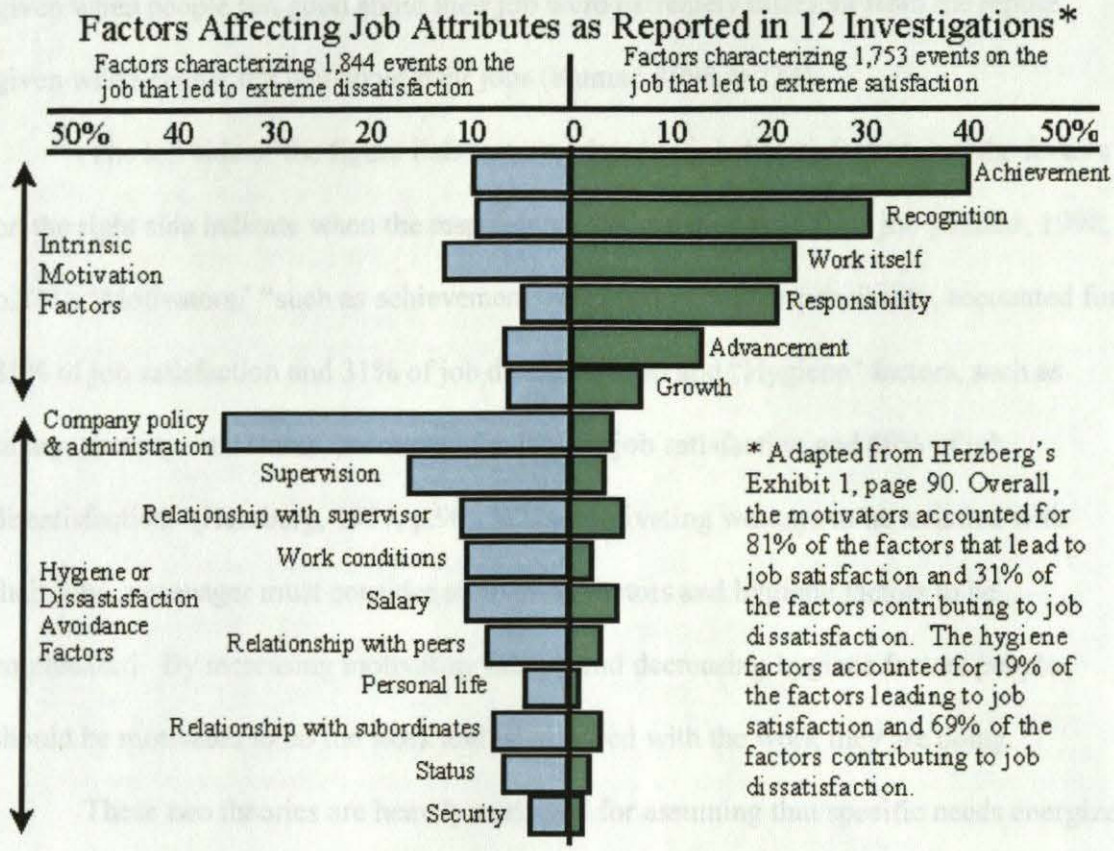

Figure 2.2. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory: Factors affecting job attributes

Herzberg's original study involved 200 engineers and accountants in nine different companies in Pittsburg. Herzberg asked respondents to identify specific events, situations, or incidents when they felt most satisfied and when they were most dissatisfied. Later, Herzberg then expanded his study and collected responses from 1600 workers in various types of jobs; The results from the expanded research are represented in Figure 1.2. The responses that were obtained were interesting and show that replies

given when people felt good about their job were extremely different from the replies given when people felt bad about their jobs (Kumar, 1998, p.224).

The left side of the figure lists factors related to job dissatisfaction and the factors on the right side indicate when the respondents felt satisfied with their job (Kumar, 1998, p.224). 'Motivators,' "such as achievement, recognition, and responsibility, accounted for 81% of job satisfaction and 31% of job dissatisfaction and "Hygiene" factors, such as salary, security, and status, accounted for 19% of job satisfaction and 69% of job dissatisfaction" (Herzberg, 1959, p.90). When motivating workers to be satisfied with their jobs, a manager must consider motivating factors and hygiene factors to be emphasized. By increasing motivating factors and decreasing hygiene factors people should be motivated to do the work and be satisfied with the work they are doing.

These two theories are heavily criticized for assuming that specific needs energize behavior (Kumar, 1998, p.227). Figure 2.3 depicts a comparison of Maslow's and Herzberg's theory. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory is an extension of Maslow's theory of motivation, but only the higher order needs in Maslow's theory are represented such as, love and belonging, self-esteem, and self-actualization needs. Information on Herzberg's theory was collected and analyzed and put into two categories, hygiene and motivating factors. On the other hand, Maslow's theory is based from experience about human needs and ordered in five tiers according to essential needs at the bottom to less essential needs towards the top. The most important difference between the two theories is Maslow's theory was based on a constant cycle of satisfying needs, while Herzberg was based on motivators that included achievement, recognitions, and opportunities for growth (Akrani, 2010). Maslow's theory had an enormous impact and contributed to later

Distinction between Maslow's Theory and Hertzberg's Theory of motivation:

Maslow's Theory of Motivation	*Hertzberg's Theory of Motivation*
(1) **Meaning: Maslow's theory** is based on the concept of human needs and their satisfaction.	(1) **Hertzberg's theory** is based on the use of motivators which include achievement, recognition and opportunity for growth.
(2) **Basis of theory:** Maslow's theory is based on the hierarchy of human needs. He identified five sets of human needs (on priority basis) and their satisfaction in motivating employees.	(2) Hertzberg refers to hygiene factors and motivating factors in his theory. Hygiene factors are dissatisfiers while motivating factors motivate subordinates. Hierarchical arrangement of needs is not given.
(3) **Nature of theory:** Maslow's theory is rather simple and descriptive. The theory is based long experience about human needs.	(3) Hertzberg's theory is more prescriptive. It suggests the motivating factors which can be used effectively. This theory is based on actual information collected by Hertzberg by interviewing 200 engineers and accountants.
(4) (a) **Applicability:** It is most popular and widely cited theory of motivation and has wide applicability. (b) Maslow's theory is mostly applicable to poor and developing countries where money is still a motivating factor.	(4) (a) Herzberg's theory is an extension of Maslow's theory of motivation. Its applicability is also narrow. (b) Herzberg's theory is applicable to rich countries where money is less important motivating factor.
(5) **Descriptive/Perspective:** Maslow's theory (model) is descriptive in nature.	(5) Herzberg's theory (model) is prescriptive in nature.
(6) **Motivators:** According to Maslow's model, any need can act as motivator provided it is not satisfied or relatively less satisfied.	(6) In the dual factor model of Hertzberg, hygiene factors (lower level needs) do not act as motivators. Only the higher order needs (achievement, recognition, challenging work) act as motivators.

Comparison Between Maslow and Herzberg Models

Figure 2.3. Comparison between Maslow's and Herzberg's Theories

theories on motivation and theorists. Though his work is considered outdated in advanced countries, the theory still applies to third world areas (Kumar, 1998, p.228). Maslow highlighted the complexities of individual differences and allowed for further research pertaining to motivation to expand from his work. The work others researchers have contributed to motivation. Most research stemming from Maslow pertained to motivating people in the workplace.

The Coaches Role in Motivating Athletes. One area to which research on motivation has been applied is in the world of sports. It is believed that motivation is the foundation of sport performance and achievement. When motivation is lacking, even the most talented athlete is unlikely to reach his/her full athletic potential (Treasure, 2007). Maslow (1943) described "how satisfying the 'self-esteem needs' lead to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability, and adequacy. Therefore, obstructing these needs produce feelings of inferiority, weakness, and helplessness, giving rise to discouraging thoughts"(p.382). Putting all these variables together may illustrate that the coach could becomes a significant motivator or a contributor to the success and/ or failure of an athlete.

The coach-athlete relationship has been shown to have a profound effect on an athlete's satisfaction, performance, and quality of life (Frey, Czech, & Kent, 2011, p.1). For example, Frey, Czech, Kent, and Johnson (2006) found that the gender of the coach was a moderating factor in effectiveness between the coach-athlete relationships. The purpose of their study was to explore female athletes' perceptions of and experiences with being coached by men or women. The interview with each athlete focused on four major themes: (1) discipline and structure, (2) personal relationships, (3) passivity and aggressiveness, and (4) coach preference. Eight of the participants preferred male coaches, but there were differences when coaching qualities were compared. Female athletes who preferred male coaches liked them because of the discipline and structure they brought to practice and games because this challenged their skills and pushed their development. This ties closely with Maslow as he (1943) explained, "That self-actualization needs" show an individual has the desire to be all they can be" (p.382). But,

if coaches were too extreme and "in your face," the female athletes tended to be less responsive. The researchers also found that the female athletes liked a personal connection, sense of empathy, warmth, and sense of humor which female coaches may be more likely to demonstrate (Frey et al., 2011). Like Maslow (1943) described, "Due to belonging and love needs people hunger for affection and to be cared about" (p.381). There may be many other reasons why female athletes tend to prefer male or female coaches, so caution must be taken when assuming coaching preference is due to gender.

Similarly, Williams, Jerome, Kenow, and Rogers (2003), emphasized the coach's role by making the coach the most important person in determining the quality and success of an athlete's performance. The purpose of this study was to identify the most favorable coaching behaviors and factors that influenced the effectiveness of each coach's behaviors. Four hundred and eighty-four college and high-school athletes were assessed by The Coaching Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ), which measures athletes perceptions of coaching behaviors and evaluates their effectiveness in helping athletes play better and maintain optimal mental state and focus. The Sport Competition Anxiety Test was also used to assess the athletes' competitive trait anxiety (CTA) and self-confidence. Finally, a Compatibility Measure was used to assess how compatible athletes felt with their coaches. Correlations between the CBQ, the CTA, and the compatibility measure indicated that athletes who were high anxiety, low self-confidence, and had low compatibility with their coach, had more negative perceptions of their coach. The coaches with negative perceptions would show less supportive behaviors and less emotional composure. This study suggested that leadership effectiveness is both within the leader and the athlete (Williams et al. 2003). When tying Maslow and Herzberg to the

results from this study, it is possible to conclude that coaches can be either very effective or hindering for an athlete.

