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The relationships between achievement goals, empowering and disempowering climate, and female athletes' self-talk in football.

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Abstract

The present study examined the relationships between athletes' use of self-talk, achievement goals, and motivational climate. Participants consisted of one hundred ninety-one female football players from Greece, aged from 10 to 23 (M=16, SD= 2.12). The athletes completed a short version of the Automatic Self-Talk Questionnaire for Sport (ASTQS) for self-talk, the Empowering and Disempowering Motivational Climate (EDMCQ-C) for motivational climate, and the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) for achievement goals. Two hierarchical regression analyses were conducted in order to examine the degree to which goal orientations (i.e., task and ego orientation) and perceptions of coach-created motivational climate (i.e., perceived empowering and disempowering climate) could predict players' positive and negative self-talk. The findings revealed with regard to positive self-talk that achievement goals explained 5% of the variance. In particular, task orientation emerged as the only significant predictor of players' positive self-talk. The addition of the empowering and disempowering climate at Step 2 increased significantly the total explained variance to 6%. With regard to negative self-talk, the findings revealed that at Step 1 achievement goals explained 4 % of the variance. Ego orientation was the only significant predictor of players' negative self-talk. At Step 2 the total explained variance increased to 11% showing that only disempowering climate significantly and positively predicted players' negative self-talk. The results are discussed in relation to the important role of coaches' behaviour in the formulation of athletes' self-talk.

Keywords: Self-Talk, Goal Orientation, Empowering- Disempowering Climate, Empowering Coaching[TM]

Table of Contents

Introduction

The interest on the examination of self-talk in the sport context has been progressively growing the last two decades (Hardy & Zourbanos, 2016). Almost 96% of adults talk to themselves, engaging in what is called internal dialogue, inner speech, self-statements, inner conversation, sub vocal speech, self- verbalizations, or self-talk (Winsler, 2009; Winsler, Feder, Way, & Manfra,2006).In the mainstream psychology, one of the most influential theoretical approaches of self-talk is considered to be the cognitive-behavioral theory, which identifies, the influence of inner voice or self-instructional or self-talk training for the treatment of mental disorders such as depression(Beck, 1970; Ellis, 1976; Meichenbaum, 1977).Whereas, in the sport literature, self-talk is considered a self-regulatory strategy (strategically use of specific key-words before or during execution), which has been shown to increase performance (e.g., Hatzigeorgiadis, Galanis, Zourbanos, & Theodorakis, 2014).Furthermore, there is also another line of research which examined self-talk as thought content in relation to other behavioural outcomes in sport (e.g., Zourbanos & Hardy, 2006). A meta-analysis (Hatzigeorgiadis, Zourbanos, Galanis, & Theodorakis, 2011) identified an effect size of 0.48 addressing the effectiveness of self-talk for learning and performance enhancement. Although self-talk is closely connected with thoughts, this relationship is yet to be clearly identified (St. Clair Gibson & Foster, 2007). According to Hardy, Oliver, and Tod's (2009) conceptual framework of self-talk, there are several factors that affect the relationship between athletes'self-talk and performance. These factors have four different mechanisms: cognitive, motivational, behavioral, and affective. According to Hardy et al.'s model, oneof the situational antecedents of self-talk is coaching behaviour and one of the personal antecedents is achievement goals. Furthermore, Hardy et al. (2009) proposed that the factors that shape and influence athletes'self-talk are considered of a great importance. Furthermore, Zourbanos, Hatzigeorgiadis, Tsiakaras, and Theodorakis (2010) stressed also

the importance of coaches' behaviour on shaping athletes' self-talknoting that self-talk can be "malleable to information and stimuli received from the social environment". Also, in another study, Zourbanos, Papaioannou, Argyropoulou, and Hatzigeorgiadis (2014) stressed the important role of athletes' achievement goals and self-talk in physical education. It has to be noticed, that there is no study that examines together the relationships between motivational climate, achievement goals, and female athletes' self-talk in sport. More specifically, the present thesis aims to explore the relationships among female athletes' self-talk, achievement goals using the dichotomous model, and coaches' empowering or disempowering climateusing a new framework suggested by Duda (2013).

Literature Review

Definitions and categories of self-talk

In the field of sport psychology, self-talk was defined as what people say to themselves either silently or out loud, inherently or strategically in order to stimulate, direct, re-act and evaluate events and actions (Hatzigeorgiadis, Zourbanos, Latinjak, &Theodorakis, 2014). In one of the first definitions, self-talk has been defined as an "internal dialogue in which the individuals interpret feelings and perceptions, regulate and change evaluations and cognitions and give themselves instructions and reinforcement" (Hackfort & Schwenkmezger, 1993, p. 355). More recently, Hardy and Zourbanos (2016) referred to self-talk as statements, phrases or cue words that are addressed to the self which might be said automatically or very strategically, either out loud or silently, phrased positively or negatively, having an instructional or motivational purpose, an element of interpretation, and incorporating some of the same grammatical features associated with every day speech (p. 450).

Self-talk is, in general, has been identified in two broad categories: as positive and as negative. Weinberg (1988) described positiveself-talk as a cognitive strategy that helps athletes stay focused and notwell on past mistakes or project far in the future. Instead, negativeself-talk is self-demeaning, inappropriate, anxiety producing,and counterproductive. Moreover, Zinsser, Bunker, and Williams(2001) identified that self-talk can be further categorized as instructionaland motivational. This distinction has mainly focused on the comparison of instructional and motivational self-talk with different tasks trying to investigate which self-talk cues should be more appropriate for specific tasks the so called matching hypothesis (Theodorakis, Weinberg, Natsis, Douma, & Kazakas, 2000).Instructional self-talk refers to statements related to attentionalfocus, technical information, and tactical choices, whereas motivationalself-talk refers to statements related to confidence building,effort input, and positive moods. However, it has to be mentionedthat talking negatively tooneself may not always be detrimentalto performance, and in some situations—depending on the natureof the sport and the competitive level of the athlete—it may havemotivating effects and facilitate performance (Zourbanos et al., 2010).

