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GRADUATE COLLEGE

FORGIVENESS OF OTHERS AND ATHLETIC PERFORMANCE IN COLLEGE BASEBALL PLAYERS

A Dissertation

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

By

Greg Thomas
Norman, Oklahoma
2000

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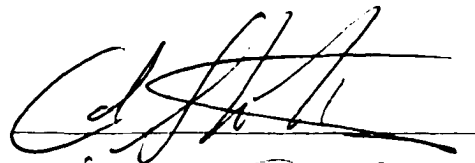
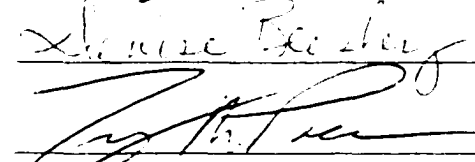
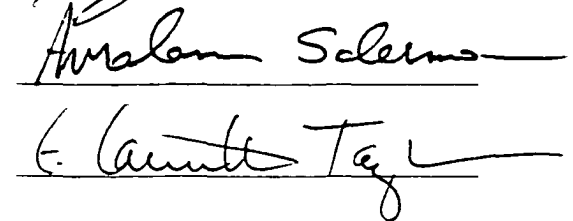
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FORGIVENESS OF OTHERS AND ATHLETIC PERFORMANCE
IN COLLEGE BASEBALL PLAYERS

A Dissertation APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

BY


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ABSTRACT

This study explored the relationship of forgiving with athletic performance and mood state. Players and head coaches from two Virginia college baseball teams participated in the study: 30 players from an academically acclaimed Division I school and 21 players from a Division III technical college. Almost all of the players self-identified their race as white. Players completed a personality instrument, a forgiveness inventory, and rated their athletic performance in comparison to others on their team and to their own expectations at preseason and midseason. The two head coaches also rated each player's performance at both of these times.

It was hypothesized that athletes high in forgiveness of others would perform better at baseball, show less performance deficits between preseason and midseason, score lower in total mood disturbance, and show a greater similarity of their self-performance ratings to the performance ratings ascribed to them by their head coaches than would players low in forgiveness of others.

In general, the hypotheses were not supported by the data. In addition, the data did not indicate that a player's forgiveness of others was associated with the player perceiving the head coach as treating him fairly. Forgiveness of others was neither associated with the level of hurt nor the amount of time since the hurtful incident.

The data for Division I and Division III athletes differed greatly. Without exception, including all preseason and midseason performance variables, there was a greater negative association between forgiveness of others and athletic performance variables for Division III players than for Division I players. It is suggested that the Division I and Division III players who participated in this study may have had different developmental experiences relating to their perceptions of the benefits of forgiveness.

FORGIVENESS OF OTHERS AND ATHLETIC PERFORMANCE IN COLLEGE BASEBALL PLAYERS

Despite its longstanding relationship with major world religions such as Judaism, Christianity, Islam, Buddhism, and Hinduism (Rye, Pargament, Ali, Beck, Dorff, Hallisey, Narayanan, & Williams, 2000), the concept of forgiveness is relatively new in psychology. It began as more of a theoretical orientation than as an empirically studied concept. Shontz and Rosenak (1988) see forgiveness as an important bridge between psychology and theology. Hershey (1984) pointed out that unless we forgive, we continue to be controlled by the individual with whom we are angry.

North's Concept of Forgiveness

According to North's (1987) theory, forgiveness is not equated with blindness to a wrong. Instead, "our resentment is to be overcome not by denying ourselves the right to resentment but by endeavoring to view the wrongdoer with compassion, benevolence and love while recognizing that he has willfully abandoned the right to them" (p. 502). "What is annulled in the act of forgiveness is not the crime itself but the distorting effect that this wrong has upon the wrongdoer and perhaps with others" (p. 500). North posits that in forgiveness that there is an internal "change of heart" within the victim. Thus it appears that cognitive restructuring has occurred.

This change of heart leads the victim to make certain gestures toward the wrongdoer allowing their relationship to heal. North also states that forgiveness may begin with such gestures and that these gestures can, in turn, bring about a later emotional change. She postulates that although retribution and repentance by the offending party often make forgiveness easier to achieve, neither is necessary for forgiveness to occur.

Enright's Process Model of Forgiveness

In developing their 20-step process model of forgiveness, Enright, Gassin and

Wu (1992) drew heavily upon North's ideas. As with North, forgiveness is defined as a voluntary foreswearing of negative affect and judgment by an injured party who has suffered a significant, deep, and unjust hurt. This process also involves viewing the wrongdoer with love and compassion (Enright and the Human Development Group, 1991; North, 1987). In general, this is a process of struggling with and ultimately abandoning negative thoughts, feelings and behaviors directed at the injurer, while gradually and actively incorporating positive thoughts, feelings and behaviors toward that person (Gassin & Enright, 1995).

This general process may involve some or all of at least 20 sub-processes or units (Enright, Freedman, & Rique, 1998). This model is not a rigid, steplike sequence but instead a flexible set of processes with feedback and feed-forward loops. Some may skip entire units in their process of forgiving. The 20 units are listed below as well as their corresponding phases:

Uncovering Phase

1. Examination of psychological defenses
2. Confrontation of anger; the point is to release not harbor the anger
3. Admittance of shame, when it is appropriate
4. Awareness of cathexis
5. Awareness of cognitive rehearsal
6. Insight that the injured party may be comparing self with the injurer
7. Realization that oneself may be permanently and adversely changed by the injury
8. Insight into a possibly altered "just world" view

Decision Phase

9. A change of heart, conversion, new insights that old resolution strategies are not working

- 10. Willingness to consider forgiveness as an option
- 11. Commitment to forgive the offender

Work Phase

- 12. Reframing, through role taking, who the wrongdoer is by viewing him or her in context
- 13. Empathy toward the offender
- 14. Awareness of compassion, as it emerges toward the offender
- 15. Acceptance and absorption of the pain

Deepening Phase

- 16. Finding meaning for self and others in the suffering and in the forgiveness process
- 17. Realization that self has needed others' forgiveness in the past
- 18. Insight that one is not alone (universality, support)
- 19. Realization that self may have a new purpose in life because of the injury
- 20. Awareness of decreased negative affect and perhaps, increased positive affect, if this begins to emerge, toward the injurer; awareness of internal, emotional release

I will now discuss some of the units that appear especially relevant. The confrontation of anger (unit 2) is an important sub-process. Anger is confronted to the point of release, but not harbored. Units 9-11 mark the person's awareness that a new solution to the problem may be required. Reframing (unit 12) is the process of viewing the offending person in context, examining his or her developmental history and the pressures he or she was under at the time of the injury. This is not done to condone, but to understand. By unit 14, compassion may develop, making the acceptance of the pain and the gift-giving more possible. In unit 15, one realizes that one has also needed others' forgiveness in the past. Finally, by the final unit, unit 20, the injured party experiences a release of most, if not all, negative emotion directed at the offender

(Gassin & Enright, 1995).

Congruence with Cognitive-Behavioral Theory

It is easy to be struck by the similarities of Enright's process model of forgiveness and cognitive-behavioral theory. Beck (1987) has pointed out that with increased intimacy comes the tendency to engage in a cognitive distortion he refers to as "all or nothing thinking." He further emphasizes the need to be resilient, accepting and forgiving in intimate relationships. He writes of the need of depressed clients to search for alternative solutions to their problems, calling it the cornerstone of effective-problem solving (Beck et al., 1979). Such a viewpoint is congruent with unit 9 (insight that old resolution strategies are not working) and unit 10 (a willingness to explore forgiveness as an option) of the process model of forgiveness (Enright, Freedman, & Rique, 1998).

The goal of cognitive therapy is to relieve emotional distress and the other symptoms of depression. The means of doing so is by focusing on the patient's misinterpretations, self-defeating behavior, and dysfunctional attitudes (Beck, Rush, Shaw, & Emery, 1979). Overgeneralization is at the heart of depressive cognitions according to Beck (1963). Beck also speaks of the systematic bias against themselves common to depressives. Often they see their failures as catastrophes and engage in thinking patterns that cause them to inaccurately appraise reality.

Some of the strongest indirect support for the idea of forgiveness comes from the theory of Ellis (1962, 1970). Ellis saw blame-proneness as a key irrational belief associated with emotional distress. One who exhibits blame proneness subscribes to the belief there are certain people in the world who are bad and wicked and that these people must be punished (Ellis, 1970). Forgiveness is an antidote for blame proneness. Ellis also saw anger as a result of irrational beliefs. He said that "all anger, even one percent

anger, has a should, ought, or must in it" (Ellis, 1977, p. 163). Through forgiveness, we can eliminate the should, ought, or musts in the behavior of others that we previously held as conditions for us to accept them.

Gordon, Baucom, & Snyder (2000) claim that forgiveness helps an injured marital partner by developing a realistic and balanced view of the relationship and the event. Consistent with their claims and the importance of acceptance in the healing process, studies indicate that forgiveness-based interventions aimed at helping the individual cognitively reframe the interpersonal betrayal and gain a greater understanding of why the trauma occurred increase both forgiveness and the psychological functioning of the victim (Freedman & Enright, 1996; Hebl & Enright, 1993).

DiBlasio (1992) has observed that forgiveness in marital therapy provides a release for anger and paves the way to a later bridging of a troubled relationship. While one can respond to anger with suppression, open aggression, passive aggression, or assertiveness or dropping the issue, forgiveness is also an option (Carter & Minirth, 1993).

Forgiveness as a Successful Intervention

While conceptually forgiveness appears to be supported, well-conducted empirical research of the construct does not have a long-standing history (Worthington, 1994). It was been during the decade of the 1990's that forgiveness research gained momentum. Only during the past few years have books containing compilations of forgiveness research, theory, and application emerged (Enright & North, 1998; McCullough, Pargament, & Thoresen, 2000).

Focusing on "forgiving those who hurt us rather than on receiving forgiveness from those we hurt," (Enright, Gassin, Longinovic, & Loudon, 1994) Enright and his

associates have done a number of studies relating the impact of forgiveness to other areas of mental health. Using the 20-unit process forgiveness model as intervention with 24 elderly females, Hebl and Enright (1993) found that those who received the treatment showed significantly higher forgiveness profiles at posttest compared with a group not receiving this intervention. Both groups significantly decreased from pretest to posttest on psychological depression and trait anxiety.

Mabuk, Enright, and Cardis (1995) investigated using the forgiveness model with college students who judged themselves to be parentally love-deprived. After receiving a 6-day workshop, clients were significantly lower in anxiety, and higher in forgiveness, positive attitudes toward the parents, hope, and self-esteem than a control group. In addition, Freedman and Enright (1996) implemented their forgiveness intervention with 12 female incest survivors, who ranged in age from 24 to 54 years in age. After the intervention, the experimental group gained more than the control group in forgiveness and hope and decreased significantly more than the control group in anxiety and depression.

An even more powerful finding was that when the control group later received the intervention, they showed similar change patterns, as well as improvement in self-esteem. Additional research with men who have been hurt by abortion showed that participants in the forgiveness treatment program demonstrated a significant gain in forgiveness and significant reductions in anxiety, anger and grief as compared to controls. These psychological benefits were maintained when remeasured at a three-month follow-up (Coyle & Enright, in press).

Forgiveness and the reaction to poor performance in sports has not been explored. This is particularly relevant because it may affect emotions which, in turn, may affect performance. What is known is that one's success or failure in athletics can

greatly affect one's feelings about himself or herself.

The Impact of Sports on Emotions

Sports has the reputation of developing character and self-esteem. To some degree, research has supported this contention (Maui & Thomas, 1975, Pease & Anderson, 1986). For example, feelings of competence often increase after sports participation (Seidle & Repucci, 1993). Sports achievement often is an avenue to increased status (Braddock, 1980) as well as peer acceptance (Weiss & Duncan, 1982). Boys who are seen as athletically competent are often also seen as physically attractive (Cann, 1991; Cole & White, 1993). Not surprisingly, excellence in sports has also been found to be negatively related to depression (Cole, 1991).

Rating one's athletic competence can be difficult and complex. Results of research with 88 male major league soccer players revealed that in comparison to the "average soccer player" the players in the study perceived themselves as better players but not better in specific soccer skills such as "heading" the ball (VanYperen, 1992). Athletes are also more likely to make situational attributions of failure experiences when their ego investment is low, when successful performance is not so important to them (Luginbuhl & Bell, 1989). Also, as male athletes mature through high school, they become more likely to attribute their athletic excellence as due to natural ability (Watkins & Montgomery, 1989). Research in regards to a self-serving bias in rating one's athletic performance has been mixed. While athletes often attribute "trying hard" as an ingredient of success (Bukowski & Moore, 1980), they often attribute winning outcomes to more stable and controllable causes compared to losing outcomes (Grove, Hanrahan, & McInman, 1991).

It does appear that the ability to adequately rate oneself in terms of personality dimensions is associated with positive mental health. A series of studies by Covine,

Funder, and Block (1995) examined self-enhancement which they operationally defined as the discrepancy in favorability between self- and others-ratings of personality. The researchers found that men who self-enhanced at 18 years of age were described five years later by independent observers as being guileful and deceitful, distrustful of people and as having a brittle ego-defense system. Men with lesser tendencies toward self-enhancement were described as relatively straightforward and forthright, possessing high intellect, and having an internally consistent personality.

Reaction to Negative and Positive Feedback

While it appears that differences in self-enhancement tendencies alter one's perceptions, the same can also be said for differences in self-esteem. A mediating variable in sports enjoyment and subsequent sports performance is self-esteem. Athletes tend to react differently to failure experiences. High self-esteem athletes do better after negative feedback than low self-esteem athletes. Self-esteem does not tend to moderate athletic performance after positive feedback (Brockner, Derr, & Lang, 1987). It appears that overgeneralization of the failure experience occurs with the low self-esteem athletes (Kernis, Brockner & Frankel, 1989). A study by Seligman (1991) showed that both athletes and coaches who explained defeats with temporary, specific, and external explanations were more likely to respond by winning their next game. It would seem that such explanations could also help prevent the athlete from developing anger.

Anger does appear to be detrimental to sports performance. Results of a study by Henschen and associates (1992) showed that athletes who were low in anger were more likely to make the U.S. Wheelchair Basketball Paralympics team. Other research by Greene, Sears, and Clarke (1993) found that varsity athletes had greater anger control than intramural athletes. According to basketball coach Phil Jackson (1995), the

largest enemy to the Chicago Bulls' achieving their first championship was not another competing team but was instead anger. Jackson found that anger was a detriment to his team's concentration.

Anxiety, Self-Esteem and Depression

Anxiety, self-esteem, and depression appear to be closely related. An individual who is depressed is often also anxious (Bystritsky, Stroessel, & Yaeger, 1993; Jolly, 1993; Jolly, Aruffo, Wherry, & Livingston, 1993; Somer & Klein, 1993; Tambs & Moum, 1993). In addition, self-esteem tends to correlate negatively with both depression and anxiety (Rawson, 1992). Thus, to a great extent when one is speaking of self-esteem one is also considering the elements of depression and anger. Key to understanding both depression and subsequent sports performance is the underside of depression, anger. A study by Riley, Trieber and Woods (1989) was able to establish a positive relationship between anger and depression. In addition, a correlational study by Mizes, Morgan and Buder (1990) found cognitive distortion to be related to anger.

The Psychologically Healthy Athlete

Certain cognitive states tend to be associated with successful athletic performances. Extensive research with the Profile of Mood States (POMS) instrument has indicated that the "Iceberg Profile" may be most efficient for successful athletic performance (Morgan, 1978; Morgan & Johnson, 1976; Morgan & Pollack, 1977). Athletes who exhibit an "Iceberg Profile" on the POMS score higher on the variable of vigor but lower in the variables of depression, anger, fatigue and confusion. Research by Terry (1993) has shown that while it is quite possible to achieve successful athletic performances without such an "Iceberg Profile", one's chances of success improve if such a profile is achieved. Overall, the emotional states of the "Iceberg Profile" relate positively to life satisfaction in general (Hong & Giannakopoulous, 1994).

The Coach as a Primary Influence

A coach's behavior affects an athlete's self-esteem but it might also affect the athlete's performance. Using college football players as participants, Garland and Barry (1990) found several coaching behaviors related to higher performance, including offering more positive feedback.

Probably no person is in as strong a position to impact an athlete as his or her coach. Unlike other teachers, coaches often instruct an athlete for more than a single semester of the academic year (Jerzierski, 1994). Depending upon the athlete, they may become father or mother figures. Athletes tend to prefer coaches of their same sex and find these coaches more motivating (Medwechuk & Crossman, 1994).