Achievement is often demonstrated by competence and the need for competence can be realized in sport context and each athlete's motivation (Barie & Bucik, 2009, p.181). An athletes' motivation is one of the most important factors in an athlete's performance. In a study conducted by Barie & Bucik (2009), the researchers found that coaches of different leadership profiles influenced athletes' sports motivation differently. The purpose of the research was to investigate the contributions made by coaches to the motivational structure of athletes from team sports. There were 577 young male athletes evaluating 51 coaches to investigate the relationship between the coach's motivation, goal orientation, and leadership. The athletes were assessed for their motivation, goal orientation, and perception of their coaches. Barie & Bucik found that athletes who were trained by more athlete-directed, low ego-oriented (more supportive, instructive, and ready to give positive feedback) coaches showed more motivational patterns most preferred by the athletes. Coaches who created this atmosphere were more mastery dependent. While more ego-oriented coaches, who were less supportive, instructive, and less ready to give positive feedback to the athletes. The athletes coached by the latter coaches showed less intrinsic motivation. Mastery motivational climates were created by coaches who were less ego-oriented, more supportive, instructive, and more learning-oriented (p.185-187). "The strongest predictor of team effectiveness was the athletes' perception of their coach's supportiveness" (p.188).

When looking at Herzberg (1959), the motivating factors in his study included achievement, recognition, growth, and hygiene factors like status (Figure1.2). Linking

Herzberg to Barie & Bucik provides evidence that task-oriented, athlete-oriented, and low ego-oriented coaches provide the motivating factors that create a climate in which their athletes enjoy being at practice and games more and this same coach disregards his status as a coach. Barie and Bucik's (2009) research supported the notion that a coach can produce and support a motivational climate. Athlete preferences are just that, preferences, but task-oriented coaches often produce more success due to the focus on mastery of skills, support of the athletes, and giving positive feedback. This in turn clearly shows that motivation can create confidence.

Emotions

The next two sections of this literature review will focus on emotions and coping. Research illustrates that emotions cannot exist without coping and vice versa due to the fact emotions are regulated by coping (Campos et al., 2006). For the purpose of this literature review, emotion and coping will be broken apart specifically. The importance being because this study will investigate coping processes as a mediator to the emotion shame, therefore, emotion and coping need to be discussed separately.

Motivating athletes, as demonstrated in the previously mentioned studies, is important in enhancing athletic performance and helping athletes reach their full potential. In addition, understanding emotions and the role they play in athletes may elucidate the potentially dangerous or positive effect emotions can have on athletic performance. Common among theorists who study emotion is the idea that emotions are designed to deal with encounters between people, but can also occur in the absence of other people. The primary functions of emotions are to mobilize an individual to quickly deal with an encounter (Ekman, 1999, p.45-46). Specifically, people remember

situations, experiences, and how they felt; therefore emotions can adapt and evolve over time. Robert Plutchik (2005), an emotion theorist described:

> An emotion is not simply a feeling state. An emotion is a complex chain of loosely connected events that begin with a stimulus that includes feelings, psychological changes, and impulses to action and specific goal-directed behavior. That is to say, feelings do not happen in isolation. They are responses to significant situations in an individual's life, and often they motivate actions (p. 345-346).

People learn from past situations and this learning can be used to predict certain feelings. This process illustrates a cognitive side to emotions. Many concepts in science, as well as emotion, are best understood by making inferences. Inferences may imply that emotions or emotions' evolutionary foundation can be found in lower animals not just humans, in which can actually offer evolutionary insight into emotions, moods, and personality traits, further suggesting that emotion, cognition and action interact (Plutchik, 2005, p.345). The interaction happens in what Plutchik described as a feedback loop, shown in figure 2.4. Plutchik (2005) stated:

> The complex process that go on in the service of biological need include receiving sensory input, evaluating it, capturing the important aspects of the information in symbols and comparing the new information with memory stores. Predicting the characteristics of environments enable the organism to prepare for it (p.347).

Therefore, "feedback loops can be seen as a model tied to adaptation" (Plutchik, 2005, p.345).

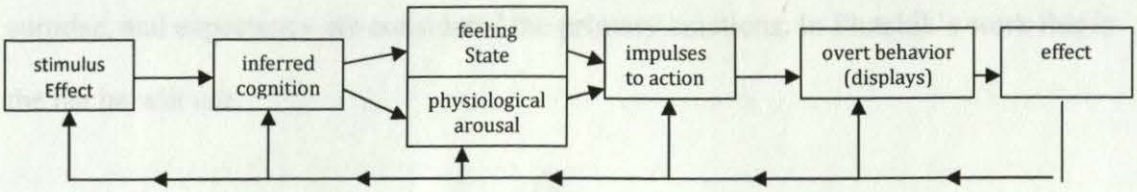

Figure 2.4. Plutchik's Feedback loop example

Extending from Darwin's idea of natural selection and expressive behaviors in animals, Plutchick (2005) stated, "Emotions are activated in an individual when issues of survival are raised in fact or by implication" (p.346). Emotions can cause physiological responses such as muscles tensing or a facial gesture. Often reactions are conscious, but they may happen unconscious, therefore they have been shaped by evolution, and some results are conscious feelings associated with emotion, but overall emotion is homeostatic which implies emotions mediate progress towards equilibrium, the process of having a balance in life (Plutchik, p.346-348, 2005). Emotions serve a purpose for everyday life tasks. A conversation can reveal emotions as a threat to an individual's safety, biological, or physiological needs. Conversation can also signal emotions that maintain balance and provide functional values for individuals, for example, love, anger, jealousy, fear. Such emotions can deal with survival like sparking a reaction to a situations, such as fight or flight reaction. Plutchik (2005) explained that there are hundreds of emotion words and these words can be grouped into families of similar emotions. Although other researchers have different lists Plutchik considers joy, sorrow, anger, fear, acceptance, disgust,

surprise, and expectancy are considered the primary emotions. In Plutchik's work this is the list he will use.

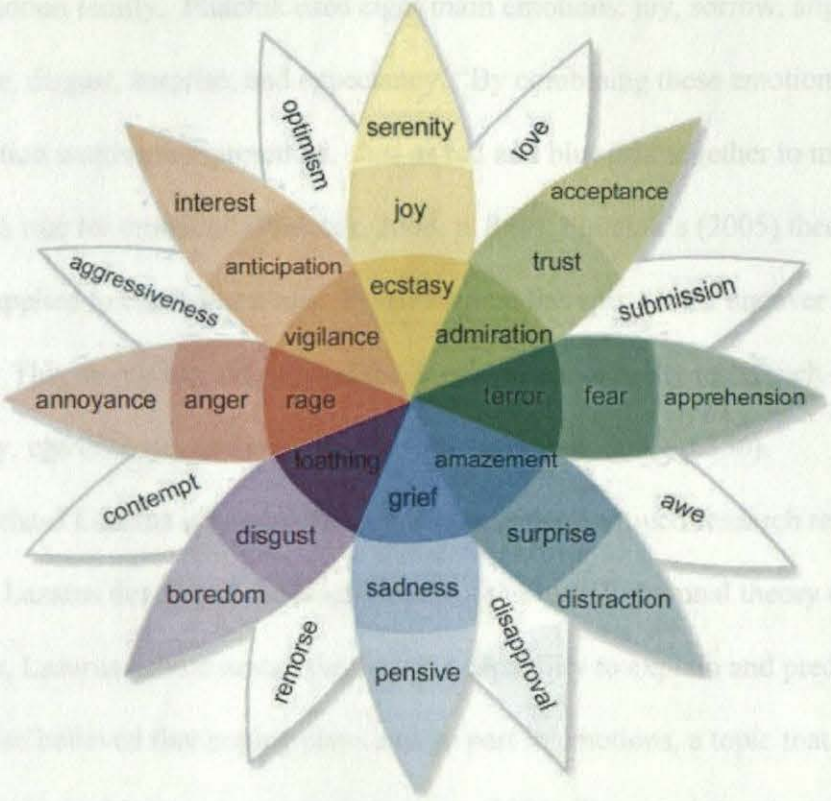

Figure 2.5. Plutchik's wheel of emotions

Figure 2.5, depicts Plutchik's (2005) description of emotions and their relation to each other. The darker shaded emotions represent the intensity of the emotion. Related emotions appear closer together to show similarity between the primary emotions, and the lightest colored leaves represent a primary dyad. This is a mixture of two primary emotions (Plutchik, 2005). The primary emotions can create combinations to produce more emotions. On this wheel, similar emotions are placed next to each other and opposite emotions are placed 180 degrees apart. For example, joy versus sorrow, anger

versus fear, acceptance versus disgust, and surprise versus expectancy. Another element relevant to the color wheel is the colors. Colors represent the intensity of emotions in a certain emotion family. Plutchik used eight main emotions: joy, sorrow, anger, fear, acceptance, disgust, surprise, and expectancy. "By combining these emotions all of the other emotion words are represented. Just as red and blue mix together to make purple, the same is true for emotion" (Plutchik, 2005, p. 349). Plutchik's (2005) theory is typically applied to clinical settings. Psychological therapists must uncover and identify emotions. This theory has also guided the development of many tests, such as mood, personality, ego defense, and coping style tests (Plutchik, 2005, p.350).

Richard Lazarus is another theorist who has done a much research related to emotions. Lazarus developed the Cognitive-Motivational-Relational theory (CMR). With this theory, Lazarus demonstrated the theory's capability to explain and predict emotions. Lazarus also believed that coping plays a large part in emotions, a topic that will be discussed later in this literature review. Lazarus (1991) illustrated that the "relational aspect of this theory meant that emotions are about person-environment relationships that involve negative emotions called harms and positive emotions known as benefits" (p.819). Person-environment relationships change over time and with circumstances. The harms and benefits, or positive and negative emotions, are described by core relational themes. Core relations themes are illustrated in Figure 2.6 and are capable of eliciting the appropriate emotion (Lazarus, 1991, p.820). For example, the shame emotion will be elicited when an individual may have failed to live up to an ego-ideal or the expectations placed on them. Core relational themes summarize the key emotion-producing feature (Lazarus, 1991, p.820).