Models of Self-Talk

Models of self-talk in sport have tried to explore the content, the functions and the factors that might influence athletes' self-talk. Hardy (2006) identified that the definitions of self-talk were somehow inaccurate as they included aspects of body language, thoughts, and imagery. He stated that self-talk refers to what a person says to himself/herself either out loud or inside his/her head but he avoided to give a clear definition. He suggested that self-talk is a result of several components including verbalizations and statements to self and interpretive elements explaining these verbalization and elements. Moreover, according to Hardy, self-talk is multidimensional, dynamic and serves the motivational and instructional function.

Hardy, Oliver, and Tod (2009) presented a conceptual model suggesting twobroad dimensions of self-talk antecedents; personal and situational. According to Hardyand colleagues, personal antecedents consists of factors such as individual's cognitiveprocessing preferences, individual's belief in self-talk and individual's personality, anxiety, and achievementgoal orientations. Situational antecedents consists of factors such as task difficulty, match circumstances, coaching behaviour and competitive setting.In concluding their review, Hardy et al. stressed the need for further research on self-talk antecedents.

Latinjak, Zourbanos, Lopez-Ros, and Hatzigeorgiadis (2014) suggested that self-talk can be considered either as goal-directed or undirected. The concept of such distinction derives from the general psychology (Dijksterhuis, 2004; Ickes & Cheng, 2011). To support their model Latinjak et al. conducted two different studies (Latinjak et al, 2014; Latinjak et al 2016) exploring the nature of these two types of self-talk. They found that undirected self-talk was spontaneous and it was used in order to evaluate, describe and explain past outcomes and to predict the future ones. On the other hand, the goal-directed self-talk was used in a more productive way. This means that goal-directed self-talk was used to guide behavior, make positive statements and instruct the athlete. At a recent study of Latinjak, Font-Lladó, Zourbanos and Hatzigeorgiadis (2016), a goal-directed self-talk intervention was designed and applied with an elite orienteering athlete. The participant highlighted the benefits of goal-directed self-talk intervention, especially in a sport that the athlete has plenty of spontaneous and autonomous use of self-talk.

Zourbanos, Hatzigeorgiadis, Chroni, Theodorakis, and Papaioannou (2009) while constructing the Automatic Self-Talk Questionnaire for Sports (ASTQS) explored the different aspects of content of athletes 'automaticself-talk. They categorized self-talk into eight categories: four categories for positive, three categories for negative and one for neutral self-talk. The positive self-talk categories included psych up, confidence, instruction and

anxiety control and the negative self-talk categories were about worry, disengagement and somatic fatigue. The neutral category referred to the irrelevant thoughts of the participants.

Another theoretical framework was the one suggested by Van Raalte, Vincent, and Brewer (2016)based on the previously existing theory and research. They suggested that self-talk should be categorized in two different systems. System 1 refers to what an athlete thinks and says effortlessly and unconsciously while the System 2 is about what an athlete thinks and says in order to guide himself/herself and monitor the self-talk of system 1. Self-talk of System 2 requires effort from the athlete and intends to enhance performance and control the behavior. Both of the Systems have a reciprocal relationship with the behavior of the athlete, with the personal factors and the contextual factors.

Both Hardy et al. (2009) and Van Raalte et al. (2016) highlighted the role of personal and environmental factors that influence athletes' self-talk. These personal and contextual factors are yet to be further examined for the better conceptualization of the antecedent of athletes'self-talk.

Achievement Goals and self-talk

Achievement Goal Theory (AGT; Nicholls, 1989) is the most frequently used framework in the research of achievement motivation in sport psychology. Nicholls' conceptual framework is the demonstration of competence, which leads to someone's behavior and decisions. The AGT, also known as the dichotomous model, has gained growing reputation during the last three decades and many studies have explored its application and expanding into different frameworks (Lochbaum, Kazak Çetinkalp, Graham, Wright, & Zazo, 2016).

What is important in Nicholl's theory is the one's conceptualization about competence. According to AGT, the perception of competence has a reciprocal relationship

with athlete's perceived ability and can be defined either as task oriented or as ego oriented. A task oriented athlete perceives his/her success and failure in terms of personal improvement and mastery while an ego oriented athlete evaluates his effort and ability depending on the comparison of himself/herself with others' ability and results.

Literature suggests that task oriented athletes has high levels of sportsmanship (Dunn & Dunn, 1999; Lee, Whitehead, Ntoumanis, & Hatzigeorgiadis, 2001) and moral functioning (Kavussanu& Ntoumanis, 2003). On the other hand, the results about ego oriented athletes' sportsmanship are contradictory: Lemyre, Roberts, and Ommundsen (2002) found a negative relationship among ego orientation and some dimensions of sportsmanship while other studies (Stephens, 2000; Stephens &Bredemeier, 1996) have not found a relationship between ego orientation and levels of aggression. Supporting Nicholls' (1989) origin assumptions, Sage, Kavussanu, and Duda (2006) found ego orientation as a significant predictor for antisocial behavior.