A differential reaction to coaching behavior comes from the athlete's cognitive appraisal of the coach's behavior. Coaches tend to be evaluated more negatively by anxious athletes (Kenow & Williams, 1992). Also, self-esteem plays a great role in coaching appraisal by athletes. While low self-esteem sporting participants respond more positively than high self-esteem athletes to coaches who give positive feedback, they respond more negatively than high self-esteem athletes to coaches who give negative feedback (Smith & Smoll, 1990).

Nevertheless, athletes and coaches do not always have the same priorities. While coaches tend to emphasize winning, athletes emphasize personal performance (McElroy & Kirkendall, 1980). Also, coaches do not treat all athletes alike. They tend to give more attention and more specific feedback to better athletes. Sinclair and Vealey (1989) found that athletes given immediate feedback by coaches tend to gain in self-confidence. Their results were in line with the work of Hines and Groves (1989) who found a significant relationship between basketball self-esteem and the coach's assessment of ability. Coaches often are not aware of how they are perceived and often

see themselves as giving greater positive reinforcement and less punitive stimuli than do their athletes (Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1978). One possible reaction to criticism from an important figure in one's life is anger. According to Carter and Minirth (1993), anger often follows one's perception of being rejected or invalidated. Certainly coaches are significant and intimate figures whose perceived invalidation at least gives the athlete the invitation to anger.

Feshbach's Cognitive Appraisal Model of Anger

Feshbach (1986) sees cognitive appraisal as a key to understanding anger. His "stimulus-linked" model posits that anger does not simply result from frustration but is instead mediated by cognitive processes. Four elements in cognitive processing tend to make anger more likely according to Feshbach. The first has to do with failing to accept unfulfilled expectations. The second is related to seeing another individual as intentionally harmful. The third deals with an unfairness issue--seeing provocation by someone else as unjustified. The fourth and final cognitive processing element relates to perceiving a provocation as either a direct attack on one's self-esteem or as an insult or evidence of one's shortcomings. It is suggested that forgiveness will alter the cognitive processes associated with anger, allowing an individual to empathize with the injurer, thus seeing him or her as less intentionally harmful and thus becoming less angry. Still anger is not the only psychological variable related to sports performance. A more complete model of leadership could relate a variety of individual athlete differences to coaching behaviors and resultant performance.

A Model of Leadership Behaviors In Sport

Smoll and Smith (1989) developed a cognitive-behavioral model concerning leadership behaviors in youth sports. In their model, player individual difference variables (such as competitive trait anxiety, general self-esteem, and valence of

coaching behaviors), situational factors (such as previous success or failure, level of competition, and intrateam attraction) and cognitive processes mediate overt coaching behaviors and athletes' reactions to them. Certainly one possible individual difference among athletes is their level of forgiveness. It could be expected that the forgiving athlete might perceive and react to the same coaching behaviors in a different manner than a nonforgiving athlete.

Forgiveness and Athletic Performance

A case can be made that an athlete's development of forgiveness for others may help the athlete become more successful at his or her sport. Successful athletic performance is a key to popularity and a vaccination against depression (Cann, 1991; Cole, 1991; Cole & White, 1993). Athletes who play well are not only treated better by their peers but also by their coaches, who are especially powerful in terms of influencing an athlete's self-concept and subsequent performance (Garland & Barry, 1989; Hines & Groves, 1989). We also know that the ability to evaluate oneself accurately is positively related to psychological adjustment (Covine, Funder, & Block, 1995). It also appears that prior to sports performance, successful athletes appear to show greater emotional health than nonsuccessful athletes (Morgan, 1978; Terry, 1993). The personality variables of self-esteem, anxiety, and depression show a tendency to covary (Rawson, 1992; Stroessel & Yager, 1993) with anger as an important element of depression (Riley, Treiber, & Woods, 1989). Anger has also been associated with cognitive distortion (Mizes, Morgan, & Buder, 1990) as well as poor athletic performance (Henschen, Horvat, & Roswal, 1992). Counseling that focuses on the forgiveness process has been associated with the alleviation of depression, anger and anxiety and with increases in self-esteem (Coyle & Enright, in press; Freedman & Enright, 1996; Hebl & Enright, 1993; Mabuk, Enright, & Cardis, 1993). It is

suggested that forgiveness lessens cognitive distortions, reducing anger, depression, and anxiety, while increasing self-esteem and thus allowing the athlete to concentrate on the task at hand rather than to be consumed with a negative past event.

Statement of Problem

While it has been shown that therapy based on a process model of forgiveness can have a positive impact on forgiveness, self-esteem, depression, and anxiety, what is yet to be investigated is the idea that forgiveness can immunize athletes against failure when competing in sports. It was hypothesized that because of the inverse relationship of forgiveness to other variables such as depression, anger, and anxiety, athletes who relate to others with an attitude of forgiveness after failing in their own eyes or those of their coaches will be less likely to suffer from cognitive distortions such as overgeneralization which are consistent with depression, anger, anxiety, and low self-esteem. Consequently, these athletes will show less emotional decompensation after failure and will continue to play at the best of their abilities. It was additionally predicted that forgiving athletes will more accurately rate their performances when comparing their ratings to ratings to those given to them by their coaches.

This study tested the following four hypotheses:

1. Athletes higher in forgiveness of others will perform better at their sport than those lower in forgiveness when measured at both preseason and midseason via their own and their head coaches' judgments.
2. Athletes higher in forgiveness of others when measured at preseason will stay at the same level or improve their athletic performance when measured at midseason, while athletes lower in forgiveness of others will show performance deficits at midseason when compared to their preseason performance via their own and their head coaches' judgments.

3. Athletes higher in forgiveness of others when measured will score lower in total mood disturbance as measured by the Profile of Mood States (POMS) than athletes lower in forgiveness of others.

4. Athletes higher in forgiveness of others will show a greater similarity of their self-performance ratings to the performance ratings ascribed to them by their head coaches than athletes lower in forgiveness of others.

Method

Participants

Participants were players and head coaches of two Virginia college baseball teams. The first team consisted of 30 players from a Division I school with a staunch academic reputation. The participants ranged in age from 18 to 22 years. Of the 30 players, all voluntarily participated in the preseason data collection and 28 participated in the midseason data collection. Twenty-eight of the 30 players self-identified their race as White, with one player identifying himself as Hispanic, and one player identifying himself as "Mixed."

Although no SES data was collected during the study or available at the Division I college website, the Division I head coach provided the following information: He stated that his players were attending school with athletic scholarships. He indicated that their economic backgrounds tended to be "middle-class or upper middle-class." He stated that although his players tended to get equivalent grades to the rest of the student population, from 2.6 to 2.9 GPA, their admission requirements were not the same. He reported that while most students at the Division I school had obtained SAT scores in the 1350 neighborhood, his players were able to attend the school with SAT scores between 1050 and 1100.

The second team consisted of 24 players from a Division III technical school. At this school, players can achieve an Associates Degree and a trade skill in four years while earning money practicing their trade skill during their time at the school. The participants ranged in age from 18 to 24 years. Of the 24 players, 21 voluntarily participated in the pre-season data collection and 19 participated in the midseason data collection. Two of the players self-identified their race as African-American, while the

remainder identified themselves as White.

Although no SES data was collected during the study or available at the Division III college website, the Division III head coach provided the following information: He stated that his players were not attending school with athletic scholarships. He indicated that their economic backgrounds tended to be “blue collar” from two income homes. He said that a lot of the player’s fathers were mechanics and few were “professionals such as doctors.” The head coach stated that his baseball players have the same admissions standards as all others students and that their grade point average of 2.5 is in line with the rest of the student population. The Division III coach said that although he cannot offer scholarships, the players are paid when playing baseball as they normally would be on their jobs at the school.

Instruments

Profile of Mood States (POMS). The POMS consists of 65 items that describe moods or feelings, to which the client responds on a 5-point scale that ranges from “Not at all” (0) to “Extremely” (4) (McNair, Lorr, & Droppleman, 1971/1981). The POMS has been heavily used in research with athletes (LeUnes. Hayward, & Daiss, 1988; Terry, 1995).

The POMS measures six identifiable mood/affective states: Tension-Anxiety (T), Depression-Dejection (D); Anger-Hostility (A), Vigor-Activity (V), Fatigue-Inertia (F) and Confusion-Bewilderment (D). The POMS also yields a Total Mood Disturbance (TMD) score which is determined by summing all of the mood state scores except Vigor-Activity (V) and then subtracting the Vigor-Activity (V) score from this sum.

Raw scores on the POMS scales range from 0 to 36 for T, 0 to 60 for D, 0 to 48 for A, 0 to 32 for V, 0 to 28 for F, 0 to 28 for C, and -32 to 200 for TMD. Norms for college students for the POMS scales are 13 for T, 13 for D, 9 for A, 15 for V, 10 for F,

11 for C, and 41 for TMD (McNair, Lorr, & Droppleman, 1992).

Test-retest reliability for the POMS was calculated with 1000 mental health outpatients for the time between intake and pretreatment, a median time of 20 days. The reliability estimates for this period for the six factors of the POMS range from .65 for Vigor to .74 for depression. These stability coefficients are considerably lower than the .80 to .90 levels expected of measures of stable personality characteristics. However, stability of a fluctuating state like mood would hardly be expected to reach the levels required of personality traits. Internal consistency reliabilities of the six factors of the POMS using the KR-20 formula range from .87 to .95 in a study of 350 male psychiatric outpatients and from .84 to .95 in a study of 650 female psychiatric outpatients (McNair, Lorr, & Droppleman, 1992).

In addition, alpha reliabilities were computed on a sample of 2,360 adults ages 18-65 participating in a “self-help” smoking cessation research program for the six factors of the POMS. For females, the alpha reliabilities ranged from .85 to .93, while for the men the reliabilities ranged from .83 to .92 (Killen, Fortmann, Telch, & Newman, 1988). In their study of the factor structure of the POMS, Norcross, Guadagnoli, and Prochaska (1984) found that the POMS “appears to be an internal, consistent, multidimensional instrument with a relatively stable factor structure that accounts for a high percentage of the total variance” (p. 1277).

Enright Forgiveness Inventory (EFI). The EFI contains 60 items related to forgiveness of “the most recent experience of someone hurting you unfairly and deeply.” Items measured on a 6-point Likert score from (0) “strongly disagree” to (5) “strongly agree” (Subkoviak, Enright, Wu, Gassin, Freedman, Olson, & Sarinopoulos, 1995). The 60 items are evenly divided among six areas related to forgiveness: absence of negative affect (NA), presence of positive affect (PA), absence of negative cognition

(NC), presence of positive cognition (PC), absence of negative behavior (NB), and presence of positive behavior (PB), all toward the offending person. Test-retest reliabilities for the six scales using a four-week interval ranged from .74 to .91 while the EFI total score had a reliability of .86 (Subkoviak, Enright, Wu, Gassin, Freeman, Olson & Sarinopoulos, 1995).

Using a Likert score that call fall between zero and five for all items, the range for all subscale scores on the EFI is 0 to 50 with the range of the Total Forgiveness Score at 0 to 300. following scores fall at the 50th percentile for the EFI scales: 31 for PA, 35 for NA, 41 for PB, 37 for NB, 42 for PC, 45 for NC, and 231 for the Total Forgiveness Score (Subkoviak, Enright & Wu, 1992).

The EFI correlates significantly and negatively with anxiety as measured by the Spielberger State-Trait Anxiety Scale (Spielberger, Gorsuch, Lushene, Vagg, & Jacobs, 1983), but not with depression as measured by the Beck Depression Inventory (Beck & Steer, 1987), social desirability as measured by the Crowne-Marlowe Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960), or religiosity as measured by a 7-item Likert scale.

It must be noted that the failure of the EFI to correlate with depression could be due to a statistical artifact in the sample. Because no clinical subsample was used, only college students and their parents, there was little variation in the depression scores.(Subkoviak, Enright, Wu, Gassin, Freeman, Olson & Sarinopoulo, 1995).

Player's Questionnaire

This questionnaire consisted of four 5-point Likert-Item questions: (1) "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to others on the team?" A score of "1" meant "much worse" while a score of "5" meant "much better." (2) "How well are you playing in comparison to your own expectations?" Again, a score of "1" meant

“much worse” while a score of “5” meant “much better.” (3) “How well does the head coach think you are playing?” A score of “1” meant “very poorly” while a score of “5” meant “very well.” (4) “How fairly is the head coach treating you?” A score of “1” meant “very poorly” while a score of “5” meant “very well.”

Coach's Questionnaire

On this questionnaire, the head coaches answered these two questions about each player on their teams: (1) “How well do you think he is playing in comparison to others on the team?” A score of “1” meant “much worse” while a score of “5” meant “much better.” (2) “How well is he playing in comparison to your (the coach's) expectations for the player. A score of “1” meant “very poorly” while a score of “5” meant “very well.”

Procedure

On January 19, 1999, before any regularly scheduled games were played, 30 Division I baseball players completed an Informed Consent Form as well as the EFI, POMS, and Player's Questionnaire in random order. The head coach completed an Informed Consent Form and the Coach's Questionnaire. On March 12, 1999, 53 days later, the 28 of the 30 players from the January 19 administration and the head coach completed the same instruments, again presented in random order. At the conclusion of this administration, the players were given debriefing information about the nature of the study. Prior to the March 12 administration, the Division I team had played very well, beyond the head coach's expectations, compiling a 12-1 record.

On February 15, 1999, also before any regularly schedule games were played, 20 of the 24 Division III baseball players completed an Informed Consent Form as well as the EFI, POMS, and Player's Questionnaire presented in random order. The head coach completed an Informed Consent Form and the Coach's Questionnaire. On March 28,

1999, 42 days later, 16 of the 20 players from the February 15 administration and the head coach completed the same instruments, again presented in random order. In addition, three additional players completed these instruments as well as an Informed Consent Form. At the conclusion of this administration, the players were given debriefing information about the nature of the study. Prior to this administration, the Division III team had compiled a 17-10 record. This record was superior to the expectations of their head coach who, prior to the start of the season, said he expected his team to win half of its games.

Data were separately analyzed for the Division I and Division III teams, creating a self-replicating pre-test/post-test study using preseason and midseason as time periods. Correlation coefficients were calculated relating players' forgiveness scores with players' self-evaluations of their play, their head coaches' evaluations of their play, as well as the six factors of the POMS plus its total mood disturbance scale.

RESULTS

The Enright Forgiveness Inventory (EFI) yields a total forgiveness score (TF) which is a sum of the following six subscales: positive affect (PA), absence of negative affect (NA), positive behavior (PB), absence of negative behavior (NB), positive cognition (PC), and absence of negative cognition (NC). Correlations of all the scales for both administrations of the EFI (preseason and midseason) for all players of both teams (Division I and Division III) were calculated (see Table 1). These correlations indicate that the players tend to have extremely similar scores on all the subscales, and that each EFI subscale is extremely highly correlated with the EFI total forgiveness score as well as with each other EFI subscale. For this reason, the total forgiveness score was used as a unitary measure to test the hypotheses of this study. When the term “forgiveness of others” is used in this paper, it is referring to the total forgiveness of others score yielded by the EFI.

Test of Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis, which predicted that athletes high in forgiveness of others would perform better at their sport than those low in forgiveness of others, was not supported by the data (see Tables 2 and 3). For the Division I athletes, no significant relationship was found between the total forgiveness of others score and any of the athletic performance variables with one exception. There was a significant positive correlation at preseason between the players’ forgiveness of others and the head coach’s rating of the player in comparison to his teammates, $r(28) = .42, p < .05$. However, this significant positive relationship did not continue to exist at midseason for the Division I athletes, nor did it ever exist for the Division III players.

As with the Division I athletes, significant relationships were not found between

forgiveness of others and any of the athletic performance variables with a single exception. For these Division III athletes, a significant negative relationship emerged at midseason between players' forgiveness of others and players' perception of their play in comparison to others, $r(15) = -.62, p < .01$. This relationship was not replicated in the data for the Division I athletes' data, nor did it exist for the Division III athletes at preseason.

Differences between Division I and Division III Players

More intriguing, however, was the divergence in data between Division I and Division III athletes regarding the relationship between forgiveness of others and athletic performance. Without exception, including all preseason and midseason performance variables, there was a greater negative relationship between forgiveness of others and athletic performance for Division III athletes as compared to Division I athletes (Tables 2 and 3). Z-tests were calculated to test for significant differences between the correlations (Ferguson, 1959). Although none of the individual comparisons were significant, the chances that there would be a greater negative relationship between forgiveness and athletic performance for all eight athletic performance variables would be equal to .5 multiplied to its eighth power (Harnett, 1982). This resultant probability would be $p < .01$.