Table 2.1. Lazarus's Core relational themes (Lazarus, 1991).

Emotion	Core Relational Theme
Anger	a demeaning offense against me and mine
Anxiety	facing uncertain, existential threat
Fright	facing an immediate, concrete, and overwhelming physical danger
Guilt	having transgressed a moral imperative
Shame	having failed to live up to an ego-ideal
Sadness	having experienced an irrevocable loss
Envy	wanting what someone else has
Jealousy	resenting a third party for loss or threat to another's affection
Disgust	taking in or being too close to an indigestible object or idea
Happiness	making reasonable progress toward realization of a goal
Pride	enhancement of one's ego-identity by taking credit for a valued object or achievement, either our own or that of someone or group with whom we identify
Relief	a distressing goal-incongruent condition that has changed for the better or gone away
Hope	fearing the worst but yearning for the better
Love	desiring or participating in affection, usually but not necessarily reciprocated
Compassion	being moved by another's suffering and wanting to help

The motivational aspect of Lazarus's theory means that emotions and moods are reactions to the importance of an individuals goals and adaptation encounters. The motivational concept relies on what makes an encounter personally relevant to individuals and either a source of harm or benefit (Lazarus, 1991, p.820). According to Lazarus, (1991) motivation is a trait within an individual and the reason that people bring

with them into an encounter in the form of goals. These encounters are goals that must be achieved by the demand, constraints, and resources available within the environment. Therefore, motivation depends on the motive in an appropriate environment that are suitable together (Lazarus, 1991). For example, if an individual comes across a bear in the woods (environment) their instincts (motive) will tell them to stay put or run.

The final piece in Lazarus' theory is cognition. The cognitive aspect is knowledge and appraisal of the situation. Knowledge is made up of the beliefs about how things work. Appraisal is based on the evaluation of personal significance to what is happening in each encounter with the environment (Lazarus, 1991, p.820). To understand the cognitive aspect completely, Lazarus (1991) stated, "One additional step is needed, to specify a specific personal meaning, this is expressed as appraisal components whose pattern is fundamental for each emotion" (p.820). Appraisal patterns differentiate emotion families from each other. For example, if we remove the situations that provoked the emotion, that emotion will no longer exist. If an individual wants what someone else has, the emotion they experiences is envy and if what someone else has is removed, the person will no longer feel envious.

According to Lazarus's theory via Campos et al. (2006) the importance emotions have within an individual's life must be examined. He mentioned there are five features that put emotions in the center of each person's life: 1) Acute emotions reveal what is personally important to individuals and serve as a measure of how well or poorly things are going, 2) Emotions are the most important characteristic in all or our relationships whether close relationships or short-term ones, 3) Emotions can impair interpersonal relationships, particularly intimate ones, 4) The process involved in emotion generation

can be obscured even if an individual understands how the emotion emerged, and 5) Emotions are very difficult to control, especially in a very intense form as emotion regulation becomes a function of the coping process (Campos et al., 2006). Therefore, Lazarus (2006) explained:

> the significance of sound cognitive, motivational, and relational theory rests on two fundamentals. One, the analysis of the emotion being exhibited by an individual should lead to a deductive guess about what the individual is thinking or the reasoning of the emotion and two, the analysis on reasoning should lead to a good deductive guess as to what emotion is being portrayed (Campos et al., 2006, p. 19).

Coping

Coping is the ability to contend with or manage difficulties and overcome those difficulties. Coping is "the constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and /or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person" (Campos et al., 2006, p.21). Coping can be viewed as a process, trait, or style. Viewing coping as a process is applicable to personal and social forces, while viewing coping as traits and styles are show stability over time and circumstance, specifically, styles that are viewed in a dichotomy (Campos et al., 2006, p.23).

Coping is related to the demand to manage one's emotions. Therefore, appraisal of the situation and coping with it take place the moment an emotion-relevant situation is encountered. Coping and appraisal mediate emotions that are created (Campos et al., 2006, p.10). Understanding emotions and the emotion process will show the role that

coping plays in the emotion process. Lazarus stated, "Emotions depend on processes, a process is always changing and emotions are a flow of actions and reactions" (Campos et al., 2006, p. 14).

Lazarus's appraising process allows relational meanings, which refer to specific individual differences in the person-environment relationship, more importantly interpersonal (Campos et al, 2006, p.11). Over and over again, Maslow, Plutchik, and Lazarus show individual differences role in emotion theory and those differences must be taken into account. Individuals have different reactions during similar situations. In order to make sense of why certain individuals react with certain emotions, it is important to know the background characteristics of each individual. These aspects include personality characteristics, which consist of goals, goal hierarchy, beliefs about self and the world, and personal resources (Campos et al., p.14, 2006), which relate closely to Maslow's self-esteem needs described earlier. Individuals may use these background characteristics to determine self-worth and that has a lot to do with a person's self-esteem. Emotions are related to how an individual views them self and a person will react to things that are important to their well-being. Individuals appraise the significance of an encounter for their own personal well-being. Appraisal is a part of the emotion process. It means that an individual will place stakes on the outcomes of an encounter and will decide their options for coping to the outcome the encounter brought (Lazarus, 1991). "The significance of appraising is the most important part of relational meaning on which a particular emotion is confirmed and how an individual copes with the emotion" (Campos, et al., 2006, p.15).

Coping with emotions in sports. Lazarus (2000) performed very extensive research on emotions and coping and he applied the CMR theory to emotions in competitive sport, using four metatheoretical and theoretical issues: (1) stress and emotion, (2) discrete emotion categories, (3) appraisal, coping, and relational meaning, and (4) process and structure. Lazarus examined? a number of discrete emotions (anger, anxiety, guilt, shame, relief, happiness, and pride) that might influence competitive sports. Lazarus used these four positions to bring more understanding on how emotions can affect sports. Lazarus provided examples using specific emotions that will be discussed in the fourth issue.

The first issue, stress and emotion, referred to how some people believe that stress is strictly negative and refers to only negative emotions. According to Lazarus (2000), "This is an unwise assumption. It is evident that stress, or eustress (stress that has positive effects) occurs with positively toned emotions like happiness, pride, love, gratitude, and compassion" (p.231). For example the pregame jitters. These are nerves an athlete can experience before a game and this nervous emotion may cause eustress.

The second issue referred to discrete emotions. Lazarus (2000) illustrated discrete emotions are centered on appraisal and tell different stories based on the individual's adaptational struggle. Determining the emotions that are relevant in competitive sports required researchers to describe the emotion an athlete experienced and relate them to successful and unsuccessful performances (Lazarus, 2000, p. 232). For example, the same nervous feeling an athlete may have before a game the athlete can describes how this emotion makes them feel and then the researchers can contribute this emotion to success or failure in the game.

The third issue is the role of appraisals, coping, and relational meaning. Emotional encounters are never identical, but they often share a common relational meaning used as a gain (benefit) or a loss (harm). Emotions that are experienced depend on the appraisal's significance to the individual and shape the way they copes based on the conditions in their life that brought about the emotion. Centering emotions on a relational meaning helps to understand why individuals experience the same emotional reaction in different situations, yet also experience different reactions in the same situations. Relational meaning is built as a means to a process of appraising the personal importance of the encounter an individual had with other individuals and the environment and helps to understand individual differences (Lazarus, p.233, 2000). This is important to sports because this may explain why individuals react differently to pressure or to coach's behaviors.

The fourth issue referred to process (an influx or change) and structure (stability over time) as it is related to performance in sports. Appraisal, coping, and the resulting emotions influence the ongoing feedback provided on an athlete's performance. These are represented by what athletes say to themselves about what is happening in their performance, and the statement's personal implications. Negative statements can potentially destructive, while the same may be true for positive statements (Lazarus, p.237, 2000). Lazarus (2000) stated, "Negative thinking is not always damaging to an athlete's performance and positive thinking is not always facilitating" (p.237). For example, an athlete may be too confident in their skills and may cause the athlete to relax in the game, allowing an opponent to come back and win.

Coping is a critical aspect of competitive sports. An athlete with good coping skills can deal with strong, possibly counterproductive, action tendencies that are involved with any emotion and display a high standard of performance (Lazarus, 2000). Coping with emotions can be an important aspect in sports because of the many factors that can inhibit performance. Athletes learning how to handle or cope with certain emotions may potentially facilitate their performance, especially at an elite level. The next section in the chapter focuses specifically on the emotion shame.

Shame

As defined earlier, "shame is a painful emotion caused by a strong sense of guilt, embarrassment, unworthiness, or disgrace. Which can lead an individual to feel that they are a great disappointment" (The American Heritage Dictionary, 2003). Nathanson (1992):

> [Shame is] a family of emotions. These are uncomfortable feelings, ranging from the mildest twinge of embarrassment to the searing pain of mortification, the Latin roots of which imply that shame can strike one dead. Shame often follows a moment of exposure; what has been exposed is something that we would have preferred kept hidden, usually something of an intimate and personal nature. Although it can be handled or diminished by laughter, anger, or withdrawal, shame always speaks about our inner self rather than our actions (p.19).

As Maslow (1943) and Herzberg (1959) explained, self-esteem is very important for an individual to feel accomplished. Nathanson (1992) illustrated, self-esteem can be reduced by many circumstances and require a quick pick-me-up to make an individual

feel good. There is a balance between shame and pride, between the personal best and personal worst. Therefore, the shame and pride axis occupy much of an individual's attention. Shame produces a painful self-awareness, through shame we are forced to remember our failures (Nathanson, 1992, p.20).

Shame may be looked at through different perspectives. Viewing shame from an evolutionary standpoint, shame is highly social, related to value such as status or rank of an individual. Shame is a family of negative emotion that is caused by devaluation (Partridge & Elison, 2010). Within sports, devaluation is important because of establishing status in relation to a media source or comparison to others. Status can change when an athlete is defeated by a stronger opponent or is defeated by a weaker opponent. Sport is a highly valued achievement domain (Partridge & Elison, 2010).