Goal orientation is an important factor for athletes' self-talk (Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 2002). Hatzigeorgiadis and Biddle (2002) examinedinterfering thoughts (negative self-talk) during sport competition among university volleyball players as a function of dominant goal orientation and outcome.Their findings did not conclude at consistent differences for performance worries between task and ego oriented athletes. In contrast, in all analyses it was found that athletes with high ego and low task orientations reported more thoughts of escape when losing than when winning, and more thoughts of escape than athletes with high task and low ego orientations when winning or losing. These results supported in part the suggestion that an athlete with high ego orientation but without a high task orientation, is vulnerable to motivationally maladaptive cognitions.Similar findings were indicated from the researchers (Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 1999) when examining the effect of goal orientation on cognitive interference at tennis and snooker players. At that study,

Hatzigeorgiadis and Biddle (1999) had found that the relationship between ego orientation and thoughts of escaping was moderated by the participants' perceived competence. Later on, Hatzigeorgiadis and Biddle (2008) conducted two studies examining relationships between pre-competition anxiety, goal-performance discrepancies, and athletes'negative self-talk while performing. At their first study, cognitive anxiety had a stronger relationship with negative self-talk than the somatic anxiety while the athletes who perceived their anxiety symptoms as facilitative tended to use less frequently negative self-talk than those who perceived anxiety symptoms as debilitative.Their second study examined anxiety components and discrepancies between performance-goals and performance as predictors of negative self-talk. The results revealed that cognitive anxiety direction and goal-performance discrepancies were significant predictors of negative thoughts). The results ofthe study indicated that quality of performance in relation to pursued goals is a more potent factor determining negative self-talk athletes experience while performing. It has been found that a task-involving motivational climate as well as coach's support of athletes' autonomy can predict the establishment of athletes' positive self-talk. On the other hand, whereas ego orientation is involved, perceived competence can be a moderator for someone's expression of positive or negative self-talk. In another more recent study, Zourbanos, Papaioannou, Argyropoulou, and Hatzigeorgiadis (2014), examined the combined effects of achievement goals using two theoretical frameworks (dichotomous and the 2x2 achievement goal frameworks), perceived competence, and students'positive and negative self-talk using three studies in physical education settings.In the first study,it was found that task orientation was associated with positive thoughts related to psych up, confidence, instructions and anxiety control and negatively related to negative self-talk indicating that increasing levels of task orientation were associated with lower worry, disengagement, somatic fatigue and irrelevant thoughts.On the other hand, ego orientation was unrelated to negative self-talk dimensions. In the second

study, they re-examined the above relationships by using the 2x2 framework. Their results showed that mastery and performance approach were positively related to students' positive self-talk dimensions and negatively related to negative self-talk. Furthermore, in study 3, performance avoidance goals were positively related to positive self-talk dimensions and were unrelated to negative self-talk and mastery avoidance goals were unrelated to positive and negative self-talk dimensions. Finally, students with low perceived competence had an ego orientation that was positively related to experiencing negative self-talk, whereas in students with high perceived competence no relationship between ego orientations and negative self-talk was shown. The researchers concluded that that the adoption of task and mastery approach goals was linked to the most adaptive patterns for students' positive self-talk. Although the adoption of performance approach goals wasn't maladaptive for students' positive self-talk.

Empowering-Disempowering Coaching and self-talk

The coaches' personal characteristics as well as the relationship that they build with the other members of the sport team are crucial for the sport and social development of their athletes. Leadership style (Riemer, 2007), coaching efficacy (Myers, Vargas-Tonsing, & Feltz, 2005) and coaches' behaviour (Smith & Smoll, 2007) are some of these characteristics. The majority of research including coach-athlete relationship has focused on Achievement Goal Theory (AGT; Nichols, 1989) and Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). In general, AGT focuses on the criteria with which someone judges competence and, on the other hand, SDT focuses on the social and psychological factors that enable or block the fulfillment of the three basic psychological needs (autonomy, competence, relatedness). Moreover, motivational climate (Ames, 1992) refers to athletes' perceptions of situational cues, structures, and expectations that encourage the development of particular

goal orientations by transmitting task- and ego-involving motivational cues. According to AGT, coach influences the athletes' perception about motivational climate by what he/she says and does and how he/she structures the sport environment (Duda, 2001).

It has been found that athletes' achievement goal orientation has been related to his/her type of motivation (Standage & Treasure, 2002). In that study, participants with higher levels of task orientation seemed to have higher levels of intrinsic motivation and identified regulation while those with low levels of task orientation had higher levels of extrinsic motivation. The results of Standage and Treasure (2002) were consistent with those of Ntoumanis and Biddle (1999) who found a moderate strong relationship between task orientation and positive affect in the PE classes. The importance of this relationship is located at the fact that less self-determined types of motivation have been linked with more negative outcomes in sport contexts (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vallerand, 2001).

Integrating the social and environmental factors of these theories, Duda (2013) suggested that the effect of coaches' behaviour should be considered as more multidimensional and as either empowering or disempowering. The term Empowering refers to an environment which is task-involving, autonomy supportive and social supportive. In contrast, Disempowering is considered an environment which is ego-involving and highly controlling. To support her theory, Duda (2013) structured the Empowering Coaching[TM] training programme as a result of the study of sport motivation during the last two decades. This training programme did not give a list of DO's and DON'T's to the coaches but emphasized on the what, why and how around youth sport participation. On what coaches should emphasize, why a child is motivated on sports and how the coach influences children. The main goal of Empowering Coaching[TM] was to help coaches to create a climate that optimizes the what, why and how of young athletes' participation on sports. The implementation of this programme occured within the Promoting Adolescents Physical

Activity (PAPA) project (Duda et al., 2013), especially in youth soccer players, and across five different European countries (Norway, Spain, France, Greece, and United Kingdom). For the validation of this theory, Appleton, Ntoumanis, Quested, Viladrich and Duda (2016) introduced a 34-item scale EDMCQ-C (Empowering and Disempowering Motivational Climate Questionnaire-Coach). One of the first studies examining Duda's (2013) Empowering-Disempowering concept focused on the effect of an empowering or disempowering climate on athletes' health and functioning (Appleton & Duda, 2016). The study underlined the importance of an empowering climate alongside with an empowering coaching but, as noted, in cases of a disempowering climate a coach with empowering strategies, language and behavior can produce a positive outcome for his/her athletes in terms of well-being, enjoyment and commitment with the sport environment.

There is only one study in the literature that has examined Empowering and Disempowering Motivational Climate with male athletes' self-talk. More specifically, Zourbanos et al. (2016) investigated the mediating role of self-talk on the relationship between young athletes' perceptions of coach-created motivational climate using the Empowering and Disempowering Motivational Climate Questionnaire and athletes' self-efficacy beliefsin football. The results revealed that only positive and not negative self-talk mediated the relationship between empowering motivational climate and self-efficacy, whereas no relationship emerged between disempowering climate and self-efficacy, highlighting the role of self-talk explaining this relationship.