This finding led to a comparison of Division I and Division III across measurement periods. This comparison of means and standard deviations comparing Division I and Division III players on total forgiveness and athletic performance variables is shown in Table 4. Unpaired t-tests were calculated comparing Division I and Division III players at both preseason and midseason. No significant differences were found between the two groups of players on any of the measures at either preseason or midseason. Also of interest is that the total forgiveness scores of both Division I

players and Division III players were lower at both measurement periods than the published norm score of 231 (Subkoviak, Enright, & Wu, 1995). However, it must be noted that the norm was established by testing 197 college students and 197 of their same-gender parents in the Midwestern United States.

A comparison of means and standard deviations of Division I players on total forgiveness and athletic performance variables is shown in Table 5. Paired t-tests were calculated comparing data for Division I players at preseason and midseason. For all performance variables, Division I athletes scored higher at preseason than at midseason. However, the differences were significant in only two cases. Players scored significantly higher at preseason than midseason on players' rating #1: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to others on the team?", $t(27) = 2.14$, $p < .05$, and on players' rating #2: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to your own expectations?", $t(27) = 3.03$, $p < .01$.

While Division I players tended to rate themselves consistently in total forgiveness across time, $r(26) = .45$, $p < .05$, the correlations between preseason and midseason measurements of all of their performance variables failed to achieve significance. In contrast, the Division I head coach rated players consistently on both performance variables, "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to others on the team?", $r(28) = .54$, $p < .01$, and "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to your (the head coach) expectations for the player?", $r(28) = .57$, $p < .01$.

Means and standard deviations of Division III players and athletic performance variables are shown in Table 6. Paired t-tests were calculated for Division III players at preseason and midseason. Continuing the trend of the Division I players, Division III players scored higher at preseason than at midseason on five of the six performance

variables. Significant differences were found on three of these measures. As with the Division I players, Division III players scored significantly higher at preseason than midseason on players' rating #1: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to others on the team?", $t(14) = 3.02$, $p < .01$. Unlike Division I players, Division III players also scored significantly higher on players' rating #3: "How well does the head coach think you are playing?", $t(13) = 2.77$, $p < .05$, and on players' rating #4: "How fairly is the head coach treating you?", $t(14) = 3.55$, $p < .01$, at preseason when compared to midseason. While Division III players scored higher at preseason than midseason on player's rating #2: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to your own expectations?", they did not do so in a significant manner, $t(14) = 0.93$, $p > .05$, as had the Division I players.

As with the Division I players, Division III players were consistent across time periods in their ratings of total forgiveness, $r(13) = .59$, $p < .05$, but were not significantly consistent across time for any of the performance ratings with the exception of players' rating #4: "How fairly is the head coach treating you?", $r(13) = .53$, $p < .05$. The Division III head coach, as had the Division I head coach, rated players consistently across time periods on both performance variables, "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to others on the team?", $r(22) = .78$, $p < .01$, and "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to your (the head coach) expectations for the player?", $r(22) = .45$, $p < .05$.

Forgiveness and the Perception of Fairness

In addition, the data did not indicate that a players' forgiveness of others is associated with seeing the coach as treating him fairly. For Division I players, the correlation between forgiveness of others and perception of the head coach's fairness was not significant either at preseason, $r(28) = .18$, $p > .05$, or midseason, $r(26) =$

-.17, $p > .05$. Data from Division III players also failed to show a significant relationship between forgiveness of others and players' perception of the coach's fairness at preseason, $r(17) = .16$, $p > .05$, or at midseason $r(15) = -.14$, $p > .05$.

Forgiveness of Others and Starter Status

Table 7 shows a comparison of forgiveness between starters and nonstarters for the Division I players and for both teams combined. Data from Division III players were not analyzed separately because only three Division III players self-reported as nonstarters at preseason and only seven Division III players self-reported as nonstarters at midseason. Unpaired t-tests revealed that forgiveness of others was not related to self-reported starter status.

Test of Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis predicted that athletes high in forgiveness of others will stay at the same level or improve their athletic performance from preseason to midseason. This hypothesis was investigated using two methods. First, preseason forgiveness of others scores were correlated with change scores from preseason to midseason in player performance variables (see Table 8).

Secondly, because it is considered somewhat controversial to correlate change scores and also because it was predicted before the study that a positive relationship between forgiveness of others and preseason player performance might exist, partial correlations between preseason forgiveness scores and midseason player performance variables were calculated with the effects of preseason player performance removed (see Table 9). Neither of the two methods yielded data supporting the second hypothesis as preseason levels of forgiveness of others were not related to midseason athletic performance improvements or deficits.

Test of Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis, which predicted that athletes high in forgiveness of others will score lower in total mood disturbance as measured by the POMS was not supported by the data. For both Division I and Division III athletes and at both preseason and midseason evaluations, forgiveness of others showed a negative but nonsignificant relationship with total mood disturbance (see Table 10).

For Division I athletes, forgiveness of others was not significantly related to any of the mood variables measured by the POMS which include tension-anxiety, confusion-bewilderment, depression-dejection, anger-hostility, fatigue-inertia, and vigor-activity. For Division III athletes, forgiveness of others showed a significant negative correlation with tension-anxiety at pre-season, $r(18) = -.57, p < .01$, but not at midseason, $r(16) = -.30, p > .05$. Forgiveness was also significantly inversely related to tension-anxiety at preseason, $r(18) = -.56, p < .01$, and its relationship to tension-anxiety at midseason remained consistent but nonsignificant, $r(16) = -.47, p < .05$.

For these Division III players, the strongest association that forgiveness of others had with any mood variables measured by the POMS was with depression-dejection. Forgiveness showed a significantly negative correlation with depression-dejection for these players at both preseason, $r(18) = -.58, p < .01$, and at midseason, $r(16) = -.49, p < .05$.

Correlations of mood variables to athletic performance variables are shown in Table 11. As this table indicates, the mood variables of the POMS do not show a consistent relationship to any of the four most crucial athletic performance variables: (1) how well the player thinks he is playing in comparison to others on the team, (2) how well the player thinks he's playing in comparison to his own expectations, (3) how

well the coach thinks the player is playing in comparison to others on the team, and (4) how well the coach thinks the player is playing in comparison to the coach's expectations.

However, a divergence in the data emerged when comparing Division I to Division III players when correlating total mood disturbance with player rating #1 which deals with how well the player thinks he is playing in comparison to others on his team. Data from Division I players indicated a significant negative relationship between player rating #1 and total mood disturbance at both preseason, $r(28) = -.37, p < .05$, and at midseason, $r(26) = -.43, p < .05$. These findings were not replicated with Division III players.

Table 12 compares Division I and Division III players on mood variables from the POMS at preseason and midseason. The differences between the two groups were striking as Division I players scored lower than Division III players on confusion-bewilderment at preseason, $t(48) = -3.32, p < .01$, and at midseason, $t(45) = -2.48, p < .05$, depression-dejection at preseason, $t(48) = -2.99, p < .01$, fatigue-inertia at preseason, $t(48) = 2.10, p < .05$, and total mood disturbance at preseason, $t(48) = -3.35, p < .01$. In addition, the Division I players scored higher than the Division III players on midseason vigor-activity, $t(45) = 5.26, p < .01$. In total, the Division III players scored very similarly to college student norms for the POMS (McNair, Lorr, & Droppleman, 1992), while the scores for the Division I players were indicative of lesser mood disturbance.

Test of Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis, which predicted that athletes high in forgiveness of others will show a greater similarity of their self-performance ratings to the performance ratings ascribed to them by their coaches than athletes low in forgiveness of others was

tested by correlating the forgiveness of others ratings by athletes with the absolute value of the difference in their self-performance ratings as compared with those of their coaches. Data did not provide support for this hypothesis (see Table 13).

For Division I players, the only significant relationship obtained was a negative preseason relationship between forgiveness of others and the discrepancy between players' and the head coach's evaluation of the athlete's play in comparison to his teammates, $r(28) = -.37, p < .05$. This relationship was not replicated at midseason for the Division I players. For Division III players, no significant relationships were uncovered between forgiveness of others and discrepancy scores for any performance ratings at either preseason or midseason.

Analysis of Forgiveness Change Scores

Forgiveness of others change scores from preseason to midseason were correlated with change scores for performance variables (see Table 14). Results indicate that changes in forgiveness of others were not significantly related to change in any of the performance variables for either the Division I or Division III players.

However, a severe discrepancy in the direction of performance change existed between Division I and Division III players. Increases in forgiveness of others from Division I players corresponded with negative changes in their perception of their own athletic performances but with positive changes in the evaluation of their athletic performances by their head coach. The inverse held true for Division III players as increases in forgiveness of others were associated with positive changes in their perceptions of their own athletic performances and with negative changes in the evaluation of their athletic performances by their head coach.

Forgiveness of others change scores were also correlated with change scores for mood variables (Table 15). While none of the correlations were significant for the

Division I players, the results were much different for Division III athletes. For these players, changes in forgiveness of others were associated with significant reductions in tension-anxiety, $r(13) = -.71$, $p < .01$, anger-hostility, $r(13) = -.71$, $p < .01$, and total mood disturbance, $r(13) = -.58$, $p < .05$.

Table 16, titled "Categories of Individuals to Forgive" an analysis of the categories of individuals for which the athletes recalled as perpetrator of "the most recent experience of someone hurting you unfairly and deeply" and includes all incidents reported on the Enright Forgiveness Inventory at both data collection periods by members of both teams. By far, romantic relationships dominated situations in which forgiveness by athletes was required.

Only in four responses was the need to forgive a coach mentioned. Two of the four responses were from Division I players at preseason, one was from a Division I player at midseason, and one was from a Division III player at midseason. The mean total forgiveness score for these four responses was very elevated at 250.50. Only in one response was the need to forgive a teammate mentioned. This was from a Division I athlete at midseason who had a very low total forgiveness score of 162. No athletes mentioned umpires or opponents as the individual they needed to forgive. In addition, when all data from both teams was included, it was found that the amount of forgiveness of others reported by players of both teams was not significantly related to time elapsed since the hurtful incident, $r(67) = .07$, $p < .05$., or to the amount of hurt experienced by the event, $r(91) = .01$, $p < .05$.

Table 17 shows the distribution of days since the hurtful incident. The range of time since the hurtful incident was between 1 day at the minimum and 6 years at the maximum. The mean amount of time since the hurtful incident was 335.33 days, with a standard deviation of 495.62 days. The median amount of days since the hurtful incident

was much lower than the mean, 91.50 days.

Experiment-Wise Alpha Inflation

In a study such as this one, which included a total of 248 comparisons, it would normally be necessary to look at experiment-wise alpha inflation. Typically a Bonferroni adjustment is used in the following manner: $(\alpha/\# \text{ of comparisons})$ or $(.05/\# \text{ of comparisons})$.

If the Bonferroni adjustment was made in this study, the p needed to achieve significance for any given comparison at the .05 alpha level would be $.05 / 248 = .00020$. At the .01 alpha level, the p needed to achieve significance would be $.01 / 248 = .00004$. This procedure would negate the study's findings.

However, because this study was self-replicating, using two different baseball teams, the Bonferroni adjustment is not the best solution. Instead, it is best to report the findings for one team and then proceed to see if they can be replicated for the other team.

A spurious relationship when replicated at the .05 alpha level occurs only at a p rate of $(.05 \times .05) = .0025$. A spurious relationship when replicated at the .01 alpha level occurs only at a p rate of $(.01 \times .01) = .0001$. Because of its self-replicating nature, this study is strongly safeguarded against spurious findings.

DISCUSSION

Summary of Results

The hypotheses set forth in this dissertation, in general, did not receive support from the data. Athletes high in forgiveness of others did not perform better as baseball players than those low in forgiveness of others. A player's preseason level of forgiveness did not act as an immunizing element against future performance deficits. Forgiveness of others was inversely related to total mood disturbance for Division I but not Division III players. Players high in forgiveness of others did not consistently rate their play in a manner similar to that of their coaches nor did they see their coaches as treating them more fairly than those low in forgiveness.

Although the hypotheses were not confirmed, an additional finding is of great interest. As interviews with the two head coaches indicated that the Division I players were more likely to come from upper-middle class and middle-class backgrounds than the Division III players, data from this study also suggested a more reliable inverse relationship between forgiveness of others and athletic performance for Division III players when compared to Division I players. Explanations for this discrepancy center upon the following theses: (1) Boys, in general, are not socialized to be agents of forgiveness; (2) forgiveness is not associated with the socialization of the athlete; (3) forgiveness may be class-related. It may be that the Division I athletes of this study, who were attending a highly competitive academic institution, were more likely to have middle-class backgrounds conducive to the development of forgiveness than the Division III athletes who were attending a technical college. However, as objective socioeconomic data was not collected or available, it's also possible this may be a spurious result.

Boys Are Not Socialized To Forgive

To a great extent, most boys in our culture are not socialized to forgive others.

Pollock (1998) describes an old “Boy Code” which is an unwritten set of rules for gender development. Such rules, he explains, equate masculinity and “being a man” with athletic competence and success. Pollock hypothesis believes that these rules prod boys into believing that playing sports is about winning at any cost, and that one should humiliate anyone who loses or contributes to your own loss. Such a code pressures boys not only to put on their emotional armor and act tough but to tease or rebuke boys for showing any weakness or vulnerability.

As a result, anger becomes an “emotional funnel,” through which boys express their vulnerability and powerlessness. With anger as the final common pathway for an entire range of other suppressed feelings, including empathy, and the most or only acceptable way for boys to express themselves emotionally, it appears that these rules conspire to eliminate forgiveness as a reasonable male response to disappointment.

Empirical studies have demonstrated that boys at a very early age are pushed to suppress their vulnerable and sad feelings, and are instead pressured to express the one strong feeling allowed them—anger. In Grief and Ulman’s (1981) study, mothers were asked to create a story with their children. When performing this task, mothers never used the word “angry” with girls, but frequently used it with boys. Fivush (1989) found that parents not only focused on anger more frequently with their sons, but more readily accepted retaliation, rather than harmony, as a reasonable solution to a conflict situation. With anger as the only acceptable emotional expression for boys and retaliation as an acceptable means of resolution, forgiveness cannot develop.

Forgiveness and Athletic Socialization

The organization of sport in society influences the organization of gender in society. As a masculine rite of passage, participation in sport is expected of males to prove their manhood and to learn to succeed (Murphy & Leonard, 1998). Leonard

(1998) suggests two functions of sport, sports as (a) a value receptacle, and sports as a (b) safety valve. The value receptacle function refers that sport can be both seen to reflect and reinforce the values that society holds important and also to generate values that may reverberate back to the larger society. The safety valve function of sport implies that athletics provide an arena in which overt acts of hostility, violence, and aggression are permitted. Sports thus becomes a socially accepted channel for the expression, catharsis, and displacement of pent-up feelings that might otherwise disrupt the dynamic balance of society. It is this safety valve function that can interfere with an athlete's development of forgiveness of others.

Bianchi (1975) argues that unbridled aggression occurs in sports because of the pervasive sexism in our society. Accordingly, men are taught to be domineering. He maintains that even in American youth sports toughness, aggressiveness and winning are portrayed as ideal values with hostility and violence as tools for removing obstacles along the way. Traditionally, boys sports have tended to be specialized and elite, exclusive, serious and intense, formal, victory-oriented, risky and adventurous, and aggressive and dominance-oriented with the opponent serving as an enemy to be vanquished (Griffin, 1998, p. 78-79.) Teaching forgiveness to athletes would appear to be at great odds with these values.

Even though research evidence indicates that high school athletes' moral reasoning levels don't differ from non-athletes', there is also data indicating that college athletes have lower moral reasoning levels than their non-athlete counterparts (Bredemeier & Shields, 1993). As Enright, Santos, and Al-Mabuk (1989) found levels of forgiveness to be empirically linked to Kohlberg's (1976) stages of forgiveness, it follows that college athletes might not be oriented toward forgiving others.

Coaching's Influence on Forgiveness

A group that has tremendous impact upon the values athletes develop from sports are coaches. Athletes learn from both a coach's verbal and nonverbal teaching. Nonverbal teaching can be further broken down into two elements: image and example. The athletes image of a teacher is formed and affected by the coach's appearance, and how he or she stands, walks, and talks (Sabock, 1995).