Viewing shame from a cognitive standpoint using Lazarus's CMR theory means that shame may be addressed as a process. The emotion shame can be experienced in many different contexts such as family, work, and sports. An athlete's appraisal of an experience explores the interaction of personality and environment, which result in an emotion. Therefore, an athlete may experience shame in an unsuccessful performance. They may not be able to respond or accept the consequences of shame and may employ a negative coping process (Partridge & Elison, 2010).

Compass of Shame. Nathanson (1992) developed the Compass of Shame in order to understand how individuals cope with shame (Nathanson, 1992, p.306). According to Nathanson, in order to make shame feel less intense an individual must develop defensive scripts that weaken the power of shame. Scripts are a diagram for arranging "rules for the interpretation, evaluation, prediction, production, or control" of situations (Elison,

Pulos, & Lennon, 2006, p.162). These defensive scripts involve four main categories: Withdrawal, Attack Self, Avoidance, and Attack Other. Each of these categories represent an entire system by which an individual handles shame. Figure 2.6 is an illustration of the Compass of Shame.

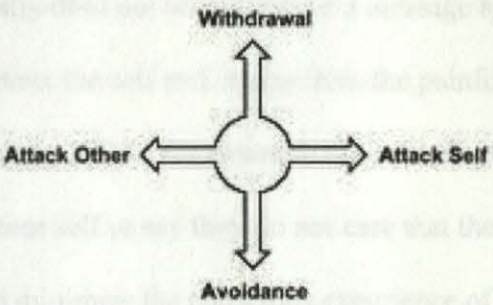

Figure 2.6. Nathanson's Compass of Shame. (Nathanson: Shame and Pride, 1992)

At the Withdrawal pole, an individual acknowledges the experience as negative, accepts shame's message as true, and tries to withdraw from the situation (Elison, Pulos, & Lennon, 2006; Nathanson, 1992). For example, an athlete who made a critical fielding error that scored the winning run for the other team. This athlete may withdraw or separate themselves completely from their teammates. The athlete's motivation in this case, is to limit the shameful exposure and withdraw from the situation (Patridge & Elison, 2010, p. 6).

"At the Attack Self pole, the person acknowledges the experience as negative, accepts shame's message as valid, and turns anger inward" (Elison, Pulos, & Lennon, 2006; Nathanson, 1992). In this instance, the same softball player, who made the game changing error, may target all their anger inward and use self-degrading statements and

self-inflicted pain. The athlete's motivation in this case, is to take control of their shame. In the end their goal is gaining acceptance from others or their teammates by preventing the shameful situation from happing again (Patridge & Elison, 2010, p.7).

"At the Avoidance pole, a person typically does not acknowledge the negative experience of self, typically does not accept shame's message as valid (denial), and attempts are made to distract the self and others from the painful feeling" (Elison, Pulos, & Lennon, 2006; Nathanson, 1992). For example the softball player, who made the error, may make jokes about them self or say they do not care that they lost the game. In this case, the motivation is to minimize the conscious experience of shame or show that they is above the shame (Partridge & Elison, 2010, p.7).

Finally, "at the Attack Other pole, an individual may or may not acknowledge the negative experience of self, typically does not accept shame's message, and attempts are made to make someone else feel worse" (Elison, Pulos, & Lennon, 2006; Nathanson, 1992). For example, the softball player will not blame them self but will place the blame on someone or something else for missing the error other than them self, such as a bad hop, the runner got in the way, or the fans. In this case, the motivation is to bolster one's own self image and externalize the shame to another entity (Partridge & Elison, 2010, p.7).

Shame-coping responses described by Nathanson (1992) established Dr. Jeff Elison's idea for the Compass of Shame Scale (CoSS). Athletes are constantly striving to do whatever it takes to compete against the best. Their competition is also asked to do the same. This may create many situations where there can be an immense amount of pressure to be successful and someone will always lose. As stated earlier, losses to

opponents of lower status may create devaluation and elicit shame in athletes. Learning how to cope becomes an important aspect that athletes need to deal with (Partridge & Elison, 2010). The CoSS is an instrument which allows the researcher to determine what response an athlete is more likely to take.

Compass of Shame Scale (CoSS). Nathanson's work on the Compass of Shame led to the development of the Compass of Shame- Scale (CoSS). The CoSS was created by Elison, Pulos, and Lennon (2006) to assess the use of the four shame-coping styles described in the Compass of Shame. Most individuals tend to favor one of the four shame-coping styles, but in some instances an individual may use all four techniques (Nathanson, 1992, p.312). Using Nathanson's book, Shame and Pride (1992), Elison, Lennon, and Pulos (2006) created a blueprint of the CoSS, which specifies series of items that describe situations that can potentially elicit shame and possible shame-related emotions (guilt, embarrassment, rejection). These items are followed by four responses that represent reactions pertaining to each shame-copping pole: Withdrawal, Avoidance, Attack Other, and Attack Self. Due to the nature of the Likert-style questions, each of the shame-coping styles could be answered with the same frequency. Meaning, the responses are easily compared to one another. Elison, Lennon, and Pulos (2006) concluded, "its psychometric properties indicate that the CoSS is a promising instrument for the assessment of the shame-coping styles. It has the expected internal structure. The four scales have acceptable to high internal consistency. The scales demonstrate the expected pattern of correlations with criterion variables" (p.231).

Elison & Partridge's (in press), used the CoSS to explore this study relationships among shame-coping, perfectionism, and fear of failure because shame and other

negatively related emotions are frequently experienced after an athlete fails. Elison & Partidge's sample consisted of 285 college athletes; eighty-eight percent (250) were varsity athletes. The results support Elison & Partridge's (in press) view that shame-coping styles are important predictors of maladaptive fear of failure and perfectionism among athletes. Attack Self was the strongest predictor of maladaptive outcomes, suggesting athletes are concerned with their mistakes and unable to let them go. Withdrawal was the second highest predictor of maladaptive outcomes, which may be due to the internalization aspect it shares with Attack Self. Also demonstrated in this study was the adaptive side of perfectionism and shame-coping as there was a significant correlation between Attack Self and Striving for Excellence ($r=.22$. $p<.001$). This may be due to the fact that feelings of shame could actually motivate athletes to try harder (Elison & Partridge, in press, p.12, 16-18).

Research frequently addresses athlete motivation and how athletes stay motivated. Emotions of athletes are commonly overlooked, especially emotions dealing directly within social contexts such as, relationships, work, and sports. Exploration of specific negative emotions can provide sport psychology professionals with greater understanding of how individuals react to the highly visible and valued domain of sport" (Partridge & Elison, 2010, p.1). Lazarus (2000) explored stress, positive emotions, and negative emotions and their effect on competitive athletes using his cognitive-motivational-relational theory of emotions. As Lazarus (2000) stated, "Using appraisal can formulate the right kind of coping, which is important in competition and could lead athletes to become re-motivated and display excellence, therefore coping is a critical aspect of competitive sports" (p.38). Partridge & Elison (2010) furthered this work and looked

specifically at the emotion of shame. As a family (shame, embarrassment, and humiliation), these emotions are an athletes' perception of being seen by others as someone less worthy than how the athlete would like to be seen as (devaluation). Thoughts and feelings of be devalued can link poor performances to shame (p.1). Partridge & Elison (2010) believe that shame results from devaluation, which is important for many reasons. For example, establishing status (media, polls, and head-to-head competition), indirect and direct comparisons (current status does not guarantee future status and higher perceived status), and achievement in highly valued domains (salaries, scholarships, and higher status, higher access to resources). This shows that emotional outcomes are dependent on social comparisons, especially in the highly valued domain of sport (p.3).

In conclusion, understanding negative emotions, such as shame can provide a better understanding of how athletes react in a sporting context. Due to the competitive nature of athletics, shame may be magnified and have a greater effect on maladaptive outcomes. The purpose of this study is to look into the relationship of an athletes' perception of their coaches' behaviors and how an athlete uses the shame-coping responses to mediate their coaches' behaviors and the outcomes the athlete feels the coach may be responsible for. This study may help us better understand the emotion shame and if it has a greater effect on positive or negative outcomes experienced by the athlete. Another interesting purpose of this study is to see how athletes who may start and have scholarship money deal with the shame they perceive from their coaches.

CHAPTER 3:

PROCEDURES

As demonstrated in the literature review, motivation is a key concept in determining which emotions an individual will express, due to how emotions have adapted and how individuals adapt, change, and predict what environments and situations make them feel. People are motivated to satisfying their desires and these motivations may elicit certain conscious or unconscious emotions. The concept of motivation has been discussed here through Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Plutchik and Lazarus's theories of emotion, Nathanson's Compass of Shame, and Elison's CoSS-Sport. Each of these theories and models provide the foundation for this study. This study will explore the role that perceived coaches' behaviors have on female college athletes' feelings of shame in game and practice settings, and the athletes' shame-coping responses to feelings. In addition, this study will explore whether the shame-coping responses mediate relationships between coaches behaviors and adaptive outcomes (trying harder, proving coach wrong, etc.) or maladaptive outcomes (burnout, quitting, attacking others, etc.) in female athletes.

Participants.

Participants for this study will be approximately 100 female varsity athletes, currently competing at a Division II college in Colorado. These athletes participate in traditional team sports such as, volleyball, basketball, softball, lacrosse, and soccer. Traditional means athletes compete under controlled circumstances. The 100 female athletes surveyed will be between the ages of 18-24. All athletes will be asked to sign an informed consent form before proceeding to answering the surveys.

Instruments.

The researcher will utilize four different tools to gather data: 1) a demographics assessment, 2) The CoSS-Sport-Coach, 3) The Athlete Perception Questionnaire, and 4) The Outcome Questionnaire. Dr. Schell, Dr. Elison, and myself produced The Athlete Perception and Outcome Questionnaire. I am aware there is rich literature and other measures have been used for Athlete Perceptions, but due to the purpose of this study we have developed these two questionnaires to supplement and coincide specifically to the CoSS. The first questionnaire that will be used is a demographic questionnaire, which will contain questions dealing with age, year in school, scholarship percentage, and starters vs. non-starters.