Zourbanos and his colleagues (2006, 2007, 2008, 2010, 2011) examined widely the role of significant others on athletes' self-talk, and more specifically on the role of the coaches' behaviour. They depended their studies on the findings of Burnett (1996, 1999) on the field of educational psychology. In a preliminary study, they found that the presence of a supportive coach was the predictor for his/her athletes' useof positive self-talk while a less

supportive or criticizing coach led his/her athletes to use negative self-talk (Zourbanos et al., 2006). Similarly. Zourbanos et al. (2007) found that positive and negative statements by the coach were related to athletes' positive and negative self-talk respectively. The researchers have reasoned their findings at how coaches' behavior influences athletes' self-esteem, beliefs and thoughts. Supporting esteem was positively related to positive self-talk dimensions involving psyching-up and confidence boosting, and negatively to negative self-talk dimensions involving worry and fatigue (Zourbanos et al., 2006). These types of self-talk are the most frequently used by athletes (Zourbanos et al., 2009). Adding more evidence to their findings, Zourbanos and his colleagues (2010) in a multi-method investigation of the coaching behaviour and athletes' self-talk relationship supported through cross-sectional but also experimental evidence (two studies) that the coach may have an impact on athletes' self-talk. In the first study examined the relationships between coaching behaviour and athletes' self-talk using two different samples. The results showed that supportivecoaching behaviour was positively related to positive self-talk (in one sample)and negatively related to negative self-talk (in both samples), whereas negative coachingbehavior was negatively related to positive self-talk (in one sample) and positivelyrelated to negative self-talk (in both samples). In the second study (experimental design), the results showed that variations in coaching behaviour affected participants' self-talk. Overall, the results of the present investigation provided considerable evidence regarding the links between coaching behaviour and athletes' self-talk.

Furthermore, in another study, Zourbanos et al. (2011)showed that perceptions of social support received from the coachwere positively related to athletes' positive self-talk dimensions and negatively to athletes' negative self-talk dimensions. Considering that these are the first studies to explore the role and the impact of the coach on athletes' self-talk, further research is warranted to enhance our understanding. Nevertheless, the thorough

investigations that have been carried out suggest that the coach is an important factor in shaping athletes' self-talk, and encourages the investigation of further social – environmental parameters (Theodorakis et al., 2012).

Based on the inconsistencies in the literature and suggestions about the important role of coaching behaviour on athletes' content of self-talk, the purpose of the thesis was to explore the relationships between achievement goals, positive and negative self-talk, and motivational climate on female football players. To date, the majority of achievement goal theory and self-determination theory informed studies that have investigated the coach-created motivational climate in football and its correlates have involved male players. An exception is research conducted within the recently completed, European Commission funded PAPA (Duda et al., 2013) project (www.projectpapa.org). The PAPA project entailed the recruitment of close to 8000 (including over 1,000 girls) 10-14 year old grassroots footballers from England, Norway, France, Spain but not from Greece. There is a rise of women's football in Europe over the past 15 years. However, evidence suggests that for a significant number of young females, participation in football is far from positive. For some girls, playing football will result in negative experiences and poor self-perceptions, undesirable health-related outcomes, and eventual drop-out(Duda et al., 2014). The sample was recruited from the larger UEFA project with the aim to purposefully select female football players. The UEFA project will build upon the impressive data set generated, as well as the methodology (i.e., array of validated questionnaires) developed with PAPA.Moreover, according to the PAPA questionnaire data collection protocol, all measures used in the main trial of the project underwent rigorous pilot testing to examine the psychometric properties of the scales used and the appropriateness of the scales for use with the targeted population. We expected, that goal orientations (i.e., task and ego orientation) and perceptions of coach-created motivational climate (i.e., perceived empowering and disempowering climates) could predict

players' positive and negative self-talk.More specifically, it was hypothesized hypothesized that task goal and empowering motivational climatewould positively predict positive self-talk and negatively negative selft-talk. Finally, ego goals and disempowering motivational climate would positively predict negative self-talk and negatively positive self-talk.

Method

Participants and Procedure

One hundred ninety-onefemale football players were recruited from 16 youth football clubs in Greece as part of the UEFA project. Their ages ranged from 10 to 23 years ($M = 16$ years, $SD = 2.12$). During the season participants had been practicing with their coach for a mean of 7.31 ($SD = 3.09$) hours per week.

An information sheet explaining the purposes of the project was given to parents, coaches, and to the players. Players were also informed that participation was voluntary and that the questionnaires were anonymous and they were assured that confidentiality would be maintained; informed consent was provided by their parents and coaches; players were also provided with a clear choice of not participating despite consent being afforded from their parents. The questionnaires were completed before the warm-up period in a practice session under the supervision of one of the authors at the facilities of the football clubs. Permission to conduct the study was obtained by the institution's research ethics committee.

Measures

Self-Talk in sport. A short version of the Automatic Self-Talk Questionnaire for Sports (ASTQS; Zourbanos et al., 2009) was administered to assess athletes' self-talk. The original instrument consisted of 40 items assessing four positive self-talk dimensions (psych up, anxiety control, confidence, instruction) using 19 items (e.g., "I believe in myself") and four negative self-talk dimensions (worry, disengagement, somatic fatigue, irrelevant thoughts) using 21 items (e.g., "I will lose"). However, for the purposes of the present study,

we constructed a short version of ASTQS using four positive and four negative items representing two broad positive and negative self-talk dimensions. Participants were asked to indicate how frequently they experienced the thoughts that were listed during the last 3-4 weeks in training and competitions on a five point scale (1 = never, 5 = *very often)*. In a series of studies, Zourbanos et al. (2009; 2010; 2011) have supported the psychometric integrity of the ASTQS. The alpha coefficients for both positive and negative self-talk in the present study arereported in Table 1.