Despite evidence that anger can be a detriment to sports performance (Henschen, Horvath, & Roswal, 1992; Morgan & Johnson, 1978), many athletes and coaches subscribe to the philosophy that anger helps them play better. Hockey coach Mike Keenan's strategy is to make his players angry so that they would work hard to prove him wrong (Meisel, 1995). Perhaps no coach's influence has had as wide a swath as that of Vince Lombardi. Lombardi wanted his players to hate him enough to take it out on the opposition and admitted that he considered football "a game for madmen" (Moraniss, 1999, p. 374).

However, while the angry style of coaching has been successful, a more humanistic and less emotionally intensive approach has been equally efficient. According to Tom Landry emotions are hindrances to athletic performance (Sabock, 1995). According to basketball coach Phil Jackson, "to excel, you need to act with a clear mind" (Jackson & Delehanty, 1995, p. 115). He has described the problems of angry players, "That summer in Montana, I realized that anger was the Bulls' real enemy, not the Detroit Pistons. Anger was the restless demon that seized the group mind and kept the players from being fully awake" (Jackson & Delehanty, 1995, p. 131).

Even forgiveness is espoused by some championship coaches. Basketball coach Dean Smith stands in opposition to many of today's coaching values. He espouses positive reinforcement and not embarrassing players in public. According to Smith, "the

obvious point is that God expects us to forgive other human beings if we are forgiven by him" (Smith, Kilgo, & Jenkins, 1999, p. 263). He also stresses empathy, "I genuinely believe in one of the Thoughts of the Day used by our team: 'Never judge your neighbor until you have walked in his moccasins for two full moons'" (Smith, Kilgo, & Jenkins, 1999, p. 258).

According to football coach Tom Osborne, "No one is beyond redemption. With God's help, it is possible to become a different person—irrespective of past misdeeds or experiences (Osborne, 1999, p. 15). Despite such noble sentiments, there is a price to pay for being a forgiving coach. Osborne stated, "There were times when I was perceived as "too nice" to be a good football coach. Each time we lost the "big one," there were those who thought my being a person of faith was a major part of the problem (Osborne, 1999, p. 23). Such attitudes tend to be pervasive in sports where the two most quoted axioms are Vince Lombardi's "Winning isn't everything, it's the only thing" (Maraniss, 1999, p. 365) and Leo Durocher's "Nice guys finish last" (Beck, 1968), ideas in complete opposition to the concept of forgiveness.

Forgiveness May Be Class Related

The discrepancy between Division I and Division III players was remarkable. However, of course, as noted in the Results section, in a self-replication study, differences between samples on some factors may simply reflect unreliable results. Division III players exhibited a significantly greater negative correlation between forgiveness of others and measures of their athletic performance than did Division I players. To a great degree, the institutions to which the players were attending were also different. The Division I players attended a highly competitive academic institution known for its great scholarship. The Division III players attended an institution at which they were to earn a two-year degree and proficiency in a trade. Although

objective socioeconomic data was not collected on these players, coaches' interviews indicate a high probability that players from these two schools had different backgrounds and life experiences prior to their entry into their respective institutions, and it is equally probable that these experiences impacted their likelihood of using forgiveness as a coping mechanism for life's frustrations.

Sport and Social Stratification

Social stratification is the hierarchical arrangement of social groups into social classes. The three ways most sociologists use to measure social class are wealth, power and prestige (Henslin, 1997). Henslin asserts that the primary significance of social class is that it determines life chances, the probability concerning the fate we can expect in life. Leonard (1998) argues that of the myriad variables used in sociological explanation, social class is predominant. For example, if you rank families from poorest to richest, at each income level the likelihood that the children will attend college increases (Manski, 1992-1993). Social class is also related to child discipline. Kohn (1977) has found significant class differences in child rearing with middle-class parents more likely to use verbal persuasion, while lower-class parents rely are more likely to rely on physical punishment, behavior which is not instructive in teaching children to forgive others.

Sports and The Differential Class-Based Construction of Masculinities

A consistent finding in both sport and developmental psychology is that all boys are, to a greater or lesser extent, judged according to their ability in competitive sports (Eitzen, 1975; Sabo, 1985). Messner (1990) conducted 30 interviews with 30 male former athletes. He divided his sample into two comparison groups. The first group was made up of 10 men from higher-status backgrounds, primarily white, middle-class, and professional families. The second group was made up of 20 men from lower-status

backgrounds, primarily minority, poor, and working-class families. Men from both groups often saw their own athletic accomplishments as a way to connect with and emulate their fathers.

Despite these similarities, there are some identifiable differences that begin to explain the tendency of males from lower-status backgrounds to develop higher levels of commitment to sports careers. The most clear-cut difference was that while men from higher-status backgrounds are likely to describe their earliest athletic experiences and motivations almost exclusively in terms of immediate family, men from lower-status backgrounds more commonly describe the importance of a broader community context.

The middle-class men's description of their boyhoods revealed that they grew up immersed in a wide range of institutional frameworks of which organized sports was just one. More importantly, it was clear that their ultimate status would come to them through educational achievement, not athletic prowess. However, it was within a limited structure of opportunity that many lower-status young boys found sports to be the place, rather than a place, within which to construct masculine identity, status, and relationships. Messner's interviews revealed that it is not that parents of boys in lower-status families did not also encourage their boys to work hard in school. It's just that the broader social context—education, economy, and community—was more likely to narrow lower status boys' perceptions of real life option, making it more likely for him to make an early commitment to an athletic career.

According to Griffin (1998), many sports heroes come from humble backgrounds and he notes that traditionally their comments have seemed to indicate that if you come from a modest background all you can ask for is one chance at stardom. For them, there was no middle ground, such as starting a business, learning a skilled trade, or becoming a doctor or lawyer. It was either stardom and riches through sports or

staying at the bottom of the social heap—nothing in between. Thus, with the perception of having limited opportunities, forgiveness may be more difficult for men from lower economic classes as a single failure experience may be experienced as having permanent consequences.

Class-Based Expectations of Male Behavior

In her study of class-based masculinities, Pyke (1996) interviewed 70 divorced and remarried individuals, half in lower-to working-class remarriages and the other half in middle-to-upper-class remarriages. The husband's occupation was used to determine social class. She found that lower-class men do not enjoy the same ideological legitimacy for personal autonomy and leisure in their marriages that higher-class men acquire as part of their career package. Instead some working-class husbands engage in defiant behavior such as sexual carousing and drug or alcohol abuse, thus constructing a compensatory masculinity.

Such behavior was worn like a badge of masculinity in the work and social environments they inhabited. By drinking with other working-class men at the bar and openly engaging in extramarital relationships, they appear to be defying existing power structures, displaying their independence from their "wives" and "the establishment" (i.e., higher-status men). This exaggerated masculinity compensates for their subordinated status in the hierarchy of their everyday work worlds. Although this behavior is characteristic of some and not all working-class men, it continues to reinforce a negative stereotype and one totally at odds with forgiveness for wrongs committed by others.

Fatherhood and Family Culture

The type of father-child interaction also varies with class status and education. Middle-class fathers are more likely to read to their children, and take them to the

library and on other trips than lower class fathers; they are also more likely to take on the teaching role with their children (Davis & Havighurst, 1946; Freeberg & Payne, 1967; Hess & Torney, 1967). Engaging in educational activities with one's children may be related to the confidence fathers have in their own educational skills: without education, and the skills which it promotes, one may not feel comfortable helping one's children in their own educational endeavors (Erickson & Gecas, 1991).

Social class may also affect parenting indirectly through its negative effect on family size, that is, as social class decreases, family size increases. As the size of the family increases, order becomes more problematic, resulting in more roles and a greater emphasis on discipline and control. It is perhaps for this reason that parental authoritarianism is often associated with the large family system (Bossard & Boll, 1956; Elder & Bowerman, 1963; Scheck & Emerick, 1976).

Social Class and Authoritative Parenting

The value discrepancy between Division I and Division III athletes may have been related to parenting style. Using samples from the student bodies of nine high schools in Wisconsin and North Carolina, Steinberg, Darling and Fletcher (1995) collected comparing parental style with adolescent behavior and peer group membership. The findings indicated that there are theoretically predictable differences among adolescents raised in authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful homes. Adolescents raised in authoritative homes— those high on both Acceptance/Involvement and Strictness/Supervision—were better adjusted and more competent; they are more confident about their abilities, competent in the areas of achievement, and less likely than their peers to get into trouble. In addition, they found that the prevalence of authoritativeness is most likely among European-Americans, middle class families, and intact families.

In addition Gerris, Maja, and Jan's (1997) study of 237 Dutch mothers found that nearly all childrearing measures were correlated with parents' educational and occupational levels. The higher these levels were parent's social class, the more they enhanced their child's autonomy, and the less they were inclined to demand conformity from their child. Whitbeck and Gecas' (1988) study of 82 families revealed that children attribute their values to their parents. It is possible that the increased acceptance given by parents of higher socioeconomic standing could, through modeling, also increase the likelihood that their children develop of forgiveness of others.

Empathy, Social Class, and Forgiveness

A number of studies have established that adults within the middle social class are more helpful, empathetic, and cooperative than adults of lower social class (Dreman & Greenbaum, 1973; Heatherton & Frankie, 1967; Madsen, 1971). Kallioupuska (1984) tested a group of 341 parents during home interviews with Hehrabian and Epstein's emotional empathy scale. Although significant differences were not noted among the mothers, significant differences were found among the fathers, with middle-class fathers most empathetic.

McCullough, Worthington, & Rachal (1997) conducted two studies to test their hypothesis that people forgive others to the extent that they experience empathy for them. In the first study, using measures of empathy and forgiveness, they found evidence consistent with the notions that (a) the relationship between receiving an apology from and forgiving one's offender is a function of increased empathy for the offender and (b) that forgiving is related to increased conciliatory behavior and reduced avoidance behavior toward the offending party. In the second study, the researchers conducted an intervention in which empathy was manipulated. The results generally supported the conceptualization of forgiving as a motivational phenomenon and the

empathy-forgiving link with empathy for the offending partner being the central facilitative condition that leads to forgiving.

To summarize, it appears likely that the Division I players who participated in this study were more likely than the Division III players to have middle-class backgrounds which emphasized educational achievement, verbal persuasion rather than physical punishment, and empathy for others. It appears equally likely that the Division I players on the whole, because of the greater likelihood of their middle-class status had a larger number of opportunities for success in life; therefore, if one opportunity was blocked, forgiveness might be have been more likely because other avenues for achievement still existed. Nevertheless, even for these Division III players, changes in their forgiveness scores, while not associated with changes in their athletic performance, were associated with significant and positive changes in mood variables

Contributions of Study

The present study contributed to the knowledge base we have about forgiveness in three important ways: Firstly, it initiated the study of sports psychology. At this time, the major tools of sports psychologist are relaxation, concentration, and visualization (Rotella & Cullen, 1995). This study presented the possibility of adding forgiveness to the currently limited arsenal of the sports psychologist while attempting to connect crucial commonalities between the psychology of sports and the psychology of religion. Secondly, while the data did not indicate that forgiveness of others is related to improved baseball performance, it did indicate it can positively affect athletes' mood variables. A third contribution of this study is that it suggests many new areas of exploration dealing with the affects of forgiveness. For example, it appears that the likelihood benefits of forgiveness may be somewhat different for individuals from different backgrounds as well as being domain specific. It is likely that it is this heuristic element of the study

that is its greatest strength.

Limitations of Study

Although this was a groundbreaking study in relating forgiveness of others to athletic performance, it was limited in a number of areas. Foremost, the generalizability of its results must be questioned. The two schools studied appear to be unique among institutions of higher learning, polar opposites in terms of socioeconomic characteristics of their student athlete characteristics and most likely to do not typify athletes at other college programs. It also must be kept in mind that the socioeconomic data was gathered through interviews from the head coaches and relied upon their subjective perceptions.

In addition, only baseball players were studied. Forgiveness of others may have a greater or a lesser relationship to athletic performance in other team sports such as football or basketball or may relate differently to achievement in individual athletic endeavors such as gymnastics or golf. The present study explored forgiveness in an almost completely "White" collection of college baseball players. Forgiveness of others may be of different value to ethnic minority male athletes. Anderson (1994) writes of a "code of the streets" among inner-city youths by which disputes are often resolved through cursing and abusive talk, if not aggression or outright violence.

Ignored in this study were women athletes. The orientations of male and female athletes toward sports are dissimilar. In a study in which men and women athletes were asked to agree or disagree with popular sports slogans, nearly 50% of the men agreed that "winning isn't everything, it's the only thing" compared to 16% of the women (Eitzen & Sage, 1997). Men in America are socialized to develop a more competitive, serious, and professionalized orientation toward sports participation than women in which aggression is valued while expression and emotion are devalued (Sage, 1980).

More importantly, this study only correlated existing levels of forgiveness with athletic performance and did not include formal forgiveness training. Previous studies which had documented the positive effects of forgiveness provided participants with a comprehensive multiple-step forgiveness training program (Hebl & Enright, 1993; Mabuk, Enright, & Cardus, 1995; Freedman & Enright, 1996). This study simply related players' forgiveness of others level to athletic performance and personality variables. In addition, many of the incidents the athletes recorded as hurtful were so recent in their occurrence that the process of forgiveness as modeled by Enright would not have had an opportunity to occur (Gassin & Enright, 1995).

Because baseball teams are not large in number, small sample size proved to be a hindrance in this study. For example, to obtain a significant two-tail Pearson correlation coefficient at the .05 level, a correlation of .48 is required with only 15 participants. This value drops to .27 with 50 participants and to .19 when there are 100 participants (Fisher, 1970). In addition, it is more difficult to obtain statistical significance between differences in correlation coefficients with small samples (Ferguson, 1959). Thus, the affects of forgiving others might have seemed more pervasive if football teams, which tend to number between 50 and 100 athletes, been used instead of baseball teams, which in this study, consisted of 30 players for the Division I team and 24 players for the Division III squad.

A further limitation of this study is that forgiveness of others may be a domain-specific rather than a universal phenomenon. The data hinted at this phenomenon as the four players who chose their coach as the perpetrator of their harm were more likely to indicate forgiving him than the player who picked his teammate as perpetrator.

Finally, a response bias may have existed among the players. This could have revealed itself in a number of ways, some of which are conflicting. The players, despite

assurances to the contrary, may have believed that their individual data would be reported to their coaches. They might also have felt that they needed to answer the forgiveness inventory in such a manner as befits their status as athletes or specifically baseball players, college students, members of the middle class, blue-collar workers, or males between the ages of 18 and 24 years.

Directions for Future Research

Based upon the findings of this study and its limitations, the following directions for future research are indicated. Because of the questionable generalizability of the results of this research due to the uniqueness of the athletes studied and because only data was collected at only two colleges, this study should be replicated with college athletes' at other institutions whose populations may be more representative of the "typical" student-athlete and should include athletes who are not baseball players.

A confirmatory study relating socioeconomic background to the forgiveness process should be considered. As this study did not include women or a representative sample of ethnic minority men, the relationship of forgiveness of others to athletic performance for these groups should be investigated.

The present study correlated already existing levels of forgiveness of others with athletic performance. Future studies should consider a forgiveness intervention as well as an increase in sample size, thereby enabling the benefits of forgiving others to become more evident. As athletes' forgiveness of others may be related to the modeling of coaches, a study relating coaching style to the use and effectiveness of forgiveness is indicated. Forgiveness of others might also be a domain-specific phenomenon. By prescreening athletes as to their level of forgiveness and the person or situation with which they were struggling to forgive, this area might be systematically explored.

In addition, the forgiveness of self should be related to athletic performance. A

study by Mauger et. al. (1992) indicated a correlation of .37, accounting for only 13.7% of the variance, between scales of measuring forgiveness of self with forgiveness of others. It may be that one's forgiveness of self may be the salient aspect of forgiveness related to athletic performance. According to Webb's (1969) study, the relative importance of winning became greater in comparison to other motivational variables as athletes progressed through grades 3 to 12 and was correlated with the institutionalization of athletic activity. Thus, it appears that the ultimate test of the benefits of forgiveness would be a longitudinal study comparing the performance of athletes who receive forgiveness training beginning at the initial stages of their athletic participation and continuing through their athletic careers with athletes who do not. While such a study seems ambitious, its implications could lead to a philosophical alteration in coaching athletes and an important new tool for the sports psychologist.