The second survey is a modified version of the Compass of Shame Scale-Sport (CoSS-Sport; Elison & Partridge, in press). Regarding the original CoSS created by Elison and colleagues (Elison, Lennon, Pulos, 2006), and was relevant to assess the population of this study:

> They found that shame-coping styles are differentially related to psychological symptoms, suggesting that shame-coping styles may play a mediating role between the experience of shame and symptoms. Campbell and Elison (2005) also found that the CoSS subscales differed in the magnitudes of their correlations with psychopathy, with Attack Other showing the highest correlation. Yelsma et al. (2002) found Attack Self and Withdrawal to be the CoSS subscales with the strongest correlations (negative) with self-esteem. Thus, results have supported the validity of the CoSS, and these supportive results continue to accumulate (Elison & Partridge, in press.).

The original CoSS created by Elison presents 12 shame-provoking situations that could be and may be encountered in everyday life (Elison & Partridge, in press). Participants answer on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (almost always), assessing the frequency by choosing a number to indicate how frequently they believe they use the four Compass of Shame responses. The CoSS has been widely used and translated into at least ten languages. The validity of the CoSS was demonstrated by correlating the CoSS scale scores to scale scores from various criterion measures (Elison, Pulos, & Lennon, 2006): The Internalized Shame Scale (ISS), The SCL-90-R(Symptom Check List), The Attack Other Scale (AOS), and The Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ) . The CoSS-Sport is a modification of the original CoSS, translating the shame-eliciting scenarios to the world of sports. The original CoSS-Sport has 13 general scenarios related to competitive situations. The modified CoSS-Sport (CoSS-Sport-Coach), which was modified for the purposes of this study with the help of Dr. Elison, will consist of 10 scenarios that are related more specifically to how an athlete may respond in a potentially shame-eliciting situation that involves their coach in game and. Or practice settings. The four responses to each scenario represent Attack-Self, Withdrawal, Attack-Other, and Avoidance. This survey will use the 1-to-5 frequency scale described earlier.

The third questionnaire is the Athlete Perception Questionnaire. I developed this questionnaire with the help of Dr. Shell and Dr. Elison to supplement the CoSS-Sport-Coach. The questions on this survey pertain to the athletes' perception of their coaches and how their coaches may make them feel in certain situations related to the scenarios on the modified CoSS-Sport-Coach. An example of a question is, My coach says things

that make me feel inferior to other athletes and the are three responses that can be chosen are 1) Never, 2) Sometimes, and 3) Always.

The fourth questionnaire is the Outcome Questionnaire. Dr. Shell, Dr. Elison, and myself also developed this for the same purpose as the other questionnaire except to help better understand the outcomes shame has on the athletes. After each question, the participants will circle the number that best represents how strongly they disagree or agree with the statement using the following Likert scale: 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Using the Likert scale, this questionnaire assesses how strongly an athlete feels about quitting or remaining on the team. There are five positive outcomes (inspired, prove the coach wrong, rise to the challenge, excited to compete, and best athlete they can be) and five negative outcomes (quitting, dread practice/games, lashing out, unconfident in abilities, transferring school). (The modified CoSS-Sport-Coach, Athlete Perception Questionnaire, Outcome Questionnaire, and the Demographic questionnaire appear in the appendix).

Procedures.

After authorization from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) is obtained, the surveys will be formatted for electronic distribution on www.surveymonkey.com. At a pre-set time, the head coach of each program will walk their athletes to a campus computer lab. The coach will then leave the computer lab. The athletes will be asked to sign a consent form to participate. If an athlete chooses not to participate she may immediately leave. The remaining athletes who have signed the consent form will be given directions on how to access the four online surveys. The athletes will be given the direct link to each survey. Once an athlete finishes one survey, she will use the next link

for the second survey and so on until all are completed. After all of the athletes have taken the surveys, the researcher will store all the data from the surveys onto a USB device and store the information in a secure location that can only be accessed by the researcher. After each team has had a chance to answer the four surveys, the researcher will begin data analysis.

Only the researcher has access to the online data through a secure login and password.

Data Analysis.

Data will be analyzed quantitatively. Because the CoSS-Sport-Coach, the Athlete Perception Questionnaire, and the Outcome Questionnaire were developed specifically for the present study, exploratory factor analyses will be run to determine which items are suitable for each a priori subscale. Reliability, specifically Cronbach's alpha, will be computed for the derived subscales. For the modified CoSS-Sport-Coach Scale, totals are calculated by adding the score in each column (scale). The column totals are the total of the 10 responses for each style of coping (Avoidance, Attack Self, Attack Other, and Withdrawal) and by calculating the total in each row (situation). Situational totals are the totals of the four shame-coping responses for each of the 10 scenarios. The situational totals may be used to determine which situations are especially disturbing to an individual. For this survey, scale totals and situation totals will be analyzed.

For the Athlete Perception Questionnaire the data will also be analyzed in a quantitative manner, as the nature of the scale being used is a frequency-based scale. The analyses of this questionnaire will illustrate in which scenarios an athlete feels her/his coach makes her/him feel shamed, humiliated, embarrassed, or guilty. All of these

emotions are used because they are all in the "shame" family. The Outcome Questionnaire will be analyzed in the same manner. This survey will demonstrate the athletes' thoughts pertaining to their continuance of playing or discontinuing to play.

The relationships among scores from all four of these surveys will be evaluated using a MANOVA test in SPSS. Looking into athletes' perceptions of their coaches could be a determining factor in the shame-coping strategy that they use, ultimately explaining which athletes want to quit or which athletes who want to try harder. Also, athletes who have more tendencies to quit could show in their dominant coping style, ultimately showing which athlete perceptions of their coaches' behaviors lead to maladaptive outcomes. The role of the modified CoSS-Sport-Coach will be assessed as a mediator between the coaches' behaviors, athlete perceptions, and outcomes the athletes feel compelled towards.

CHAPTER 4:

RESULTS

This study focused on the relationships between athletes' perceptions of coaches' behaviors and female college athletes' feelings of shame in game and practice settings, and the athletes' shame-coping responses to these feelings. Specifically, whether shame-coping responses have a relationship between coaches' behaviors and adaptive outcomes (trying harder, proving coach wrong, etc.) or maladaptive outcomes (burnout, quitting, etc.) in female athletes. The sample population used for the study included 80 female athletes, who played basketball, lacrosse, soccer, softball, and volleyball from Adams State University, a small, rural Division II college in Colorado.

This study looked at seven research questions, all pertaining to a three-fold purpose: (1) to explore the relationships between athletes' perceptions of coaches' behaviors and female college athletes' feelings of shame in game and practice settings, and the athletes' shame-coping responses to these feelings, (2) to explore whether the shame-coping responses might mediate relationships between coaches' behaviors and adaptive outcomes in female athletes, (3) to discover if having a scholarship or being a starter play a role in outcomes of shame.

Three questionnaires were used to fulfill this purpose, and because two questionnaires were made specifically for this study an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed for each questionnaire.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Reliability of Questionnaires

The nature of this research required questionnaires to be designed specifically for this study. Therefore, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was performed for each

questionnaire in order to identify its dimensionality (i.e., how many subscales should be used). The EFA of the 10-item Athlete Perception Questionnaire (APQ) produced two factors with Eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (4.22, 1.18); however, the second Eigenvalue was barely greater than 1.0 and the scree plot suggested only one factor. Therefore, the APQ was treated as uni-dimensional, explaining 42.23% of the variance in the 10 items, and a single scale total was calculated. Cronbach's alpha for the 10 items was .84.

The EFA of the 24-item Outcome Questionnaire (OQ) produced five factors with Eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (8.59, 3.42, 1.65, 1.43, 1.11). However, the screen plot suggested two factors and factors 3, 4, and 5 were not interpretable. Therefore, another EFA was run forcing a two-factor solution. The two factors appeared to be capturing the positively versus the negatively worded items and the factors were correlated at $r = .48$. Therefore, the OQ was treated as uni-dimensional, explaining 35.81% of the variance in the 24 items, and a single total score was computed. The initial reliability analysis of the 24 items indicated a Cronbach's alpha of.91. However, the item-total statistics indicated that items #5 and #15 were poor items, in agreement with the EFA. After items #5 and #15 were removed the reliability increased to .92. Therefore only 22 items were totaled for the Outcome Questionnaire.

The EFA of the 40-item COSS-Sport-Coach (CoSS-SC) produced 11 factors with Eigenvalues greater than 1.0; however, the scree plot suggested four factors (9.69, 4.21, 2.97, 2.46), as it was designed to have. Therefore, another EFA was run forcing a four-factor solution. The four factors aligned reasonably well with the intended design: most F1 items were Attack Self; most F2 items were Withdrawal, almost all F3 items were Attack Other; all F4 items were Avoidance. Combined, the four factors explained

48.34% of the variance. Cronbach's alpha for Attack-Self was .86; Withdrawal was .82 (dropping item #8); Attack-Other was .84; Avoidance was .76 (dropping item #5). Four subscale total scores were calculated accordingly.

Relationships between Coaching Behaviors, Shame Coping Styles, and Outcomes of Shame.

Athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behavior (APQ) strongly correlated with the Outcome Questionnaire (OQ: $r = .72, p < .001$), which was predicted. However, the essential purpose of this study was to determine if athletes' shame-coping styles (CoSS-SC) might mediate this relationship between athletes' perceptions (APQ) of their coaches and the athletes' outcomes (OQ). As predicted, three of the four shame coping styles were significantly correlated with the APQ total: Attack-Self ($r = .44, p < .001$), Withdrawal ($r = .33, p < .01$), and Attack-Other ($r = .41, p < .001$); Avoidance ($r = .08, p > .05$) was not significantly correlated. As with the APQ, Attack-Self ($r = .29, p < .05$), Withdrawal ($r = .32, p < .01$), and Attack-Other ($r = .42, p < .001$) correlated significantly with the Outcome Questionnaire, but Avoidance ($r = .16, p > .05$) did not.