Empowering and Disempowering Motivational Climate Questionnaire-Coach (EDMCQ-C). The EDMCQ-C (Appleton et al., 2016) was administered to assess athletes' perceptions of coaches' motivational climate. The original instrument consisted of 34 items capturing perceived task-involving motivational climate (e.g., My coach encouraged players to try new skills), autonomy supportive (e.g., My coach gave players choices and options), and socially supportive coaching (e.g., My coach could really be counted on to care, no matter what happened) representing a broader 'empowering climate' structure, whereas ego-involving motivational climate (e.g., My coach gave most attention to the best players) and controlling coaching (e.g., My coach was less friendly with players if they didn't make the effort to see things their way) producing a broader 'disempowering climate' structure. Players were asked to reflect on what it has generally been like on this team during the last 3-4 weeks when responding to the items. The sub-scales were measured on a five-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree)*. Through a series of studies Appleton et al. (2016) supported the validity and reliability of athletes' score on the higher-order dimensions of the EDMCQ-C. The alpha coefficients for the higher-order dimensions of 'empowering' and 'disempowering' climates in the present study arereported in Table 1.

Goal orientations. The Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ; Duda and Nicholls, 1992), was used to assess goal orientations. The instrument was adapted

in Greek physical education by Papaioannou and MacDonald (1993). This instrument has been used extensively in Greece indicating that it is both reliable and valid (e.g., Marsh, Papaioannou, Martin, &Theodorakis, 2006; Papaioannou, 1997; Papaioannou &Theodorakis, 1996). Following the stem ''I feel most successful in my sport when….'' athletes responded on the 13 items of this instrument on a scale rating from 5 (Strongly Agree) to 1 (Strongly Disagree). The task scale consists of seven items (e.g., ''I learn a new skill and it makes me want to practice more'') and the ego scale comprises six items (e.g., ''Others mess up I don't'').The alpha coefficients for task and ego goals in the present study arereported in Table 1.

Data Analysis

The data were screened, and descriptive statistics, internal reliability scores, and Pearson's correlations were calculated for all study variables. Moreover, two hierarchical regression analyses were performed to examine the degree to which goal orientations (i.e., task and ego orientation) and perceptions of coach-created motivational climate (i.e., perceived empowering and disempowering climates) could predict players' positive and negative self-talk.

Results

Preliminary Results

Descriptive statistics, internal reliability scores, and correlations for all variables are presented in Table 1. All the scales showed satisfactory internal consistencies with Cronbach's alpha coefficients exceeded the .60 criterion.

In line with our hypotheses correlation analyses revealed that task orientation and empowering coaching dimensions were significantly and positively related to players' positive self-talk ($r = .20$, $p = \leq .01$to $r = .15$, $p < .05$) and significantly and negatively related to players' negative self-talk ($r = -.14$, $p < .05$ to $r = -. 11$, $p = .14$). In contrast, ego orientation

and dimensions of disempowering coaching were not significantly related to players' positive self-talk ($r = -.08$ to $r = -.06$, $p > .05$), but were significantly and positively related to players' negative self-talk ($r = .16,$, $p < .05$ to $r = .30$, to $p < .01$).

Main Analysis

Two hierarchical regression analyses were conducted in order to examine the degree to which goal orientations (i.e., task and ego orientation) and perceptions of coach-created motivational climate (i.e., perceived empowering and disempowering climates) could predict players' positive and negative self-talk. For both analyses conducted, the dispositional goals orientation (i.e., task and ego) were entered in Step 1 of the regression equation. To analyze the increment of variance explained by contextual variables on players' positive and negative self-talk, the two higher-order dimensions of coach-created motivational climate (empowering and disempowering climate) were entered at step 2. The results of these two hierarchical regression analyses are summarized in Table 2.

With regard to positive self-talk, the findings revealed that at Step 1 dispositional goals orientation explained 5% of the variance $F (2, 184) = 4.41$, $p < .05$. In particular, task orientation emerged as the only significant predictor (beta = .20, $t = 2.68$, $p < .01$) of players' positive self-talk. The addition of the two higher-order dimensions of the coach motivational climate (i.e., empowering and disempowering climate) at Step 2 increased significantly the total explained variance to 6%, $F (4, 182) = 2.83$, $p < .05$. At this step the contribution of task orientation was lower than in Step 1, but still significant (beta = .17, $t = 2.24$, $p < .05$). The coach created empowering and disempowering climate didn't significantly predict athletes' positive self-talk.

With regard to negative self-talk, the findings revealed that at Step 1 dispositional goals orientation explained 4 % of the variance $F (2, 184) = 3.93$, $p < .05$. Task orientation

(beta = -.13, *t* = - 1.81,*p* = .07) and ego orientation (beta = .17, *t* = 2.33,*p* < .05) was the onlysignificant predictor of players' negative self-talk. The addition of the two dimensions of the motivational climate at Step 2 increased significantly the total explained variance to 11%, *F* (4, 182) = 5.51, *p*< .001. Examination of beta coefficients from the entire model showed that only disempowering coaching (beta = .26, *t* = 2.81,*p* = .01) significantly and positively predicted players' negative self-talk showing the increment of the variance created by the contextual variable of disempowering climate.