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REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Forgiveness: The Synthesis of Theology and Psychology

The synthesis of theology and psychology was virtually dormant until Meehl's (1958) effort to unify the two fields. This began a sequence of books and journals attempting to integrate the disciplines. Strong's (1976) Christian counseling model appeared almost two decades later and has been greatly influential. He proposed that love and forgiveness be part of the healing process. Bergin (1980) asserted that secular models of psychology have only limited effectiveness in treating people's deepest problems. He urged counselors not to ignore their clients' theistic beliefs in the helping process. Shontz and Rosenak (1988) propose that exploration of the forgiving process is a bridge between psychology and theology, should psychology recognize the healing power of forgiveness and should theologians realize the value of psychology as an investigative avenue to truth. Crabb suggests that emotional/psychological problems are really spiritual/theological ones; that nonorganic problems really stem from a troubled soul, not a damaged self (Miller, 1995).

The concept of forgiveness is deeply woven into the Judeo-Christian traditions, indeed much of religion. Religious rituals normally include the rituals of forgiveness as healing (Kaplan, 1992). Biblical references are often cited when forgiveness is mentioned. Ephesians 4:31, suggests the problems as bitterness, anger, and malice can be "put away." Ephesians 4:32, instructs the choice of kindness and forgiveness as a way of life. Scriptural references suggesting forgiveness to others include Matthew 6:12, 15, 18:21-25; Mark 11:25, Luke 6:37, 17:4, and Colossians 3:13 (DiBlasio, 1992). The Lord's prayer is based on asking forgiveness for our sins as we are forgiving others. According to Zackrison (1992), it is grace—God's attitude toward sinners—that is the most crucial concept in Christian theology.

Although Jung did not speak directly to the issue of forgiveness, he did view confession, an integral element of forgiveness, as a highly significant and valuable means of restoring and maintaining psychological health. In Jung's system, confession is a sacral action that acts like a vessel recovering the contents of the unconscious. Confession is the bridge that spans the guilt between us and our shadow, our secret self. The goal of the cathartic method is full confession in which the patient unburdens himself of his secret and feels cleansed of all guilt and sin and is then able to feel restored and reconciled in community. Jung's view was that in psychotherapy, the psychogenic secret is confronted and accepted (Todd, 1985). Theologically, the person forgives himself or herself. The act of forgiving oneself for performing poorly has a rational foundation. The "should system" generates a kind of self-hate that leads one to self-condemnation, with no capacity for forgiveness (Kerr, 1984).

Despite the perceived connection between organized religiosity and forgiveness, the objective relationship between the two variables is very much in question. Results of research by DiBlasio and Benda (1991) showed that although therapists with stronger religious convictions had slightly more positive attitudes about forgiveness as a therapeutic issue, demonstrated slightly more openness to client religious issues in treatment, saw more connection between forgiveness and anger, and used forgiveness techniques more than clinicians with less religious identification, approximately 95 percent of the total variance in each of the theoretical factors was not explained by religiosity. It is entirely possible that forgiveness can occur without the commonly associated religiosity.

Variables Associated With Forgiveness

Forgiveness does not seem to be an easy once-and-for-all decision. Rosenak and Hamden (1992) have theorized four distinct stages of the forgiveness process: hurt,

anger, information-seeking, and resolution. If steps are skipped in the forgiveness process, it is possible that true "forgiveness" does not occur. Murphy (1982) cites that case of pseudo-forgiveness in which there is a too-ready tendency to forgive. The offended person does not allow enough time to be angry. Suppression of the anger is likely. Murphy believes this is not true forgiveness, but instead a symptom of low self-respect. In true forgiveness, the person does not ignore the anger.

Several variables are related to the ability to forgive. Rosenak and Harnden (1992) enumerated eight factors. Four are associated with the offender: (1) severity of the wrong, (2) acknowledgment of the offense by the offender, (3) intentionality, and (4) the frequency of the wrong. There are also four factors which related to the offended that facilitate or impede forgiveness: (1) deep commitment to the offender, (2) ego-strength of the offended person, (3) the decision to forgive, (4) the offended's personal history with forgiveness.

If a person has been forgiven, he or she may find it easier to forgive. Rosenak and Harnden (1992) suggest that another possible mediating factor is whether or not anticipated personal contact with the offender or the lack of personal contact will help or hinder the process. For example, if the offender is someone we see often and he or she continues to ask for forgiveness and to act repentant, this may facilitate the process. However, if we see the person frequently and he or she is cold and uncommunicative, this may impede the process. Smedes (1984) suggests that "you know that forgiveness has begun when you recall those who hurt you and feel the power to wish them well" (p. 29). The other signs Smedes posits that are internal to the offended are lack of anger, lack of pain, a feeling of peace within, the ability of enjoy life, and the ability to pray.

One of the most serious consequences of lacking forgiveness is that we become bonded to those we need to forgive, and indebted to those who need to forgive us, which in

effect gives others control over our lives. As the avenger, we are controlled, rather than in control (Hershey, 1984). Gartner (1988) states that the inability to forgive marks the operation of the primitive defense of splitting.

Forgiveness is not a concept supported by all subcultures. Anderson (1994) describes an inner city code of the streets. At the heart of the code is this issue of respect. Respect in this sense means being granted the deference one deserves. People from such a subculture become very sensitive to advances and slights, which might serve as warnings of imminent physical confrontation.

Anderson (1994) claims that among young people, whose sense of self-esteem is particularly vulnerable, there is an especially heightened concern with being disrespected. Younger children witness the disputes of older children, which are often resolved through cursing, abusive talk, and violence. Parents threaten their children if they do not defend themselves physically. Anderson concludes that "an existential link has been created between the idea of manhood and one's self-esteem, so that it has become hard to say which is primary" (p. 89).

The act of true forgiveness indicates a highly evolved morality. Using Kohlberg's (1973) stages of moral development as a guide, Spidell and Liberman (1981) maintain that it is only at the most advanced stage, Stage 7, where individuals identify with the cosmic or infinite perspective itself and value life from its standpoint, can one come to a full understanding of forgiveness.

A Testable Theory of Forgiveness

During the past decade, Enright and the Human Development Study group have begun a rather thorough investigation of forgiveness. Their particular focus has been on forgiving those who hurt us rather than on receiving forgiveness from those we hurt (Enright, Gassin, Longinovic, & Loudon, 1994).

The conceptualization of forgiveness used by Enright was inspired by North (1987). She suggested that the value of forgiveness lies in the fact that it essentially requires a recognition of the wrongdoer's responsibility for his action, and secondly that forgiveness typically involves an effort on the part of the one wronged: a conscious attempt to improve oneself in relation to the wrongdoer.

North posits that what is annulled in the act of forgiveness is not the crime itself but the distorting effect that this wrong has upon one's relations with the wrongdoer and perhaps with others. According to North, we do not overlook, disregard, or dismiss the perpetrator's actions, but instead, we endeavor to view the wrongdoer with compassion, benevolence and love while recognizing that he or she has wilfully abandoned a right to these things. A "change of heart" has occurred. North (1987) says that "the forgiving character is one which is achievable only after a hard-fought battle, and should not be confused with timidity or "moral feebleness"(p. 507).

Enright (1991) defines forgiveness as "a foreswearing of negative affect and judgment, by viewing the wrongdoer with compassion and love, in the face of a wrongdoer's considerable injustice" (p. 123). Enright (1991) further claims that "forgiveness can be an effective problem-solving strategy in releasing one's own anger and joining again in community with the other person" (p. 123).

Enright and associates (1994) have developed a process model of forgiveness. This consists of 20 cognitive processes. They include: (1) examination of psychological defenses, (2) confrontation of anger, (3) admittance of same when appropriate, (4) awareness of cathexis, (5) awareness of cognitive rehearsal of the offense, (6) insight that the injured party may be comparing self with the injurer, (7) realization that oneself may be permanently and adversely changed by the injury, (8) insight into a possibly altered "just world" view, (9) a change of heart conversion, recognizing that

old resolution strategies are not working, (10) willingness to consider forgiveness as an option, (11) commitment to forgive the offender, (12) reframing, through role taking the role of the offender and viewing the offender in context, (13) empathy toward the offender, (14) awareness of compassion, as it emerges, toward the offender, (15) acceptance/absorption of the pain, (16) finding meaning for self and others in the suffering and in the forgiveness process, (17) realization that self has needed others' forgiveness in the past, (18) insight that one is not alone, (19) realization that self may have a new purpose because of the injury, (20) awareness of decreased negative affect, and, perhaps, increased positive affect, if this begins to emerge, toward the injurer; awareness of internal emotional relief.

Empirical Studies Supporting Forgiveness

Despite the preponderance of theoretical notions, empirical studies of forgiveness are still in the embryo stage. According to McCullough and Worthington's (1994) review of forgiveness research, forgiveness receives little critical attention from many non-religious professionals and remains to be investigated. They conclude that although theorists have made far-reaching claims for the benefits of forgiveness, only a smattering of evidence, mostly drawn from studies with weak methodology support these claims. They posit that there is not enough data to conclude that forgiving has any clear psychological or psychological benefits. In response, they lobby for studies that identify relationships between forgiving and well-established measures of depression and anger, well-being, self-efficacy, and dyadic adjustment, as well as behavioral measures of reconciliation efforts.

However, in recent years, Enright's process model has been tested with positive results. Freedman & Enright (1996) found that after this intervention was used with incest survivors, they gained more than a control group in forgiveness and hope and

decreased significantly more than the control group in anxiety and depression. When the control group began they showed similar change patterns, as well as self-esteem improvement. A study with male and female college students who considered themselves love-deprived found that a group receiving intervention was significantly lower in anxiety and higher in forgiveness, positive attitudes toward the parents, hope and self-esteem than a control group not receiving such an intervention (Al-Mabuk, Enright, & Cardis, 1995). Using the same intervention with 24 elderly females over an 8-week period produced significant decreases on depression and trait anxiety (Hebl & Enright, 1993). Forgiveness has not been tested as a variable in the world of sports.

Forgiveness and Cognitive-Behavioral Theory

The idea of forgiveness seems especially important in close relationships such as marriages or even the coach/athlete dyad according to Beck's cognitive-behavioral theory. According to Beck and his associates (1979), both depression and anger stem from dysfunctional assumptions, which then feed into secondary assumptions, automatic thoughts and a resultant affect. The difference between the two is that in depression, the individual blames himself or herself for a bad outcome, while in anger blame goes instead to another person.

This pattern of thinking operates in the following way. In the case of anger, a primary assumption might be: "If I am nice to the coach and work hard, he will treat me nice." After a negative evaluation from the coach, this could lead to the athlete to the secondary assumption that "life is unfair" and to automatic thoughts such as "God tricked me" or "the coach shouldn't criticize me." The end result is the affect of anger. Beck said that a key in helping those who are depressed is to get them away from relying on unyielding absolute standards, what he calls "the shoulds" (Beck, Rush, Shaw, & Emery, 1979). It would naturally follow that if an individual lives in a world without

shoulds, that individual would judge the actions of himself, herself, or another less harshly and would have a greater capacity for forgiveness.

Beck sees cognitive errors as originating from faulty assumptions about life. These cognitive errors are habitual ways of thinking and are related to a depressed affect (Beck, Rush, Shaw, & Emery, 1979). For example, one's assumption that "if it's true in one case, it applies to any case which is even similar" leads to the cognitive error of overgeneralization. Other cognitive errors include selective abstraction, excessive responsibility (assuming personal causality), assuming temporal causality (predicting without sufficient evidence), self-references, catastrophizing, and dichotomous thinking.

Theoretically, Beck has suggested the need for forgiveness in intimate relationships. Beck (1987) points out that "our judgments outside our intimate relationships are, for the most part, more moderate and more reasonably balanced. But when we have a large investment in a relationship we seem to slip into this more primitive, all-or-nothing thinking" (p. 53). Certainly, the athlete has a large investment in the athlete/coach relationship. In writing about what couples need to do to sustain a relationship, Beck states that mates "have to be resilient, accepting, and forgiving" (p. 5).

Ellis (1962, 1970) concurs that irrational thinking leads to depression. He claims that the major types of irrational thinking that lead to extreme states of distress in relationships can be grouped in terms of demandingness, neediness, intolerance, awfulizing, and damning of oneself and others (Ellis, Sichel, Yeager, DiMattia, & DiGiuseppe, 1989). Many of these attitudes are very inconsistent with forgiveness. Ellis and his associates (1989) further propose that the most fundamental irrationalities occur when we insist that our world "should" or "must" operate in a

certain manner, and this makes us more prone to unhappiness (Ellis, 1962, 1970).

“When you dogmatically require certain features or behaviors from a partner, you almost inevitably will feel angry, cheated, or self-pitying when your requirements fail to be fulfilled,” (Ellis et al, 1989, p. 18). Thus a player who requires that his coach be supportive might become angry when his coach evaluates him harshly, while another player who simply prefers that his coach be supportive might simply become mildly frustrated.

According to Ellis (1962), blame-proneness and high self-expectations also lead to pathology. Blame-proneness is the notion that “certain people are bad, wicked, or villainous and that they should be severely blamed and punished for their villainy,” and high self-expectations involves the belief that “one should be thoroughly competent, adequate, and achieving in all possible respects if one is to consider oneself worthwhile” (pp. 63-65). Ellis (1977, p.18) said that angry people generally cling to these four irrational statements:

1. “How awful for you to have treated me so unfairly.”
2. “I can’t stand your treating me in such an irresponsible and unjust manner.”
3. “You should not, must not behave that way toward me.”
4. “Because you have acted in that manner toward me, I find you a terrible person who deserves nothing good in life, and who should get punished for treating me so.”

These four statements include an important unifying factor—the tendency to equate the person’s negative action with the whole person. Forgiving others would be inconsistent with such a line of thinking and thus could arrest a tendency to feel angry.

Sports Participation and Affect

Sport has long been an important part of the culture in the United States, with

children's sport considered by some to be a foundation for the development of sound social and personal adjustment, good self- concept, and other personality characteristics (Maul & Thomas, 1975; Pease & Anderson, 1986). For example, a study of 232 nine-year old male sports participants by Seidle and Reppucci (1993) found that children's perceptions of their athletic and scholastic competence, physical appearance, and self-worth increased from pre- to post-season.

Nevertheless, participation in sports is not an universal phenomenon. An analysis by Feigin (1994) of 22,696 tenth graders in 1,052 schools shows that athletic participation is unequally distributed across gender and socioeconomic groups. She found that males, students from higher socioeconomic levels, students attending private and smaller schools, and those with previous experience in school and private sport teams are more engaged in competitive school sports.

Sports participation can be very rewarding for children. Weiss and Duncan (1992), in their study of boys and girls ranging from 8 to 13 years old, found that children who scored high in actual and perceived physical competence and who made stable and personally controllable attributions for sport performance also scored high in actual and perceived peer acceptance and made stable attributions for successful peer interactions. Achievement in sports is associated with increased status for males. Braddock's (1980) meta-analysis of 25 studies found that for males, sports involvement is positively associated with educational and occupational aspirations and attainments. Of course, not only is sports involvement important but also of salient is the athlete's view of his or her own competencies.

A Competence Model of Depression

Important differences exist in the ways children perceive competence in boys versus girls. The data of Cole and White (1993), collected from elementary school

peer-nominations of competencies and incompetencies, revealed that physical attractiveness was associated with boys' athletic competence, whereas girls' physical attractiveness was associated with scholastic competence and good behavior.

The competence of an individual can affect the perception of that person's physical desirability. Cole (1991) found that peer nominations of competency in various domains, including athletic ability, were negatively related to depression, supporting a competency-based model of depression. Cann's (1991) study found that competent individuals were considered to be taller, more physically attractive, and more socially attractive. These findings were in agreement with earlier data obtained with middle school children (Felson, Bohrnstedt, & Campbell, 1979).

Athletic Performance and Self-Evaluation

Rating one's own athletic ability can be difficult. VanYperen (1992), using data obtained from 88 adult male soccer professionals, found that players had difficulty maintaining positive beliefs about themselves with regard to unambiguous comparison dimensions, such as their ability to bounce a ball off their head. Instead, the players considered themselves better off with respect to an ambiguous dimension, such as their soccer ability, independently of the performance of the team. His study also found that the more value players attached to a dimension, the more they considered themselves superior to others on that dimension. In a study of causal attributions by male undergraduate track athletes, it was found that when ego involvement was high, athletes were more likely to make situational attributions of failure experiences than when their ego investment was low (Luginbuhl & Bell, 1989). Participants also made more dispositional attributions for the successful performance than for the unsuccessful performance.