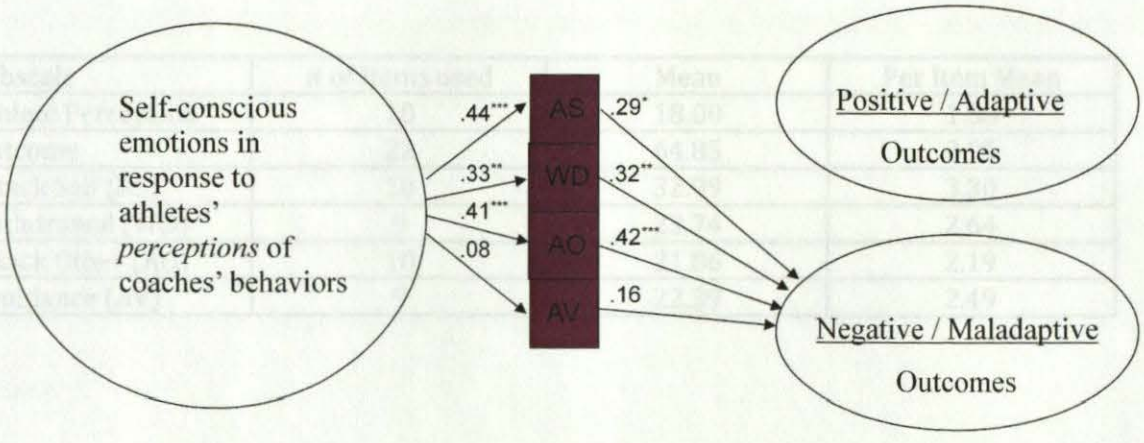

Figure 4.1. Results of Correlations (Elison, & Schultz, 2013).

Figure 4.1 depicts these zero-order correlations graphically. It can be determined from Figure 4.1, seen above, that shame as a response to an athletes' perceptions of her coaches' behavior most likely will lead to negative and maladaptive outcomes such as quitting, blaming others, or not trying as hard. The shame- coping style that is most highly correlated with negative outcomes is Attack-Other, but athletes' tended to gravitate towards Attack- Self when his/ her coaches' used shame as a motivator. Either way, three of the four shame-coping styles, all but Avoidance, within this study led to maladaptive outcomes. Avoidance may not have had significance because the nature of this coping script is denial. Denial could have affected the results due to the use of self-report questionnaires. Either way, an athlete may deny the experience even happened and the message brought on by shame is not true (Elison, Pulos, & Lennon, 2006; Nathanson, 1992).

Table 4.1. Per Item Means

Subscale	# of Items used	Mean	Per Item Mean
Athlete Perception	10	18.00	1.80
Outcome	22	64.85	2.95
Attack Self (AS)	10	32.99	3.30
Withdrawal (WD)	9	23.74	2.64
Attack Other (AO)	10	21.86	2.19
Avoidance (AV)	9	22.39	2.49

Table 4.3 depicts the per-item means within each subscale to help understand how the sample generally perceived their coaches, tendencies toward negative outcomes, and which shame-coping mechanism this population gravitated towards. Each per-item mean was calculated by taking the mean and dividing it by the number of items used for the respective subscale. For example, APQ used 10 items and the mean was 18. (18 / 10 = 1.80). This indicates that participants' perceptions of their coaches' shaming behaviors were in between 1 (*never*) and 2 (*sometimes*), closer to *sometimes*, showing the participants' perceptions were only sometimes negative. The per item mean for the OQ was 2.95, indicating participants' outcomes were just below *neutral*. In the Attack Self subscale the per item mean was 3.3, indicating that the participants were in between *sometimes* and *often*, showing these woman used Attack Self the most to cope with shame. The Withdrawal subscale had a per item mean of 2.64, stating the participants were between *seldom* and *sometimes* when it involved withdrawing themselves from the negative experience. The third highest subscale per item mean was Avoidance, 2.49, indicating that the participants were in between *seldom* and *sometimes*, though much closer to *seldom* using denial as a means to cope with shame. The lowest per item mean was Attack Other, 2.19, depicting answers close to *seldom*, showing these female athletes hardly ever would place blame on someone else. This latter finding should be viewed with skepticism, as Attack Other typically demonstrates the lowest mean and is susceptible to socially desirable responding (J. Elison, personal communication, April 17, 2014). In other words, participants under-report Attack Other to make themselves appear better.

Two other factors that might influence shame-coping, athletes' perceptions, and athletes' outcomes were scholarship status (none, partial, full) and starting status (starter vs. non-starter). These were unrelated to all three dependent variables (Coss-SC, APQ, and OQ), as determined by ANOVAs for scholarship status and *t* tests for starter status. The results of the demographic questionnaire for both research questions, 1) did the amount of scholarship relate to adaptive or maladaptive outcomes connected to female athletes' shame? 2) Did being a starting athlete relate to positive or negative outcomes associated with shame?

Table *4.2. Demographics of Participants- Scholarship Status.*

Scholarship Status	Percentage	Number of Athletes
None	6.3%	5
Partial	71.3%	57
Full	16.3%	13
I Don't Know	6.3 %	5

Table 4.3. Demographics of Participants- Team Role.

Team Role	Percentage	Number of Athletes
Starter	60%	48
Non-Starter	40%	32

Depicted in Figure 4.1 and 4.2 are the demographics for this study. The majority of these athletes were on partial scholarships (71.3%) and over half of them were starters (60%) for the team they played on. Out of 80 female athlete participants, combining the partial and full scholarships, 70 women had scholarships and 48 of them were self-reported starters for their specified sport.

CHAPTER 5:

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this chapter is to analyze the findings and discuss the similarities and contrasting aspects of the research against the range of literature and previous research presented in Chapter 2. Emotions are reactions to ongoing relationships (e.g., environment, interpersonal, social), and are a response an individual has to situations they may encounter (Lazarus, 2000, p.230). The emotion that was researched in this study was shame. As previously defined by Nathanson (1992), "shame is a family of uncomfortable feelings that range from small embarrassments to severe mortification. Shame can be handled in many ways, but it always speaks about our inner self and value" (p.19). This harmful emotion can be brought on in many ways by people who hold positions of power and those that mean a great deal to the individual (e.g., teammates, coaches, teachers, parents). "Due to its destructive nature, shame produces a painful self-awareness, through which individuals are forced to remember his/ her failures" (Nathanson, 1992, p.20).

In this section, the research questions guided by this study will be discussed with regard to further research and the findings revealed in this study. The research questions are as follows; 1) Are athletes' perceptions of coaching behaviors related to female athletes' feelings of shame? 2) Under what circumstances do female athletes feel shame? 3) Are coaches' behaviors related to outcomes (ex. burnout, quitting, trying harder connected to athlete shame? 4) Do the shame-coping styles mediate the outcomes related to athlete shame? 5) Do shame-coping styles, shown in the CoSS, mediate outcomes with the athletes who respond negatively and/or positively to coaches' behaviors? 6) Does the

amount of scholarship relate to adaptive or maladaptive outcomes connected to female athlete shame? 7) Does being a starting athlete relate to positive or negative outcomes associated with shame?

Relationship between athlete perceptions of coaching behaviors, female athlete shame, and outcomes associated with shame.

Athletes may use any information they can find that will enhance their performance. According to Frey, Czech, Kent, and Johnson, " The coach-athlete relationship has been shown to have a profound effect on an athlete's satisfaction performance and quality of life" (Frey, Czech, Kent, & Johnson, 2011, p.1). Motivation can take many forms resembling inspiration or embarrassment. Motivation is a relevant aspect used among those in power (e.g., teachers, coaches, parents) and can be used to help an individual to pursue his/her goals. The literature review discussed how creating human emotion could elicit motivation whether it is adaptive or maladaptive. Due to the similarities in research questions 1, 2, and 3, this section will present findings related to all three.

In the present study athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behavior (APQ) strongly correlated with the Outcome Questionnaire (OQ), indicating that an athletes' perception of their coach plays a role in the outcomes related to shame (ex. trying harder, burnout, proving the coach wrong, quitting, ect.). Research question number one asks, "Are athletes' perceptions of coaching behaviors related to female athletes' feelings of shame?" Due to the correlation alone the answer to this question is confirmed as was predicted. Research discussed in my literature review had similar conclusions about

athletes' perceptions of their coaches and emotional and physical responses tied to these perceptions.

In the research study by Williams, Jerome, Kenow, Rogers, Sartain, and Darland (2000), they aimed to support and expand Smoll and Smith's (1989) model of leadership behaviors in sport. This model used a system, The Coaching Behavior Assessment System (CBAS), which coded 12 coaching behaviors through observation of athletes during their practices and games. This assessment was helpful when measuring actual coaching behaviors, but it did not give evidence of how each athlete reacted to those behaviors. The lack of any tool that could measure athletes' perceptions of their coaches led to the development of the Coaching Behavior Questionnaire (1992) and earlier phases of the research presented in this study.

Williams et al. (2000) wanted to explore earlier findings of Kenow and Williams (1992;1999) on a larger scale. They had a total of 484 college and high school athletes from a variety of team sports (basketball, baseball, softball, and volleyball) complete a series of four different questionnaires that assessed the athletes' perceptions of their coaches, trait anxiety, state anxiety and self-confidence, and compatibility the athletes' felt with their coaches.

The results from the CBQ and athletes' variables presented by Williams et al. (2000) were,

> "Across all sports, athletes who reported higher trait anxiety and lower self-confidence prior to competition were more likely to perceive that their coach engaged in behaviors during competition that would have a negative effect on them compared to athletes who were less anxious and more confident. The same

negative perceptions came about with higher state anxiety and players that perceived less compatibility with coach. Lastly, players who self-reported low confidence and less coach-athlete compatibility perceived coach to show fewer supportive behaviors and less emotional composure during competition, compared to athletes with the opposite profile" (p.26).

The research by, Williams et al. (2000) study is relevant to the present study on female athlete shame due to the similar conclusions were reached. This verifies the first research question, "Are coaching behaviors related to female athlete feelings of shame?" By explaining that athletes' perceptions of their coaches plays an important role on their feelings, attitudes, performance, anxiety, and ability to cope to an unfavorable situation.