Table 1

Pearson's correlations, Descriptive statistics, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients for All Subscales

Subscales	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Task Orientation	-					
2. Ego Orientation	.11	-				
3. Empowering Climate	.24**	-.03	-			
4. Disempowering Climate	-.16**	.20**	-.64**	-		
5. Positive Self-talk	.20**	.08	.14*	-.06	-	
6. Negative Self-talk	-.11	.16*	-.20**	.30**	.12	-
Mean	4.15	4.67	4.08	2.39	3.77	2.17
SD	.53	.84	.55	.59	.73	.73
a	.80	.84	.86	.83	.74	.62

Notes. $* p < .05.$ $**p < .01$

Discussion

The results of the present study is adding more evidence in the literature examining the effect of athletes' goal orientation and coach-created motivational climate on the prediction of athletes' positive and negative self-talk. Our main hypotheses were confirmed. More specifically, task orientation and empowering climate were positively correlated with positive self-talk and negatively correlated with negative self-talk. On the other hand, whereas ego orientation and disempowering climate were involved, there was a negative correlation with positive self-talk and a positive correlation with negative self-talk. This means that an athlete whose focus is on winning the others, instead of becoming better for himself/herself, tends to use more frequently negative forms of self-talk than an athlete who pays attention on mastering a skill and demonstrating improvement for himself/herself. Moreover, athletes who perceive coaches' climate as empowering tend to use positive self-talk while athletes who perceive coaches' climate as disempowering tend to use more frequently negative self-talk.

As already noted, one of the first definitions describes self-talk as an "internal dialogue in which the individuals interpret feelings and perceptions, regulate and change evaluations and cognitions and give themselves instructions and reinforcement" (Hackfort & Schwenkmezger, 1993). Given that a person's feelings, perceptions and cognitions are not irrelevant to the environment that he/she interacts, the effect of goal orientation and motivational climate can be explained. Literature suggests that a task oriented athlete perceives success and failure in terms of self-improvement and mastery (Nicholls, 1989) which allows him to focus on his/her effort. An athlete who remain focused on what he/she tries to achieve will not be distracted when making a mistake or when opponent is winning.

An ego-oriented athlete, whose effort and ability are evaluated depending on others' results (Nicholls, 1989), will be more easily distracted by his/her own mistakes or opponents' effort. This athlete will be exposed to the risk of using negative self-talk as a result of his/her low levels of competence. Previous research (Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 2002) shows that athletes with high ego orientation are more vulnerable to have interfering thoughts, a form of negative self-talk, especially when the result was not the desirable one. Their findings were not applicable to the athletes with low ego and high task orientation as these athletes were able to focus solely on their effort without having thoughts of escaping or giving up their effort. Similar findings were met to the results of the present study. Task oriented athletes tend to present more positive feelings and emotions when competing, which can lead to the use of positive self-talk (Zourbanos et al., 2014). Opposite to that, ego oriented athletes tend to experience negative feelings such as worry, anxiety and irrelevant thoughts, especially when they demonstrate low competence, which leads to negative forms of self-talk (Zourbanos et al., 2014).

The effect of coach's behavior and motivation climate is considered of great importance in the literature. The results of the present study seem to agree to the findings of previous studies examining the role of coaches on athletes' self-talk. Positive self-talk is related to empowering coaching and task orientation while negative self-talk is related to disempowering coaching and ego orientation. This notion derives from Achievement Goal Theory (AGT; Nicholls, 1989) and Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000) and a plethora of studies may confirm it. An athlete, who perceives his/her coach as more democratic and himself/herself as able to make his own choices while focusing on his/her effort, will experience mostly positive emotions while practicing. Coaches' behavior can influence athletes' beliefs and self-esteem while positive and negative statements by coaches are related to athletes' positive and negative self-talk respectively (Zourbanos et al.,

2007). SDT suggests that each athlete should fulfill at least one of the three basic psychological needs, the need of autonomy, relatedness and competence on his/her sport life. The project of Empowering Coaching (Duda, 2013) aims to create an environment which is task-involving, autonomy supportive and social supportive, thus every athlete will be able to satisfy the basic psychological needs suggested by SDT. Perceiving coach as supportive is related to athletes' positive self-talk dimensions and negatively to athletes' negative self-talk dimensions (Zourbanos et al., 2011). One of the primary studies examining the Empowering-Disempowering concept (Appleton & Duda, 2016) have found that an empowering climate together with an empowering coaching enhance well-being, enjoyment and sport commitment. Athletes who enjoy their sport participation and experience positive emotions during practicing tend to use more positive self-talk than those with negative emotions such worry or stress (Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 2008).

Taking into consideration that our participants were female football players, the findings of the present study become more important. Previous research on such population have linked females' football participation with negative emotions and unhealthy habits (Duda et al., 2014). Their study had demonstrated that female footballers are at risk of experiencing poor self-perceptions and undesirable health-related outcomes. As a result, female footballers tended to drop out from football in higher rate than male footballers. The present study, however, demonstrates controversial results and shows that the gender criterion might not be a crucial factor for an athlete's positive emotions and self-talk, as far as some other parameters are satisfied. Coaching female adolescent footballers, given that the mean age of our sample was 16 years, might differentiate totally from coaching male footballers. We could assume that adolescent female football players might have the need of an even more supportive coaching climate than male football players, in order to use positive self-talk and experience positive emotions. This could be explained by looking at the construction of the

society and the role model for each gender (e.g. Bandura, 1977). Male footballers might be expected by social norms to demonstrate skills, a dimension of ego orientation, or accept a non-supportive coach, a dimension of disempowering coaching. At the same time, female football players might evaluate their sport participation in different social norms than males where satisfying the need of support and relatedness is more important than demonstrating superiority and winning at any cost.

Therefore, the findings of the present study underline the considerable role of empowering coaching in female football players. Promoting a supportive environment, where the athlete will feel autonomous to make her own choices and the coach will allow her to focus on the effort rather than the result, might be the key factor for females' participation in football. Our study shows that positive self-talk do occur on female football participation but, like in general population, positive self-talk does not come automatically but it comes as a result of the satisfaction of a number of situational factors.

Given that female football is becoming more and more popular during the last two decades, further exploration of the characteristics of female footballers is needed. Exploring their perceptions, emotions and use of psychological techniques could attribute to the higher growth of the popularity of the sport as well as to the psychological well-being of the participants. Moreover, going a step further, the practitioners working on the sport contexts with such a population (coaches, sport psychologists etc.) need to apply the valuable scientific findings into their work.