These results comply with the fundamental attribution error, our tendency to

underestimate the impact of situations on others, while more easily seeing its impact on ourselves (Heider, 1958). It is only when we see that the behavior occurs consistently in a specific situation, and that others also behave in the same way in the same situation, that we tend to attribute other people's behavior to dispositional causes (Kelley, 1973). Closely related to the fundamental attribution error is the self-serving bias. We have a tendency to take credit for our successes by attributing them to our talents giving them dispositional attributions, but we attribute our failures to difficult circumstances labeling failures with situational attributions (Baumgardner, Heppner, & Arkin, 1986; Van der Plight & Eiser, 1983).

Bukowski and Moore (1980), found little evidence for the existence of a self-serving bias in their study of 77 Canadian youth attending an overnight camp who participated in a camp "Olympics" made up of a variety of activities. Luck and task difficulty were not seen as particularly salient by the participants. The most common attribution for success was "trying hard" while the most common attribute for failure was "not trying hard." Grove, Hanrahan, & McInman (1991) did not replicate the results of the Bukowski study. They found that players, coaches, and spectators in a recreational basketball league attributed winning outcomes to more stable and controllable causes than losing outcomes. The outcome margin, whether the game was close or not close, had little effect upon these attributions.

There appear to be some gender differences in systems of self-evaluation among male and female athletes. In comparing athletic attributions among 117 males and 112 females in grades 3, 6, 9 and 12, Watkins and Montgomery (1989) found that older males were more likely to believe that athletic excellence was due to natural ability, whereas older females were more likely to attribute excellence to early social support and facilitation.

Self-Esteem and Overgeneralization to Feedback

A moderating variable in the enjoyment of any activity may be self-esteem prior to participation. In a study of academic performance and self-esteem, Brockner, Derr and Laing (1987) found that participants with low self-esteem performed much worse than high self-esteem participants subsequent to negative feedback; following positive feedback, the two groups performed equally on the subsequent exam. Results of a study by Kernis, Brockner and Frankel (1989) revealed that self-esteem differences in response to negative feedback are mediated by the greater tendency of low than high self-esteem persons to overgeneralize the implications of negative feedback to other aspects of their identities.

In sports, overgeneralization may be decreased through changing athletes' cognitions. Elko and Ostrow (1991) studied the impact of a Rational-Emotive education program on the competitive state anxiety levels and performance of female collegiate gymnasts who were identified as anxiety prone. Their results revealed that the Rational-Emotive education program decreased anxiety levels in five of the six gymnasts studied.

Unless alleviated, overgeneralization of failure experiences can lead to sports no longer being fun for children. The Lewthwaite and Scanlon (1989) study of 9- to 14-year old male participants in competitive wrestling yielded the following results: (1) Boys with more frequent somatic competitive trait anxiety symptoms had lower self esteem; (2) they reported being more upset if they performed poorly, and (3) they expressed a greater preference for avoiding tournament matches. The researchers found that substantial portion of the variation in the frequencies of boys' characteristic worries about significant adults was accounted for by their perceptions of parental and coach pressure, unrealistically high performance expectations, and negative evaluative

and affective responses to poor performance.

Anxiety and Athletic Performance

One result of poor performance in sports is increased anxiety. Results of a study of collegiate golfers by McAuley (1985) indicate that pre-competitive measures of state anxiety did not predict golf performance but golf performance was a significant predictor of post-round cognitive state anxiety and self-confidence. An inappropriate arousal level may detract from an athlete's motivation to participate in and enjoy movement experiences. According to Gill (1986), the most popular position to explain the arousal-performance relationship is the inverted-U hypothesis (Yerkes & Dodson, 1908). The inverted-U hypothesis posits that performance is progressively enhanced as the level of arousal continues to increase. After a certain optimal level of arousal is attained, however, subsequent performance will deteriorate with further increases in arousal like the normative curve.

It does appear that although the inverted-U hypothesis is useful in understanding anxiety among athletes, other considerations must be made. Three variables frequently identified as mediators of the arousal-performance relationship are individual differences, the level of evaluation potential available in each situation, and task characteristics (Bird & Cripe, 1986; Gill, 1986).

The importance of a sporting event also seems to affect anxiety. For example, Klavara (1974) observed that state anxiety was lower in preseason practice than prior to competition in high school and college basketball and football players, and that state anxiety increased for college basketball players from the regular season games to playoff competition. Similarly, Gill (1980) reported that state anxiety was higher for competitive volleyball players immediately prior to competition than during practice sessions. Spielberger (1989) views stress as a complex psychological process. "The

perception or appraisal of a situation or circumstance (stressor) as threatening results in the arousal of an anxiety state, which consists of feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry, and activation of the autonomic nervous system" (p. 10).

A self-fulfilling prophecy may occur between fear of negative evaluation for poor performance and actual poor performance. Williams and Jenkins (1986), in their study of African-American college basketball players, found that a significant negative correlation was found between level of competitive state anxiety and rating of performance by coaches. Krane, Williams, and Feltz (1992) reported a reciprocal relationship between performance expectations and cognitive anxiety among 100 female collegiate golfers. They also found previous performance to be the best predictor of golfing performance. Klein's (1990) meta-analysis of the effects of anxiety on sport performance, using 50 studies published between 1970 and 1988 yielded a weighted mean of all correlations of $r = -.19$, indicating that anxiety interferes with sports performance.

Anxious athletes are often athletes who are also depressed. A number of studies have indicated that it is especially difficult to discriminate between symptoms of anxiety and depression as the diagnoses for both tend to covary (Bystritsky, Stroessel, & Yager, 1993; Jolly, 1993; Jolly, Aruffo, Wherry, & Livingston, 1993; Somer & Klein, 1993; Tambs & Moum, 1993). In addition, it has been shown that measures of self-esteem correlate significantly and negatively with depression and anxiety (Rawson, 1992). Furthermore, depression and anger have also been shown to be related (Riley, Trieber, & Woods, 1989).

Anger and Athletic Performance

An emotion frequently associated with athletic participation is anger. Clinically, anger is associated with depression. Riley, Trieber and Woods (1989) found that

within a group of 36 psychiatric inpatients meeting diagnostic criteria for major depression, the severity of depression was positively associated with levels of hostility and anger experienced by these individuals.

Anger can inhibit sport performance. A study of 24 elite disabled athletes participating in the US Wheelchair Basketball Paralympics Team trials found that athletes who made the team were significantly less tense and angry than those who did not make the team (Henschen, Horvat & Roswal, 1992). Also, over time, team members became significantly less critical of themselves and less trait anxious as they came closer to the actual Paralympic competition. Leith and Prapavessis (1989) found that among elite athletes psychological preparation—rather than physical training, environmental factors or opponents—was the factor most cited for success or failure.

In a comparison between 19 varsity and 20 intramural male football players, Greene, Sears and Clark (1993) found that while varsity athletes did not differ significantly in trait-anger predisposition from intramural athletes, the varsity athletes did report less anger-in, anger-out, and anger-control than other college athletes. This lower report of expression of anger by varsity athletes is associated with less total experience of anger, including less of a tendency to control anger. The findings suggest that perhaps those athletes who do not generally act on their anger when they experience it are more likely to excel in sports. This could be due to an improved ability to focus in sports, putting distractions out of their minds.

According to basketball coach Phil Jackson, “to excel, you need to act with a clear mind” (Jackson & Delehanty, 1995, p. 115). He has described the problems of angry players, “That summer in Montana, I realized that anger was the Bulls real enemy, not the Detroit Pistons. Anger was the restless demon that seized the group mind and kept the players from being fully awake” (Jackson & Delehanty, 1995, p. 131).

Dember and Brooks (1989) found a significant relationship between measures of religious commitment and optimism. While data from a study by Comunian (1994) did not achieve significance, it suggested that optimism is opposite in disposition to anger, including anger control. Anger was found to be related in a positive manner to a measure of pessimism.

Cognitive appraisal is a key to understanding the development of anger. One theory for explaining anger is the Feshbach's (1986) "stimulus-linked" model. This model posits that anger results from frustration produced by mediating cognitive processes. Following exposure to a noxious event, this model suggests that anger is more likely, given cognitive perspectives such as: (1) failing to accept unfulfilled expectations (i.e., being angry about rejection from graduate school), (2) perceived intention of a provoker to do harm (i.e., "he meant to trip me!"), (3) viewing provocation as unjustified (i.e., viewing job rejection as due to not having "connections"), and (4) perceiving a provocation as a direct attack on self-esteem such as an insult or as evidence of one's shortcomings. Carter and Minirth (1993) argue that in many cases anger is ignited when the person perceives rejection or invalidation.

Empirical evidence supports a cognitive appraisal view of anger. In a correlational study of college students, Mizes, Morgan and Buder (1990) examined the relationship between self-report measures of general cognitive distortion, assertion-specific cognitive distortion, assertion, and anger difficulties. General cognitive distortion, through not assertion or assertion-related cognition, was found to be related to anger. On the Rational Behavior Inventory (RBI; Shorkey & Whiteman, 1977), Frustration, Guilt, Blame Proneness, Problem Avoidance, Negative Evaluation, Projected Misfortune, and Self-Control subscales were significantly correlated with high scores on the Novaco Provocation Inventory (NPI, Novaco, 1975). For the

Irrational Beliefs Test (IBT, Jones, 1968), Demand for Approval, High Self-Expectations, Blame Proneness, Anxious Overconcern, Dependency, and Helplessness were significantly correlated with the NPI. The results suggest that high-anger individuals tend to be those who base their self-esteem on high performance standards, or who see emotions as not controllable, and who feel they must rely on others.

According to Carter and Minirth (1993), five general choices can be made when anger arises: (1) suppression, (2) open aggression, (3) passive aggression, (4) assertiveness, or (5) dropping it. Within the category of "dropping it", they prescribe the act of forgiveness. For example, in the domain of marital relationships, often clients may need to release anger and resentment through forgiveness before constructive resolution of conflict and mending of fragmented relationships can commence (DiBlasio, 1992). In marital therapy, mutual forgiveness of the other's offenses can be the focal point of a new beginning for spouses (Worthington & DiBlasio, 1990). Regarding athletic performances, Thompson (1995), in his list of ways coaches can increase self-esteem in their players, suggests forgiving as one method.

Depression and Athletic Performance

Anger is also an important component of depression. Riley, Treiber, & Woods (1989) examined the relationship between depression and anger using a normal sample of 120 parents of elementary school children, 36 psychiatric inpatients meeting Research Diagnostic Criteria for major depressive episode, and 54 hospitalized veterans meeting Diagnostic Interview Schedule criteria for posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD). The depressed group reported greater levels of hostility and anger experience than the normal group but less than the PTSD group. Within the depressed group, severity of depression was positively associated with levels of hostility and anger experience but was not related to measures of anger expression and was only partially

related to anger suppression.

Seligman offers indirect support to the idea that uncontrollable anxiety leads to depression. According to Seligman (1975), a state of learned helplessness or reactive depression is produced by a learning history during which the individual comes to believe that responding is unrelated to eliminating aversive stimuli or attaining positive goals. This belief, Seligman postulates, is engendered by defeat and failure as well as by uncontrollable situations. The typical depressed client has found that the acts that were associated with anxiety reduction in his or her past are now futile and thus lapses into the passivity of depression.

Seligman's theory predicts that a person suffering from learned helplessness will lose interest in their usual activities, show psychomotor retardation and lost energy, not think well, have difficulties remaining attentive, and blame their failure to solve problems on their own lack of ability and worthlessness. According to Seligman (1991), learned helplessness is at the core of defeat and failure. Seligman also believes that learned helplessness can be cured by: (1) teaching someone that his or her actions now work, or (2) teaching someone to think differently about what caused him or her to fail. Seligman states it could even be prevented if, before the experience with helplessness occurred, the person learned his or her actions made a difference (p. 67). The earlier in life such mastery was learned, the more effective the immunization against helplessness.

Key to avoiding learned helplessness is cognitive restructuring. Central to cognitive restructuring is self-talk. According to Stoop (1996), appropriate self-talk can be an effective weapon against depression, anger, guilt, worry, and anxiety. Positive self-talk is a problem area for individuals suffering from depression. Beck (1971) posits that depression involves a thinking disorder that causes the individual to

inaccurately appraise reality.

The distinguishing characteristic of the depressive's cognitions are that they show a systematic bias against themselves. Depressives overgeneralize by drawing negative conclusions about their worth on the basis of a single incidence. They exaggerate the significance of a traumatic event by labeling all negative happenings as catastrophes, and they unrealistically downgrade their work, viewing themselves as inferior in areas of particular importance to them (Beck, 1963).

Kernis, Brockner, & Frankel (1989) found that self-esteem interacted with college students' performance feedback on exams to influence affective, motivational, and attributional reactions, thus supporting Beck's (1963) theory. Beck's (1963) view was further supported by a study done by Pace and Dixon (1993), who found that 6-8 sessions of Beck's cognitive therapy on mildly and moderately depressed college students' yielded a reduction in depressive symptoms and a positive change in self-schemata among the study's participants.

Successful athletes comprehend their failures differently than others. Using quotes from newspapers, Seligman (1991) examined causal statements for team losses in both professional baseball and professional basketball. He found that teams whose players and coaches explained losses with very temporary, specific and external reasons tended to win more often following defeat than teams whose players and coaches explained losses with completely permanent, pervasive, and personalized reasons. By forgiving oneself and others, one's attributions would not be those consistent with depression or future poor performance in sports.

The "Iceberg Profile" and Athletic Performance

A comparison of elite and non-elite athletes showed several variables capable of predicting differential performance. Mahoney, Gabriel and Perkins (1987)

administered a 51-item questionnaire to a national sample of 713 male and female athletes from 23 sports. The athlete sample comprised 126 competitors, 141 preelite athletes, and 446 nonelite collegiate athletes. Relative to their nonelite collegiate peers, the elite athletes in the study tended to report: (1) being more balanced and moderate in their experiences of worry and performance anxiety; (2) being able to efficiently deploy their concentration before and during competition; (3) experiencing stronger and more stable self-confidence; (4) relying more on internally focused and kinesthetic imagery than on third-person visual forms of mental preparation; and (5) investing more motivation and personal meaning in doing well in their sport. In addition, their data suggested that individual sport athletes report more problems with performance anxiety and self-confidence, and their level of team involvement is less than reported by athletes from team sports.

A perfect psychological profile for an athlete may exist. Morgan and his associates (Morgan, 1978 ; Morgan & Johnson, 1976; Morgan & Pollack, 1977) conducted a series of studies using McNair, Lorr and Droppleman's (1971) Profile of Mood States (POMS) instrument with potential Olympic athletes. Results for successful athletes indicated an "Iceberg Profile, higher in vigor but lower in tension, depression, anger, fatigue and confusion than athletes not selected for participation in the Olympics. Specifically, Friend and LeUnes (1990) identified anger and vigor as significant variables in regards to baseball performance. In contrast to this research, other investigators have found that the POMS does not differentiate between elite and nonelite athletes (Craighead, Privette, Vallianos, & Byrkit, 1986; Daiss, LeUnes, & Nation, 1986; Frazier, 1988).

Still a greater tendency exists for an "Iceberg Profile" to be associated with successful performances. Terry (1993) showed that while 73.8% of successful

performances were associated with preperformance icebergs, 54.1% of unsuccessful performances were associated with preperformance icebergs. Terry (1995) further claims that it has been his experience in mood profiling with hundreds of international performers that almost all performed best when their profile was iceberg shaped. Superior performance was almost always associated with high vigor scores, occasionally with above average levels of tension or anger, but rarely with above average depression, fatigue or confusion.

The attributes of the Iceberg Profile of the POMS relate positively to the attributes of happiness and adjustment as generally understood. Hong and Giannakopoulos (1994) administered a self-report questionnaire to over 1,700 male and female Australians to determine the relationship of satisfaction with life to personality characteristics. The strongest correlation was between life satisfaction and self-esteem. Depression, trait anger, locus of control, and religiosity were also found to be significant variables related to one's satisfaction with life.

The Influence of Coaches on Athletes' Cognitions

An important external influence on an athlete's cognitions is the athlete's coach. "The belief that one is worthy comes from feeling appreciated and valued by important adults in a child's life. For a child who loves sports, the coach is an important adult" (Thompson, 1995, p. 88). To some degree, coaches become substitute fathers and mothers for the athletes they coach. Medwechuk and Crossman (1994) examined whether male and female swimmers exhibited gender biases toward male and female coaches. They found that both groups preferred to swim for same-sex coaches. They rated same sex coaches as more motivating and anticipated greater success if coached by someone of the same gender.