The second research question is "Under what circumstances do athletes feel shame?" In the present study within the questionnaires, shameful situations are exhibited throughout. Each question demonstrates a situation where an athlete would feel shame. For example in situation one of the CoSS-Sport-Coach it states, "In competitive situations, when my coach says my strength or skill can't match my opponent's." The athlete here is asked to live this shameful experience and answer on a scale to what degree, between *never* and *almost always*, they would react. Each response illustrates a shame-coping script (Attack Self, Attack Other, Avoidance, Withdrawal). Therefore the nature of this study alone answers the second research question, but research by Richard Lazarus (2000), used his work on the cognitive-motivational-relational theory to understanding performance in sports. Lazarus explains how emotion is very unique to the individual experiencing it. In particular he discusses guilt and shame and mentioned,

"these emotions have to do with the need to live up to moral social standards and ego-ideals...Shame and guilt are distinguished by the nature of personal failure, implying a character defect, making it extremely hard to deal with" (Lazarus, 2000, p.245).

Shame is a harmful emotion for individuals, it is a painful emotion associated with feelings of unworthiness, embarrassment, and is speaking about our inner self; it is very personal and intimate in nature, to the individual it brings the feeling of being a great disappointment and lowering one's value (Nathanson, 1992). Lazarus (2000) explains when shame-prone athletes fail in competition; they may think that this failure reveals a serious character flaw. They have let down others, as well as themselves, and wish to hide shame from everyone. This alienation is hardly conducive to high levels of performance (Lazarus, 2000, p.246). Athletes that have experienced shame, almost always, placed it on themselves, but it can come from those in power, from teammates, and from family members.

In *Shame in Sport: Issues and Directions*, Partridge and Elison (2010) discussed the importance of shame in a sports setting, the role of shame in theory, such as Lazarus' Cognitive-Relational-Motivational theory, which was previously discussed, and implications of coping with shame in sport. Partridge and Elison (2010) explain sport from a social standpoint where shame is a response to devaluation. The nature of sport is based on establishing status, athletes will compare themselves to other athletes and a higher perceived status (e.g., higher rankings, ace pitchers, starters, etc.) can determine emotional outcomes. This makes sports a highly valued achievement-based domain (Partridge & Elison, 2011, p.3). This leads us into the third research question, "Are coaching behaviors related to outcomes connected with athlete shame?" The present

study illustrates an answer to this question simply in what is seen in the high correlation between the APQ and OQ ($r = .72$).

Gearity and Murray's (2011) study illustrates the effects of poor coaches, as reported by collegiate, professional, and semi-professional athletes. Existential phenomenology was used to conduct this study, allowing each athlete to describe his or her experiences fully. They were asked if they self-perceived to have ever been poorly coached? If they responded confirming that they felt they were poorly coached and were willing to share the experience he/she was asked to participate in an interview of this experience. This study was limited to 16 athletes. The first question asked of each athlete was, "Tell me about a specific time you experienced poor coaching." All latter questions were to flow from this dialog rather then have predetermined questions. Data were analyzed and placed into five themes: 1) Poor teaching by the coach, which was represented by coaches being perceived as unknowledgeable and bad at giving instruction. 2) Poor coaches were described as uncaring, entailed coaches failed to provide support. The coach was not there when the athlete needed them; the coach only cared about making them self look good or winning. 3) The coach was unfair; stating coaches' treatment of the athlete was 'just wrong.' Coaches lied, degraded and ridiculed their athletes. The coaches also played favoritism. 4) The coach inhibited their athletes' mental skills, meaning coaches were perceived to damage an athlete's mental performance by dividing the team, instilling self-doubt, and uninspired each athlete. Last, 5) Athlete coping, shows the way athletes deal with and adapt to a poor coach (Gearity & Murray, 2011). "Athletes believed that their poor coaches did more to divide the team than to build cohesion, indicating that athletes who perceive low levels of

cohesion are more likely to drop out" (Gearity & Murray, 2011, p.219) The study done by Gearity and Murray (2011) shows that a required skill that every athlete needs to develop is to learn how to cope with poor coaching. This helps to explain that coaches' behaviors are correlated with female athlete shame, which in the case of the present study was predicted and showed a high correlation. Which leads to the next discussion on athlete coping.

Shame-coping styles mediate outcomes related to shame.

Athletes who learn how to cope with potentially debilitating emotions may improve their performance, especially at an elite level. To better understand how one copes with shame, previously mentioned in chapter 2, Nathanson (1992) developed the Compass of Shame. Individuals manage shame by making it a less intense emotion by creating defensive mechanisms that weaken shame's power. These scripts fall into four categories: Withdrawal, Attack Self, Avoidance, and Attack Other. Each category represents an entire system by which an individual handles feelings of shame. Respectively, some examples are separating his/ herself completely, targeting anger inward at his/ herself, minimizing the experience of shame, and externalizing feelings of shame (Partridge & Elison, 2010).

A study that lends credit to the findings in the present study and gives more insight to the literature was performed by Elision and Partridge (2012), on *Relationships between Shame-Coping, Fear of Failure, and Perfectionism in College Athletes*. This study pertains to the fourth and fifth research questions; do shame-coping styles mediate the outcomes related to athlete shame and do shame-coping styles mediate outcomes with the athletes who respond negatively and/or positively to coaches' behaviors? Elison and

Partridge (2012) hypothesized that the degree of the correlations between shame-coping styles versus perfectionism and fear of failure be ordered by the amount which shame-coping styles consist of consciousness and internalization of shame. Another thing to keep in mind is that mediation represents a relationship between two entities where an entirely separate entity would arbitrate between the two. In the present study mediation wasn't necessarily the right way to put it. There was a correlation between athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behavior and the shame coping responses (Attack Self being the highest) and there was a correlation between the shame coping responses and the negative outcomes related to shame.

Elison and Partridge's sample was composed of 285 college athletes, male and female, participating in a variety of sports classified as team or individual and contact or noncontact. Elison and Partridge used three questionnaires to perform this study. Each participant completed the 1) Compass of Shame Scale-Sport (CoSS-Sport), which measures an individuals' use of Nathanson's proposed shame-coping styles. 2) Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory (PFAI), comprised of five subscales (fear of shame and embarrassment, fear of devaluing one's self estimate, fear of having and uncertain future, fear of losing social influence, and fear of upsetting important others) to determine a total calculated score of an athlete's fear of failure. 3) Perfectionism Inventory (PI) which is comprised of two subscales (self-evaluative perfectionism and conscientious perfectionism) to determine a total calculated score of an athlete's perfectionism (Elison & Partridge, 2012).

Elison and Partridge's (2012) results supported the idea that shame-coping styles are important predictors of maladaptive fear of failure and perfectionism. Attack Self is

greater than Withdrawal at predicting maladapitive fear of failure and perfectionism, which is greater than Attack Other, followed by Avoidance (Elison & Partridge, 2012, p.16). This is directly related to the current study and answers research question four and five because it shows Attack Self has the highest correlation with athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behavior (APQ) and outcomes related to shame seen in the Outcome Questionnaire (OQ). Attack Self most likely is such a powerful predictor when it comes to maladaptive outcomes because of its nature applying to most athletes. These athletes who use Attack Self as a coping mechanism usually go beyond internalizing shame, they magnify shame to have the highest negative impact on themselves. In Elison and Partridge's (2012) results, the highest correlations are between Attack Self and Fear of Shame and Embarrassment, Concern over Mistakes, and Rumination, which suggests athletes who use Attack Self frequently fear shame and are more concerned with their mistakes, unable to let them go (Elison & Partridge, 2012, p.16).

In the present study, the second most predictive coping style was Withdrawal. According to Elison and Partridge (2012), Withdrawal was also the second most predictive style. This is perhaps due to the internalization factor it shares with Attack Self, but Withdrawal more likely will lead to isolation. Attack Other and Avoidance are the other shame-coping styles and were less predictive of fear of failure and perfectionism, most likely because athletes who demonstrate using these two coping styles usually do not take responsibility for their shortcomings or even acknowledge them (Elison & Partridge, 2012, p17). This was true with Avoidance in the present study, but Attack Other also had a significant role among the males that participated.

An interesting find in Elison and Partridge (2012) is the adaptive side of Attack Self and Striving for Excellence. These scales were positively correlated due to the fact that feelings of shame motivate some people to try harder. For the most part, the results found in the present study pertaining to shame-coping styles were consistent with the findings in Elison and Partridge. Another consistency across these studies is that athletes in team sports report perfectionism in the form of Concern over Mistakes, which stated earlier is correlated with Attack Self as a shame-coping Mechanism (Elison & Partridge, 2012, p.19). This was common among the female athletes tested in this thesis. Therefore, the Elison and Partridge study support the outcomes and results in the present study by both having similar results that help answer research questions four and five. Shame coping styles illustrate what outcomes are correlated with shame and because athlete perceptions are strongly correlated with negative outcomes we can anticipate negative outcomes when athletes' feel shame.

According to Nathanson (1992), individuals may maladaptively respond to shame-provoking situations through one of the four coping styles. As this study has shown, most individuals tend to favor one of the four coping styles, but in some cases may use all four. Apparent is that Attack Self demonstrated the highest correlations with athletes' perceptions and negative outcomes. It shows that most of the female athletes participating in this study are very concerned with pressure and feelings of shame being placed on them by their coach, consequently trying to avoid making mistakes and when a mistake is made they are unable to let it go. This illustrated more maladaptive outcomes when an athletes' shame-coping response was Attack Self, as the two were strongly correlated.

Scholarship status, team role, and shame.

In the present study, scholarship status (none, partial, full) and team role (starter vs. non-starter) were investigated and are also research question six and seven. Although the results pertaining to both were not significant, there is belief that whether you are on scholarship or not or whether you are a team starter or not there may be shame present. Partridge and Elison (2010) explain that shame can be viewed from a state or trait perspective. For example, a proud person can experience shame for a moment, whereas a shame-prone person may experience frequent feelings of shame, respectively. The connection is easily made to sports, shame resulting from devaluation. In other words, lower scholarships or losing a starting position may represent devaluations. This change in status can cause feelings of shame, which could produce maladaptive outcomes or adaptive outcomes (Partridge & Elison, 2010). The role that scholarship and team status has on shame should be considered for future studies. There is a lot in common with devaluation and establishing status on a team and it would be interesting for future research.