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Appendices

Demographic Questionnaire

1. Ημερομηνία γέννησης: _____/_____/_____
Για παράδειγμα, αν γεννήθηκες στις 17 Αυγούστου 1998, παρακαλώ γράψε*: 17 /Αυγούστου/1998*

2. Πόσο χρονών είσαι; (Παρακαλώ γράψε την ηλικία σου σε έτη και μήνες) _____ ετών & _____ μηνών.

3. Είσαι αγόρι ή κορίτσι? Κύκλωσε το σωστό: Αγόρι ☐   Κορίτσι ☐

4. Πόσα αδέλφια (αγόρια, κορίτσια) έχεις συνολικά, χωρίς εσένα? (συμπεριλαμβάνονται ετεροθαλή αδέλφια ή αδελφές)

5. Ποιο είναι το όνομα της διεύθυνσης κατοικίας σου και της πόλης σου;
_____

6. Ποιο από τα παρακάτω θα περιέγραφε καλύτερα την εθνικότητά σου; **Υπογράμμισε το σωστό**.

Έλληνας ☐	Ρομά ☐	Κινέζος ☐	Άλλης Ανατολικής Ευρώπης ☐
Αλβανός ☐	Ρώσος ☐	Λευκός και Ασιάτης ☐	Άλλης λευκής φυλής ☐
Σέρβος ☐	Βρετανός ☐	Μαύρος Αφρικής ☐	Άλλης Ασιατικής φυλής ☐
Βούλγαρος ☐	Πακιστανός ☐	Μαύρος Καραϊβικής ☐	Άλλης μαύρης φυλής
Ρουμάνος ☐	Μπαγκλαντές ☐	Λευκός και Μαύρος Αφρικανός ☐	Άλλης μεικτής φυλής ☐
Άλλης Βαλκανικής ☐	Ινδός ☐	Λευκός και Μαύρος Καραϊβικής ☐	Άλλης φυλής

8. Ποιό είναι το όνομα της ομάδας που παίζεις/προπονείσαι σήμερα;_____

7. Ποια πιστεύεις ότι είναι η οικονομική κατάσταση της οικογένειά σου;

8. Ποιό είναι το όνομα της ομάδας σου που παίζεις/προπονείσαι σήμερα; _____

9. Πόσες αγωνιστικές περιόδους (σεζόν) έχεις παίξει για αυτή την ομάδα; _____

10. Κατά μέσο όρο, πόσες ώρες την εβδομάδα προπονείσαι και παίζεις για την ομάδα σου σε μια αγωνιστική περίοδο; _____ώρες

11. Ποιο είναι το όνομα του κύριου προπονητή σου στην ομάδα που αγωνίζεσαι/ προπονείσαι σήμερα;
Το όνομα του κύριου προπονητή της ομάδας μου είναι _____

12. Κατά μέσο όρο, πόσες ώρες την εβδομάδα περνάς με τον προπονητή σου; _____ώρες

13. Ο προπονητής της ομάδας σου είναι άντρας ή γυναίκα;   'Άντρας ☐ Γυναίκα ☐

14. Αν είχες την επιλογή, θα προτιμούσες να έχεις (επέλεξε μόνο ένα κουτί) :
Άντρα προπονητή☐   Γυναίκα προπονητή☐ Δεν με ενδιαφέρει το φύλο του προπονητή☐

15. Αν εξαιρέσουμε τους καθηγητές Φ.Α., είχατε ποτέ γυναίκα προπονήτρια ποδόσφαιρου;   Ναι☐   Όχι ☐

16. Γιατί ξεκινήσατε να παίζετε ποδόσφαιρο;

_____

_____

17. Όσο αφορά εσάς πως θα κρίνατε τις συνθήκες - κατάσταση των παρακάτω (1 = πολύ κακή, 5 = εξαιρετική) (επέλεξε μόνο ένα κουτί ανά γραμμή)

α) Γήπεδα προπονήσεων   1 ☐   2 ☐   3 ☐   4 ☐   5☐
β) Ωρες προπόνησης   1 ☐   2 ☐   3 ☐   4 ☐   5☐
γ) Γήπεδα αγώνων   1 ☐   2 ☐   3 ☐   4 ☐   5☐
δ) Αποδυτήρια   1 ☐   2 ☐   3 ☐   4 ☐   5☐
ε) Ποιότητα προπόνησης   1 ☐   2 ☐   3 ☐   4 ☐   5☐

18.Αν αγωνίζεσαι σε ένα σύλλογο όπου η δεσπόζουσα (πιο αναγνωρίσιμη ομάδα) είναι η αντρική ομάδα:

α) Προσφέρει ο σύλλογος υποτροφίες/ακαδημαϊκές συμφωνίες η κάποιο άλλο σχέδιο-πλάνο στις αθλήτριες (π.χ., με ένα εκπαιδευτικό ινστιτούτο ώστε να σου επιτρέπει να προπονηθείς σε ένα υψηλότερο επίπεδο ενώ παράλληλα σπουδάζεις);
                    Ναι☐   Όχι ☐

β)Νιώθεις μέρος της ποδοσφαιρικής ''οικογένειας'' του συλλόγου ή περισσότερο ως ένα ''παράρτημα'' της αντρικής ομάδας;
Ναι☐   Όχι ☐

γ) Νιώθεις πως ο γενικός διευθυντής του συλλόγου δίνει επαρκή προσοχή στη γυναικεία ομάδα;
.   Ναι☐   Όχι ☐

Empowering and Disempowering Motivational Climate Questionnaire-Coach (EDMCQ-C)