Other research by Messner (1987a, 1987b) concludes that most boys are

weeded out of competitive sports by the age of 9 or 10. Those who did experience some early success received more recognition from adult males such as fathers and older brothers and held a higher status among their peers. It was only after they learned that they would get recognition from others for being a good athlete that performance and winning became extremely important. For some, this created pressures that served to lessen or eliminated the fun of athletic competition. With such a heavy emphasis on a goal of winning, "the feeling that success in athletics is a sine quo non of manhood is learned early" (Fasteau, 1974, p. 104.) The goal of winning is equated with proving one's manhood.

A coach can provide a fatherly approval to an athlete's aggressive characteristics. After a well-played game by a player, University of Oklahoma basketball coach Kelvin Sampson said: "If I were Jason's dad--and I almost feel like I am in a way--my buttons would be popping"(Hersom, 1996, p. 25). Coach Sampson went on to evaluate the player's masculinity, "In Jason's makeup, he's kind of a softie by nature. He's a good kid but to maximize his abilities he's got to play hard and compete, and Jason's learning to do that" (Hersom, 1996, p. 30).

Coaches exert a great deal of influence over the athletes' lives. In addition to teaching the basic rules of the game itself, coaches impose training rules to achieve conformity and control (Sabo & Panepinto, 1990). One tactic used to induce conformity is ridicule. Athletes might be "chewed out" during practices, on the sidelines at games, or during team reviews of game film. Crosset (1986) reports that ridicule is often tinged by homophobia and misogyny.

Coaches are extremely important in developing self-image. Traditionally, students who have participated in sports continue in a developing relationship with the same coach for more than one year and often more than two or three (Jerzierski,

1994). A study by Hines and Groves (1989) examined self-esteem in relation to competition in a recreational basketball program for 201 youth. Their findings showed a significant relationship between the coach's assessment of ability, will to win, and the self-degradation component of self-esteem as measured by the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (1967, 1969). Basketball self-esteem was related to the coach's assessment of ability, will to win, and participation for skill and energy. Skill and ability were positively related, and will to win and energy were negatively related. In concurrence with the Hines and Groves study, results of research by Ommundsen and Vaglum (1991) revealed that high perceived soccer competence and parents' and coaches' positive emotional involvement were individually predictive of enjoyment in soccer.

Coaches tend to reinforce individuals who participate differentially according to skill. A coach's perception of an athlete's abilities changes the nature and amount of feedback given from the coach to that athlete. In a study by Sinclair and Vealey (1989), the coaches of three elite female hockey teams were asked to rank their athletes at pre-, mid-, and post-season to determine high and low expectancy. They found that high expectancy athletes received more feedback from coaches than low expectancy athletes. Also, a trend was found with regard to type of communications indicating that high expectancy athletes received more specific and evaluative feedback than low expectancy athletes. Gains in self-confidence were associated with immediate feedback provided by coaches.

In a study by Smoll, Smith, Barnett and Everett (1993), the impact of coaching behavior on player's self-enhancement processes was examined. Eight baseball coaches attended a preseason workshop designed to increase their supportiveness and instructional effectiveness. Behavioral guidelines for the coaches emphasizing reinforcement (for effort as well as good performance), mistake-contingent

encouragement, corrective instruction (given in an encouraging and supportive fashion) and technical instruction (spontaneous instruction in the techniques and strategies of the sport) were presented and modeled. The eight trained coaches were then compared with a control group of 10 coaches. Coaches who had been trained were evaluated more positively by their players, their players had more fun, and their teams exhibited a higher level of attraction among players, despite the fact that their teams did not differ from controls in won-lost records.

Often a coach's goals differ from those of his or her players. In a study of youth football coaches, Strong (1992) found that although youth football coaches rated sportsmanship and fun as primary goals, these goals were neither pursued nor met. Winning, although rated least important by these coaches, was the overriding concern of the team. A study of competitive orientation (McElroy & Kirkendall, 1980) among youth sport participants, indicated that personal performance, to play as well as one can rather than winning, was most important to both male and females.

The Influence of Coaching on Athletic Performance

A coach's behavior can have direct implications on a player's performance. Garland and Barry (1990) examined whether an athlete's personality and a coach's perceived leader behaviors were predictive of performances in collegiate football. They found the following coaching behaviors related to higher player performance: (1) offering more training and instruction, (2) having a more democratic decision style, (3) being more socially supportive, and (4) offering more positive feedback.

In agreement with this finding were results from a study of high school football players by Westre and Weiss (1991). They found a significant relationship between coaching behaviors and group cohesion. Coaches who were perceived as engaging in higher levels of social support, training and instruction, positive feedback, and a

democratic style were associated with higher levels of task cohesion within their team. In addition, it was found that perceptions of team and individual success, as well as starter/nonstarter playing status were also related to perceptions of coaching behavior and/or team cohesion.

A Cognitive-Behavioral Model of Coaching

Coaches are often surprised at how they are perceived. Smith, Smoll, and Curtis (1978), in a study of Little League baseball coaches, found that coaches actually had little awareness of how frequently they behaved in certain ways. Coaches felt they were nonpunitive and administered positive reinforcement and encouragement frequently, but players' ratings of their coach suggested otherwise.

Smoll and Smith (1989) posit a model concerning leadership behaviors in sports. According to their model, the coach behaves in a certain way; the athletes perceive and recall these behaviors; and based on this perception and recall, the athletes have an evaluative reaction to the coach's behavior. The model also includes situational factors, coach, and athlete individual-difference variables, and the coach's perception of athletes' attitudes. Thus, the ultimate effectiveness of coaching behaviors is a result of many complex interactions of the mediating variables.

Support for the cognitive-behavioral model has come from several studies. In research by Kenow and Williams (1992), the coaching behaviors of a male head coach of a collegiate women's basketball team were examined. The data supported competitive trait anxiety as an individual-difference variable that mediates athletes' perception and evaluation of coaching behaviors. Athletes who scored high in trait anxiety and state cognitive anxiety and low in state self-confidence, and athletes who perceived the coach as high in state cognitive anxiety evaluated coaching behavior more negatively.

Smith and Smoll (1990) found that children who were low in self-esteem

responded most positively to coaches who were reinforcing and encouraging and most negatively to coaches who were low on this supportiveness dimension. Attraction responses of moderate- and high- self-esteem children were relatively unaffected by these variations in adult leader behaviors. In addition, Ryska (1993) found athletes high in social desirability reported significantly greater coach support than athletes low in social desirability. In a related study with nonathletic undergraduate dyads, Hoyle, Insko, and Moniz (1992) found that a crossover pattern emerged due to greater attraction following success feedback among participants with low self-esteem and greater attraction following failure feedback among participants with high self-esteem. In summary, although certain coaching behaviors may be favored by the majority of players, individual-difference variables have much to do with interpretation of a coach's behavior.

Sports and Forgiveness

Achievement in athletics is a high-status variable for young males and is associated with popularity and perceived physical attractiveness by peers (Cole & White, 1993). According to a competency based model of depression, lack of competence in multiple areas important to one, such as athletic performance, can lead to depression (Cole, 1991). Forgiveness appears to have great healing qualities as embracing it tends to lead to an increase in states leading to positive emotional adjustment: reduction in depression, reduction in anxiety, increase in self-esteem (Freedman & Enright, 1996; Al-Makbuk, Enright, & Cardis, 1995, Hebl & Enright, 1993). Such states are related to successful sports performance (Morgan, 1978).

The behavior of coaches is key both to the athlete's performance (Garland & Barry, 1990) and also the athlete's evaluation of himself (Hines & Groves, 1989). The relationship between athlete and coach is often intimate and the coach is often an

important role model for the athlete. Coaches treat athletes differentially according to ability (Sinclair & Vealey, 1989). Athletes process their coaches evaluations differently as well, often depending upon the athletes' self-esteem (Smith & Smoll, 1990). Athletes low in self-esteem are more likely to overgeneralized negative feedback as are athletes high in trait anxiety and state cognitive anxiety and those low in self-confidence (Kenow & Williams, 1992). Beck (1987) has pointed out that in intimate relationships, cognitive distortions such as all-or-nothing thinking are more probable.

The development of a forgiving attitude toward others has been associated with increases in self-esteem (Al-Makbuk, Enright & Cardis, 1995). This would enable an athlete to cognitively process a coach's criticism in a more positive light becoming less likely to become depressed. Anger has been shown to be an important component of depression (Riley, Trieber, & Woods, 1989). The development of a forgiving attitude toward others would also enable the athlete to concentrate greater upon the athletic task at hand, rather than to be distracted by anger, an emotion which has been shown to cause a decrement in sports performance (Friend & LeUnes, 1990).

Evaluating an athlete's own performance is difficult and seems to dependent upon the type of measurement required of an athlete. Athletes are more likely to rate themselves superior to others in athletic dimensions they view as most important (VanYperen, 1992). Other research with nonathletes has shown that men who show self-enhancement tendencies and view themselves in a more positive light than others do on personality characteristics are seen as less emotionally healthy by others than those who did not show self-enhancement tendencies (Colvin, Block, & Funder, 1995). Because forgiveness is related to the reduction of emotional distress, it could be expected that high forgiveness athletes would be less likely to show self-enhancement tendencies,

but instead view themselves in a more realistic case. In any case, sports participation can be a key contributor to the emotional health of a youth.

Summary

While forgiveness may be an interconnecting element between theology and psychology, it is a construct which, to a great degree, remains to be investigated empirically. Specifically, its relationship to sports performance and the emotions surrounding athletic achievement have yet to be explored. Also, while the benefits of forgiveness as a healing element have been explored, its ability to prevent negative emotional states has not been investigated.

Entering any athletic endeavor, it could be expected that athletes would vary in their personal philosophy as to the degree that they forgive others. It is suggested in this paper that a developed sense of forgiveness of others may serve as an immunizing element to frustrations encountered by males in the athletic process, prohibiting the development of cognitive distortions that might ultimately result in anxiety, depression, anger and loss of self esteem in the face of athletic failure as perceived by the athlete's coach or by the athlete. In addition, forgiveness may lead a male athlete to continue performing at his best level, regardless of past performance.

MATERIALS

The following materials are included in this section: (1) Coach's Informed Consent Form, (2) Coach's Questionnaire, (3) Athlete's Informed Consent Form, (4) Player's Questionnaire, and (5) Debriefing Sheet. The Profile of Mood States (McNair, Lorr, & Droppleman, 1992), and the Enright Forgiveness Inventory (Subkoviak, Enright, Wu, Gassin, Freedman, Olson, & Sarinopoulos, 1995) were not included due to copyright regulations.

COACH'S INFORMED CONSENT FORM

University of Oklahoma

Title of Project: Athletics Survey

Investigator: Greg Thomas, Counseling Psychology
Doctoral Student (757) 872-4711

Faculty Sponsor: Cal Stoltenberg, Ph.D., Educational
Psychology Department (405) 325-5974

This is to certify that I, _____,
hereby agree to participate as a volunteer in a scientific study as a part of an authorized
research program of the University of Oklahoma under the supervision of Cal D.
Stoltenberg, Faculty Sponsor.

The purpose of this research is to gain a better understanding of personality factors
associated with successful athletic performance.

You, as a coach, will be requested to evaluate each of your player's performances on two
occasions.

As a coach, there should be no risks involved with participating in this study.

None of the responses of any athlete in this study will be shown to any other athlete or
member of the coaching staff and none of the responses of any coach will be shown to any
athlete or member of the coaching staff.

I understand that I am free to refuse to participate in any procedure or to refuse to
answer any questions at any time without prejudice to me. I understand that I am free to
withdraw my consent and withdraw from the research at any time without prejudice to
me.

I understand that by agreeing to participate in this research and signing this form I do
not waive any of my legal rights.

I understand that the research investigators named above will answer any of my
questions relating to the research procedures at any time.

Participant Signature

Date

COACH'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Coach's Name _____

Date _____

For each player, please answer questions #1 and #2 on the following pages.

Please answer them today as I need your answers the same day as I get the answers from the players. I need the answers to be from you rather than an assistant coach.

If you do not finish during this meeting, please finish sometime later today and mail your answers to me. I have enclosed a self-addressed stamped envelope for this purpose.

Question #1

On a scale of 1-5, HOW WELL DO YOU THINK HE IS PLAYING IN COMPARISON TO OTHERS ON THE TEAM?

A score of "1" means "much worse" while a score of "5" means "much better."

<u>Name of Player</u>	<u>Score</u>
-----------------------	--------------

Player #1

Player #2

Etc.

Question #2

On a scale of 1-5, HOW WELL DO YOU THINK HE IS PLAYING IN COMPARISON WITH YOUR EXPECTATIONS FOR THE PLAYER?

A score of "1" means "much worse" while a score of "5" means "much better."

<u>Name of Player</u>	<u>Score</u>
-----------------------	--------------

Player #1

Player #2

Etc.

ATHLETE'S INFORMED CONSENT FORM

University of Oklahoma

Title of Project: Athletics Survey

Investigator: Greg Thomas, Counseling Psychology
Doctoral Student (757) 872-4711

Faculty Sponsor: Cal Stoltenberg, Ph.D., Educational
Psychology Department (405) 325-5974

This is to certify that I, _____, hereby agree to participate as a volunteer in a scientific study as a part of an authorized research program of the University of Oklahoma under the supervision of Cal D. Stoltenberg, Faculty Sponsor.

The purpose of this research is to gain a better understanding of personality factors associated with successful athletic performance.

For example, you may be asked to rate yourself on certain characteristics such as "restlessness" or "kindness."

A risk of being a participant in this study is that you may be asked to recall an emotionally painful experience.

None of the responses of any athlete in this study will be shown to any other athlete or member of the coaching staff and none of the responses of any coach will be shown to any athlete or member of the coaching staff.

I understand that I am free to refuse to participate in any procedure or to refuse to answer any questions at any time without prejudice to me. I understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and withdraw from the research at any time without prejudice to me.

I understand that by agreeing to participate in this research and signing this form that I do not waive any of my legal rights.

I understand that the research investigators named above will answer any of my questions relating to the research procedures at any time.

Participant Signature

Date

PLAYER'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Player's Name _____

Date _____

Age _____

Race _____

Please write if you are a "Starter" or "Non-Starter" _____

Classification (freshman, soph., jr., or sr.) _____

Please answer the following four questions:

Question #1

On a scale of 1-5, HOW WELL DO YOU THINK YOU ARE PLAYING IN COMPARISON TO OTHERS ON THE TEAM? _____

A score of "1" means "much worse" while a score of "5" means "much better."

Question #2

On a scale of 1-5, HOW WELL DO YOU THINK ARE PLAYING IN COMPARISON TO YOUR OWN EXPECTATIONS? _____

A score of "1" means "much worse" while a score of "5" means "much better."

Question #3

On a scale of 1-5, HOW WELL DOES THE HEAD COACH THINK YOU ARE PLAYING?

A score of "1" means "very poorly" while a score of "5" means "very well."

Question #4

On a scale of 1-5, HOW FAIRLY IS THE HEAD COACH TREATING YOU? _____

A score of "1" means "very unfairly" while a score of "5" means "very fairly."

DEBRIEFING SHEET

The study in which you participated was to explore the affects of forgiveness of others on both athletic performance and mood state.

It was hypothesized that those athletes who are able to forgive others would be less distracted by anger, depression, anxiety, and low self-esteem, and thus would be able to perform better at their sports.

It was also hypothesized that athletes who have forgiven others would be less encumbered by cognitive distortions and thus would be more likely to rate their athletic performance more similar to their coach's rating of their athletic performance than those athletes who have difficulty forgiving others.

If you have any questions regarding the study or any of the instruments used in the study, you may contact the experimenter, Greg Thomas at (757) 872-4711 or Dr. Cal Stoltzenberg at (405) 325-5974.

Thank you for your cooperation!