CHAPTER 6:

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to determine the role that shame has in the relationship between athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behavior and outcomes associated with shame. Another purpose was to examine the four shame coping scripts (Attack Self, Attack Other, Withdrawal, Avoidance) and which script was most used to cope and which script revealed positive or negative outcomes.

The results confirmed the predictions of coaches using shame as a motivator and the significance an athlete's coping style has on her everyday experiences at practice and competition. More specifically, each shame-coping style predicted athletes' perception of their coaches' behaviors and athletes' maladaptive outcomes (burnout, quitting, violence, ect.) that are a result of those behaviors. Most circumstances in which an athlete will experience shame are individual and unique to the athlete, in turn; the coping process also becomes unique to the individual. Finding a coping mechanism exclusive to an individual who is experiencing an intense emotion, like shame, and being aware of how each individual reacts can be extremely beneficial in the coaching world. This can also be important in explaining why athletes react differently to pressure or to coaches' behaviors. Coping is critical in competitive sports. An athlete who has good coping skills can deal with strong, counterproductive emotions and still perform at a high level (Lazarus, 2000).

Yelsma et al. (2002) found Attack Self and Withdrawal to be the CoSS subscales with the strongest correlations (negative) with self-esteem. Naturally, athletes who perceived their coaches as more negative were most likely to gravitate towards Attack-

Self, Withdrawal, and Attack-Other, three of the four shame-coping styles illustrated by Nathanson (1992). Those athletes who perceived their coaches as negative also leaned towards more maladaptive outcomes (Elison& Schultz, 2013). They chose options such as wanting to quit, lashing out against their teammates, dreading practice, or not trying as hard. Women tend to internalize emotions, which most likely gives reason as to why in this present study they tended to use Attack Self and Withdrawal scripts, which share and internalization factor, when with coping with shame.

It is important for coaches to instill proper ways of coping within athletes. Though coping is individual and unique to each athlete, shame and shame coping are important aspects to athletes' everyday experiences, decreasing shame and teaching positive ways to cope with shame may be important ways to increase performance. Decreasing the use of shame as a motivator by coaches, and others in positions of power similar to coaching will most likely produce more motivated athletes, enhanced performances, and lessen anger and violence (Elison & Schultz, 2013). Athletes' preferences in coaches' behaviors are just that, preferences. However, coaches who are more positive produce more success due to the focus on mastery of skills. Positive motivation can create confidence, but on the other side, because of the competitive nature of athletics, shame can be magnified and have great effect on maladaptive outcomes with each athlete.

Future Research.

This study only focused on a small number of women at the Division II level. For future research, a larger scale should be tested. This would magnify the results and give a better understanding of the predictions on a more realistic scale. Also, not only should future research be taken to a larger scale, but should involve the male population as well

taking individual sports into consideration. According to other research males may use a different coping script when it comes to dealing with shame and those that participate in individual sports may have a different mindset then those who play team sports.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

COSS-SPORT-COACH SURVEY

CoSS-Sport-Coach

(Version 1)

Participant #:_____ **Gender:**_____ **Age:**_____ **Date:**_____

Directions: Below is a list of statements describing situations you may experience from time to time. Following each situation are four statements describing possible reactions to the situation. Read each statement carefully and circle the number to the left of the item that indicates the frequency with which you find yourself reacting in that way. Use the scale below. **Please respond to all four items for each situation.**

SCALE

1	2	3	4	5
NEVER	**SELDOM**	**SOMETIMES**	**OFTEN**	**ALMOST ALWAYS**

SCALE

A. In competitive situations, when my coach says my strength or skill can't match my opponent's:

1 2 3 4 5 1. I criticize myself.

1 2 3 4 5 2. I try not to be noticed.

1 2 3 4 5 3. I have bad feelings toward others.

1 2 3 4 5 4. I ignore my mistakes.

B. If my coach tells me that I need to improve a specific sport skill:

1 2 3 4 5 5. I don't worry about it.

1 2 3 4 5 6. I get mad at myself.

1 2 3 4 5 7. I take my frustrations out on other people.

1 2 3 4 5 8. I work on other skills that I am better at.

SCALE

1	2	3	4	5
NEVER	**SELDOM**	**SOMETIMES**	**OFTEN**	**ALMOST ALWAYS**

C. When my coach points out in front of my teammates that I made an embarrassing mistake during competition:

1 2 3 4 5 9. I question my ability.

1 2 3 4 5 10. I don't let my embarrassment show.

1 2 3 4 5 11. I try to keep from being noticed.

1 2 3 4 5 12. I get irritated at whoever caused the mistake.

D. When I think my coach doesn't trust my ability as an athlete:

1 2 3 4 5 13. I avoid discussing it with anyone.

1 2 3 4 5 14. I ask myself why I can't be more confident.

1 2 3 4 5 15. I want to point out my teammates faults.

1 2 3 4 5 16. I don't let my coach know it affects me.

E. When my coach tells me that my competitors physically dominate me in my sport:

1 2 3 4 5 17. I want to get away from everyone.

1 2 3 4 5 18. I take it out on others.

1 2 3 4 5 19. I feel bad about myself.

1 2 3 4 5 20. I act like it is no big deal.

F. When my coach points out my weaknesses:

1 2 3 4 5 21. I feel like being by myself.

1 2 3 4 5 22. I want to point out their faults.

1 2 3 4 5 23. I deny there is any reason for me to feel bad.

1 2 3 4 5 24. I tend to obsess over these weaknesses.

SCALE

1	2	3	4	5
NEVER	**SELDOM**	**SOMETIMES**	**OFTEN**	**ALMOST ALWAYS**

G. When my coach tells me I lost to an opponent I should have beaten:

1 2 3 4 5 25. I withdraw from contact with others.

1 2 3 4 5 26. I get upset with the others around me.

1 2 3 4 5 27. I pretend like it doesn't bother me.

1 2 3 4 5 28. I repeatedly think about what I should've done.

H. When my coach tells me I was outhustled by my competitor:

1 2 3 4 5 29. I get angry at my coach.

1 2 3 4 5 30. I do something to take my mind off it.

1 2 3 4 5 31. I feel disgusted with myself.

1 2 3 4 5 32. I need to be alone.

I. When my coach makes me feel guilty about my performance:

1 2 3 4 5 33. I push the feeling back on those who make me feel this way.

1 2 3 4 5 34. I disown the feeling.

1 2 3 4 5 35. I feel unworthy of being around other people.

1 2 3 4 5 36. I want to be alone.

J. When my coach tells me we lost a competition because of a mistake I made:

1 2 3 4 5 37. I replay the mistake over and over in my head.

1 2 3 4 5 38. I pretend that it doesn't affect me.

1 2 3 4 5 39. I think about all the mistakes that others made.

1 2 3 4 5 40. I shrink away from others.

APPENDIX B

ATHLETE PERCEPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Athlete Perception Questionnaire

Directions: Below is a list of statements pertaining to your perception of your coach and how your coach may make you feel in certain situations. Read each statement carefully and circle your answer to the right that specifies the frequency you perceive your coach makes you feel this way, using the scale below.

N	S	A
NEVER	**SOMETIMES**	**ALWAYS**

a. My coach says things that make me feel inferior to other athletes.

N S A

b. My coach makes me feel like I need to improve.

N S A

c. My coach says things that embarrass me.

N S A

d. I don't feel my coach trusts my abilities.

N S A

e. My coach tells me I'm physically inferior to others in my sport.

N S A

f. My coach tells me things that make me feel like a weak player.

N S A

g. My coach tells me that he/she is disappointed in me.

N S A

h. I feel my coach tells me I'm not trying.

N S A

i. My coach says things that make me feel guilty.

N S A

j. My coach tells me it's my fault I let my team down.

N S A

APPENDIX C

OUTCOME QUESTIONNAIRE

Outcome Questionnaire

Directions: Below is a list of statements of negative or positive outcomes that you may feel because of something your coach said or did. After each question you will circle the number that best correlates to how strongly you disagree or agree with the statement using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

1. I have been inspired to work harder due to my coach.

   1 2 3 4 5

2. I have thought about quitting the team due to my coach.

   1 2 3 4 5

3. I have dreaded going to practice or games due to my coach.

   1 2 3 4 5

4. I have wanted to lash out against my coach or teammates.

   1 2 3 4 5

5. I want to show my coach I am a better athlete.

   1 2 3 4 5

6. My coaches support helps me rise to a challenges.

   1 2 3 4 5

7. I feel pumped up to compete in practice and games due to my coach.

   1 2 3 4 5

8. Due to my coach I have felt my abilities are lacking to those of my opponents and teammates.

   1 2 3 4 5

9. I have thought about transferring schools due to my coach.

   1 2 3 4 5

10. I am the best athlete I can be, due to my coach.

1 2 3 4 5

11. Due to my coach, I give it my all in practice and games.

1 2 3 4 5

12. I have high expectations regarding my performances because of my coach.

1 2 3 4 5

13. In order for my performance to be successful, I have a need be perfect due to my coach.

1 2 3 4 5

14. Training with my coach makes me over analyze my performance.

1 2 3 4 5

15. I spend more time thinking about game strategies, due to my coach.

1 2 3 4 5

16. I have great self-discipline training with my coach.

1 2 3 4 5

17. I learn from my coach that mistakes are a huge part of learning and an opportunity to improve my skills

1 2 3 4 5

18. I have better emotional control, due to my coach.

1 2 3 4 5

19. I am afraid to fail, due to the reaction I receive from my coach.

1 2 3 4 5

20. I do not want to disappoint my coach by making mistakes.

1 2 3 4 5

21. I am afraid to take risks that may benefit the team because of my coaches reaction should I fail.

1 2 3 4 5

22. Every mistake I make I consider a failure because of how my coaches react.

1 2 3 4 5

23. I cannot let go of my mistakes, due to my coaches' reactions and reminders.

1 2 3 4 5

24. If I am not perfect, I have let my coaches and team down.

1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX D

DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE

Scholarship Percentage (circle one) None Partial Full

Position (circle one): Starter Non-Starter