Όταν συμπληρώνεις αυτές τις ερωτήσεις, σκέψου σχετικά με το πώς συμπεριφερόταν στην ομάδα σου κατά τη διάρκεια των τελευταίων 3-4 εβδομάδων.	Διαφωνώ Απόλυτα	Διαφωνώ	Ούτε Συμφωνώ Ούτε Διαφωνώ	Συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ Απόλυτα
1. Ο προπονητής μου ενθάρρυνε τους παίκτες να δοκιμάσουν νέες ασκήσεις.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Ο προπονητής μου ήταν λιγότερο φιλικός με τους παίκτες όταν δεν προσπαθούσαν να δουν τα πράγματα με τον τρόπο του.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Ο προπονητής μου έδινε στους παίκτες επιλογές και εναλλακτικές.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Ο προπονητής μου προσπαθούσε να βεβαιώνεται πως οι παίκτες ένιωθαν καλά όταν προσπαθούσαν το καλύτερό τους.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Ο προπονητής αντικαθιστούσε τους παίκτες όταν έκαναν λάθη.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Ο προπονητής μου πίστευε πως είναι σημαντικό οι παίκτες να συμμετέχουν στο ποδόσφαιρο επειδή οι παίκτες το ήθελαν πραγματικά.	1	2	3	4	5

7. Ο προπονητής μου ήταν λιγότερο υποστηρικτικός προς τους παίκτες όταν δεν προπονούνταν ή/και δεν έπαιζαν καλά.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Μπορούσα να υπολογίζω στον προπονητή μου πως θα με νοιαζόταν, ότι κι αν συνέβαινε.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Ο προπονητής μου πρόσεχε περισσότερο τους καλύτερους παίκτες.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Ο προπονητής μου φώναζε στους παίκτες όταν τα θαλάσσωναν.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Ο προπονητής μου βεβαιωνόταν πως οι παίκτες ένιωθαν επιτυχημένοι όταν βελτιώνονταν.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Ο προπονητής μου έδινε λιγότερη προσοχή στους παίκτες αν τον είχαν δυσαρεστήσει.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Ο προπονητής μου αναγνώριζε τους παίκτες που προσπαθούσαν σκληρά.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Ο προπονητής μου εκτιμούσε πραγματικά τους παίκτες σαν ανθρώπους, όχι απλώς σαν ποδοσφαιριστές.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Ο προπονητής μου μας επέτρεπε να κάνουμε κάτι που μας άρεσε στο τέλος της προπόνησης μόνο αν οι παίκτες τα είχαν πάει καλά κατά την διάρκεια της αγωνιστικής περιόδου.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Ο προπονητής μου απαντούσε τις ερωτήσεις των παικτών πλήρως και προσεκτικά.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Ο προπονητής μου αποδεχόταν λιγότερο τους παίκτες αν τον/την είχαν απογοητεύσει.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Ο προπονητής μου βεβαιωνόταν πως κάθε παίκτης συνεισέφερε με ένα σημαντικό τρόπο.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Ο προπονητής μου είχε τους αγαπημένους του/της παίκτες.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Ο προπονητής μου αντάμειβε τους παίκτες με βραβεία ή κεράσματα μόνο αν είχαν παίξει καλά.	1	2	3	4	5

The Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ)

Αισθάνομαι απόλυτα επιτυχημένος ή επιτυχημένη στο ποδόσφαιρο όταν ...	Διαφωνώ Απόλυτα	Διαφωνώ	Ούτε Συμφωνώ Ούτε Διαφωνώ	Συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ Απόλυτα
1. Είμαι ο μόνος/η που μπορεί να κάνει μία άσκηση.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Μαθαίνω μία νέα άσκηση κι αυτό με κάνει να θέλω να προπονηθώ περισσότερο.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Μπορώ να τα πάω καλύτερα από τους συμπαίκτες μου.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Οι άλλοι δε μπορούν να τα κάνουν τόσο καλά όσο εγώ.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Μαθαίνω κάτι που είναι διασκεδαστικό να το κάνω.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Οι άλλοι τα κάνουν θάλασσα (δεν τα πάνε καλά) ενώ εγώ όχι.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Μαθαίνω μία νέα άσκηση προσπαθώντας σκληρά.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Εργάζομαι/ προπονούμαι πραγματικά σκληρά.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Είμαι ο καλύτερος παίκτης στη θέση που παίζω (π.χ., σκοράρω τα περισσότερα γκολ, ή σώζω τις περισσότερες φάσεις, ή κάνω τις καλύτερες πάσες, ή κάνω τα καλύτερα τάκλιν).	1	2	3	4	5
10. Κάτι που μαθαίνω με κάνει να θέλω να προπονηθώ περισσότερο.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Είμαι ο καλύτερος/η.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Μία άσκηση που μαθαίνω νιώθω ότι την κάνω πραγματικά σωστά.	1	2	3	4	5

13. Κάνω ότι καλύτερο μπορώ.	1	2	3	4	5

Automatic Self-Talk Questionnaire for Sports (ASTQS)

	Πριν ή κατά τη διάρκεια που έπαιζα αγώνες για την ομάδα μου <u>τις προηγούμενες 3-4 εβδομάδες…</u>	Ποτέ	Σπάνια	Μερικές φορές	Συχνά	Πολύ συχνά
1.	Κάνατε σκέψεις για να εμψυχώσετε τον εαυτό σας: π.χ., Βάλε τα δυνατά σου	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Κάνατε σκέψεις για να για να ελέγξετε τα συναισθήματά σας: π.χ., Ηρέμησε	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Κάνατε σκέψεις για να αποκτήσετε περισσότερη αυτοπεποίθηση: π.χ., Θα τα καταφέρω	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Κάνατε σκέψεις για να συγκεντρωθείτε: π.χ., Συγκεντρώσου στο παιχνίδι σου	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Κάνατε σκέψεις ανησυχίας: π.χ., Δε θα τα καταφέρω	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Κάνατε σκέψεις για να τα παρατήσετε: π.χ., Θέλω να σταματήσω	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Κάνατε σκέψεις κούρασης: π.χ., Είμαι κουρασμένος/ η	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Κάνατε σκέψεις άσχετες με το ποδόσφαιρο: π.χ., Σκέφτομαι τι θα κάνω αργότερα	1	2	3	4	5