Table 1

Correlations of the Subscales of the EFI

	TF	PA	NA	PB	NB	PC	NC
TF	...	.93	.91	.96	.97	.97	.94
PA	...	...	.87	.90	.85	.86	.80
NA	...	...	...	.83	.84	.83	.81
PB	...	...	...	...	.93	.93	.87
NB	...	...	...	...	...	.94	.93
PC	...	...	...	...	...	...	.94
NC	..	...	...	...	...	...	...

n = 96

TF--Total Forgiveness Score

PA--Positive Affect

NA--Absence of Positive Affect

PB--Positive Behavior

NB--Absence of Positive Behavior

PC--Positive Cognition

NC--Absence of Positive Cognition

Table 2

Correlations of Preseason Forgiveness of Others with Athletic Performance Variables

	Division I		Division III		<u>z-value</u>
	<u>n</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>r</u>	
Player comparing play to teammates	30	.15	19	-.12	.86
Player comparing play to expectations	30	.33	19	-.20	1.68
Coach comparing player to teammates	30	.27	20	-.15	1.36
Coach comparing player to expectations	30	.42*	20	-.05	1.49

*p<.05

**p<.01

Table 3

Correlations of Midseason Forgiveness of Others with Athletic Performance Variables

	Division I		Division III		
	<u>n</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>z-value</u>
Player comparing play to teammates	28	.03	17	-.62**	1.95
Player comparing play to expectations	28	-.10	17	-.42	.96
Coach comparing player to teammates	28	.18	18	-.03	.64
Coach comparing player to expectations	28	.17	18	-.04	.64

*p<.05

**p<.01

Table 4: Part One

Comparison of Division I and Division III Players' Forgiveness of Others and Athletic Performance Variables

<u>Variable</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t-value</u>
Preseason Total Forgiveness				
Division I	30	223.08	55.41	1.57
Division III	20	190.50	91.98	
Preseason PR #1				
Division I	30	3.53	0.73	-.70
Division III	19	3.68	0.75	
Preseason PR #2				
Division I	30	3.05	0.97	1.03
Division III	19	2.76	0.92	
Preseason PR #3				
Division I	30	3.20	0.93	-.53
Division III	18	3.33	0.69	
Preseason PR #4				
Division I	30	4.02	1.26	-.54
Division III	19	4.21	1.40	
Preseason CR #1				
Division I	30	3.43	0.90	1.20
Division III	24	3.08	1.25	
Preseason CR #2				
Division I	30	3.37	0.85	2.52*
Division III	24	2.75	0.94	
Preseason Total Forgiveness				
Division I	28	217.18	65.65	.80
Division III	18	197.61	101.06	

 *p<.05 **p<.01

PR#1--The players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to others on the team?"

PR#2--The players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to your own expectations?"

PR#3--The players' response to: "How well does the head coach think you are playing?"

PR#4--The players' response to: "How fairly is the head coach treating you?"

CR#1--The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to others on the team?"

CR#2--The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to your (the head coach) expectations for the player?"

Table 4: Part Two

Comparison of Division I and Division III Players on Forgiveness of Others and Athletic Performance Variables

<u>Variable</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t-value</u>
Midseason PR #1				
Division I	28	3.27	0.70	1.40
Division III	18	2.97	0.70	
Midseason PR #2				
Division I	28	2.50	0.92	.53
Division III	18	2.36	0.80	
Midseason PR #3				
Division I	28	2.89	0.96	.92
Division III	18	2.64	0.84	
Midseason PR #4				
Division I	28	3.70	0.99	.76
Division III	18	3.44	1.25	
Midseason CR #1				
Division I	30	3.17	0.99	.24
Division III	24	2.79	1.35	
Midseason CR #2				
Division I	30	3.10	0.85	.27
Division III	24	2.83	0.92	

 *p<.05 **p<.01

PR#1—The players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to others on the team?"

PR#2—The players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to your own expectations?"

PR#3--The players' response to: "How well does the head coach think you are playing?"

PR#4--The players' response to: "How fairly is the head coach treating you?"

CR#1--The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to others on the team?"

CR#2--The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to your (the head coach) expectations for the player?"

Table 5

Comparison of Preseason and Midseason Forgiveness of Others and Athletic Performance Variables for Division I Players

<u>Variable</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t-value</u>
Total Forgiveness				
Preseason	30	223.08	55.41	.68
Midseason	28	217.18	65.65	
Players' Rating #1				
Preseason	30	3.53	0.73	2.14*
Midseason	28	3.27	0.85	
Players' Rating #2				
Preseason	30	3.05	0.97	3.03**
Midseason	28	2.50	0.92	
Players' Rating #3				
Preseason	30	3.20	0.93	1.54
Midseason	28	2.64	0.84	
Players' Rating #4				
Preseason	30	4.02	1.26	1.41
Midseason	28	4.21	0.70	
Coach's Rating #1				
Preseason	30	3.43	0.90	1.61
Midseason	30	3.17	1.35	
Coach's Rating #2				
Preseason	30	3.37	0.85	1.86
Midseason	30	3.10	0.85	

*p<.05

**p<.01

Players' Rating#1--The players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to others on the team?"

Players' Rating#2--The players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to your own expectations?"

Players' Rating#3--The players' response to: "How well does the head coach think you are playing?"

Players' Rating#4--The players' response to: "How fairly is the head coach treating you?"

Coach's Rating#1--The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to others on the team?"

Coach's Rating#2--The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to your (the head coach) expectations for the player?"

Table 6

Comparison of Preseason and Midseason Forgiveness of Others and Athletic Performance Variables For Division III Players

<u>Variable</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t-value</u>
Total Forgiveness				
Preseason	20	190.50	91.98	-.14
Midseason	18	217.18	65.65	
Players' Rating #1				
Preseason	19	3.68	0.75	3.02**
Midseason	18	2.97	0.70	
Players' Rating #2				
Preseason	19	2.76	0.92	.93
Midseason	18	2.36	0.80	
Players' Rating #3				
Preseason	18	3.33	0.69	2.77**
Midseason	18	2.64	0.84	
Players' Rating #4				
Preseason	19	4.21	1.40	3.55**
Midseason	18	3.44	1.25	
Coach's Rating #1				
Preseason	24	3.08	1.25	1.66
Midseason	24	2.79	1.35	
Coach's Rating #2				
Preseason	24	2.75	0.94	-.42
Midseason	24	32.83	0.92	

*p<.05

**p<.01

Players' Rating#1—The players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to others on the team?"

Players' Rating#2--The players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to your own expectations?"

Players' Rating#3--The players' response to: "How well does the head coach think you are playing?"

Players' Rating#4--The players' response to: "How fairly is the head coach treating you?"

Coach's Rating#1--The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to others on the team?"

Coach's Rating#2--The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to your (the head coach) expectations for the player?"

Table 7

Comparison of Starters' and Nonstarters' Forgiveness of Others

<u>Variable</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t-value</u>
Preseason Division I				
Starters	15	221.27	48.89	-.18
Nonstarters	15	224.90	62.94	
Midseason Division I				
Starters	15	227.47	60.22	.89
Nonstarters	13	205.31	71.98	
Preseason Combined Schools				
Starters	31	204.69	79.62	-.77
Nonstarters	18	221.69	62.61	
Midseason Combined Schools				
Starters	26	217.54	83.68	.77
Nonstarters	20	199.10	77.90	

*p<.05	**p<.01			

Table 8

Correlations of Preseason Forgiveness of Others Scores with Change Scores of Athletic Performance Variables

<u>Variable</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>r</u>
Division I Players' Rating #1	28	-.14
Division III Players' Rating #1	15	-.16
Division I Players' Rating #2	28	-.21
Division III Players' Rating #2	15	.05
Division I Players' Rating #3	28	-.05
Division III Players' Rating #3	14	.10
Division I Players' Rating #4	28	-.18
Division III Players' Rating #4	15	-.30
Division I Coach's Rating #1	29	-.03
Division III Coach's Rating #1	20	.09
Division I Coach's Rating #2	30	-.15
Division III Players' Rating #2	20	.07

*p<.05	**p<.01	

Table 9

Partial Correlations of Preseason Forgiveness of Others Scores with Midseason Athletic Performance Variables

<u>Variable</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>r</u>
Division I Players' Rating #1	28	-.08
Division III Players' Rating #1	15	-.37
Division I Players' Rating #2	28	.03
Division III Players' Rating #2	15	-.21
Division I Players' Rating #3	28	.21
Division III Players' Rating #3	14	-.21
Division I Players' Rating #4	28	-.03
Division III Players' Rating #4	15	-.28
Division I Coach's Rating #1	30	-.09
Division III Coach's Rating #1	20	.05
Division I Coach's Rating #2	30	-.01
Division III Players' Rating #2	20	-.06

*p<.05	**p<.01	

Table 10: Part One

Correlations of Forgiveness of Others with Mood Variables

	<u>I</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>A</u>
Division I Preseason (n = 30)	-.13	-.12	.05	-.15
Division I Midseason (n = 30)	-.24	.02	.02	.00
Division III Preseason (n = 20)	-.57**	-.36	-.58**	-.56**
Division III Midseason (n = 18)	-.30	-.39	-.49*	-.47

*p<.05

**p<.01

T--Tension-Anxiety

C--Confusion-Bewilderment

D--Depression-Dejection

A--Anger-Hostility

Table 10: Part Two

Correlations of Forgiveness of Others with Mood Variables

	<u>F</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>TMD</u>
Division I Preseason (n = 30)	.04	.20	-.10
Division I Midseason (n = 30)	.06	.13	-.05
Division III Preseason (n = 20)	.10	-.12	-.20
Division III Midseason (n = 18)	-.08	.23	-.41

*p<.05

**p<.01

F--Fatigue-Inertia V--Vigor-Activity

TMD--Total Mood Disturbance

Table 11: Part One

Correlations of Mood Variables with Athletic Performance Variables

	<u>I</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>A</u>
Division I Preseason PR#1 (n=30)	-.51 **	-.08	-.21	-.11
Division I Midseason PR#1 (n=28)	.14	-.49 **	.46*	-.32
Division III Preseason PR#1 (n=19)	.02	-.35	-.32	.13
Division III Midseason PR#1 (n=18)	.15	.15	.30	.29
Division I Preseason PR#2 (n=30)	-.01	.09	.11	.20
Division I Midseason PR#2 (n=28)	-.22	-.36	-.27	-.21
Division III Preseason PR#2 (n=19)	.25	-.11	-.20	.19
Division III Midseason PR#2 (n=18)	-.10	-.24	-.16	-.12
Division I Preseason PR#1 (n=30)	-.45 *	-.10	-.31	-.07
Division I Midseason PR#1 (n=28)	-.16	-.17	-.32	-.06
Division III Preseason PR#1 (n=20)	-.01	-.35	-.22	.12
Division III Midseason PR#1 (n=19)	-.13	.02	.06	.01
Division I Preseason PR#1 (n=30)	-.18	.06	-.17	.05
Division I Midseason PR#1 (n=28)	.06	.04	-.25	.08
Division III Preseason PR#1 (n=20)	-.04	-.20	-.17	.06
Division III Midseason PR#1 (n=19)	-.06	.10	.06	.01

*p<.05

**p<.01

T--Tension-Anxiety

C--Confusion-Bewilderment

D--Depression-Dejection

A--Anger-Hostility

PR#1--The Players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to others on the team?"

PR#2—The Players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to your own expectations?"

CR#1—The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to others on the team?"

CR#2—The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to your (the head coach) expectations for the player?"

Table 11: Part Two

Correlations of Mood Variables with Athletic Performance Variables

	<u>E</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>TMD</u>
Division I Preseason PR#1 (n=30)	-.24	.39*	-.37*
Division I Midseason PR#1 (n=28)	.17	.54**	-.43*
Division III Preseason PR#1 (n=19)	.17	.11	-.08
Division III Midseason PR#1 (n=18)	-.18	-.09	.20
Division I Preseason PR#2 (n=30)	.11	.36	.06
Division I Midseason PR#2 (n=28)	-.12	.16	-.28
Division III Preseason PR#2 (n=19)	.24	.25	.05
Division III Midseason PR#2 (n=18)	-.17	.25	-.19
Division I Preseason CR#1 (n=30)	.51**	.06	-.38*
Division I Midseason CR#1 (n=28)	-.24	.46*	-.27
Division III Preseason CR#1 (n=20)	.01	.31	-.13
Division III Midseason CR#1 (n=19)	-.17	-.15	-.01
Division I Preseason CR#2 (n=30)	-.13	.08	-.12
Division I Midseason CR#2 (n=28)	-.04	.37	-.08
Division III Preseason CR#2 (n=20)	.23	.15	-.04
Division III Midseason CR#2 (n=19)	-.12	.11	-.01

*p<.05	**p<.01		

F--Fatigue-Inertia V--Vigor-Activity

TMD--Total Mood Disturbance

PR#1--The Players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to others on the team?"

PR#2--The Players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to your own expectations?"

CR#1--The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to others on the team?"

CR#2--The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to your (the head coach) expectations for the player?"

Table 12: Part One

Comparison of Division I and Division III Players' Mood Variables

<u>Variable</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t-value</u>
Preseason Tension-Anxiety				
Division I	30	11.10	5.87	-1.79
Division III	20	14.15	5.97	
Midseason Tension-Anxiety				
Division I	28	11.79	6.21	-.46
Division III	19	12.63	6.23	
Preseason Confusion-Bewilderment				
Division I	30	6.03	3.19	-3.32**
Division III	20	10.10	5.49	
Midseason Confusion-Bewilderment				
Division I	28	6.54	3.72	-2.48*
Division III	19	9.90	5.57	
Preseason Depression-Dejection				
Division I	30	8.43	6.61	-2.99**
Division III	20	15.50	10.14	
Midseason Depression-Dejection				
Division I	28	10.29	8.99	-.87
Division III	19	13.27	14.40	
Preseason Tension-Anxiety				
Division I	30	9.47	6.22	-2.88**
Division III	20	16.35	10.70	
Midseason Tension-Anxiety				
Division I	28	14.36	9.79	-.22
Division III	19	15.05	11.81	
Preseason Fatigue-Inertia				
Division I	30	13.10	7.69	2.10*
Division III	20	9.20	5.46	

Table 12: Part Two

Comparison of Division I and Division III Players' Mood Variables

<u>Variable</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t-value</u>
Midseason Fatigue-Inertia				
Division I	28	9.61	5.27	-1.10
Division III	19	11.74	8.09	
Preseason Vigor-Activity				
Division I	30	21.90	4.20	1.26
Division III	20	20.25	5.05	
Midseason Vigor-Activity				
Division I	28	20.82	3.56	5.26**
Division III	19	14.05	5.29	
Preseason Total Mood Disturbance				
Division I	30	22.33	22.12	-3.35**
Division III	20	48.95	34.20	
Midseason Total Mood Disturbance				
Division I	28	31.75	29.83	-1.51
Division III	19	48.00	43.86	

*p<.05

**p<.01

Table 13

Correlations of Forgiveness of Others with Discrepancy of Players' and Coaches' Athletic Performance Ratings

	<u>PR#1/CR#1</u>	<u>PR#2/CR#2</u>
Division I Preseason (n=30)	-.37*	-.15
Division I Midseason (n=28)	-.01	.01
Division III Preseason (n=19)	.37	-.14
Division III Midseason (n=17)	.35	.23

*p<.05	**p<.01	

PR#1--The Players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to others on the team?"

PR#2--The Players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to your own expectations?"

CR#1--The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to others on the team?"

CR#2--The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to your (the head coach) expectations for the player?"

Table 14

Correlations of Forgiveness of Others Change Scores with Athletic Performance Change Scores

	<u>PR#1</u>	<u>PR#2</u>	<u>PR#3</u>	<u>PR#4</u>	<u>CR#1</u>	<u>CR#2</u>
Division I	-.29	-.09	-.30	-.23	.15	.31
Division III	.05	.03	-.01	.09	-.19	-.43

*p<.05

**p<.01

PR#1--The Players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to others on the team?"

PR#2--The Players' response to: "How well do you think you are playing in comparison to your own expectations?"

PR#3--The Players' response to: "How well does the head coach think you are playing?"

PR#4--The Players' response to: "How fairly is the head coach treating you?"

CR#1--The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to others on the team?"

CR#2--The head coach's response to: "How well do you think he (the player) is playing in comparison to your (the head coach) expectations for the player?"

Table 15: Part One

Correlations of Forgiveness of Others Change Scores with Mood Change Scores

	<u>I</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>A</u>
Division I (n = 28)	.00	-.01	-.05	-.14
Division III (n = 15)	-.71**	-.48	-.40	-.71**

*p<.05

**p<.01

T--Tension-Anxiety

C--Confusion-Bewilderment

D--Depression-Dejection

A--Anger-Hostility

Table 15: Part Two

Correlations of Forgiveness of Others Change Scores with Mood Change Scores

	<u>F</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>TMD</u>
Division I (n = 28)	.37	-.15	.03
Division III (n = 15)	.06	.13	-.05

*p<.05

**p<.01

F--Fatigue-Inertia

V--Vigor-Activity

TMD--Total Mood Disturbance

Table 16

Categories of Individuals to Forgive

<u>Category</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Girlfriend	48	49.0%
Friend of Same Gender	13	13.3%
Friend of Opposite Gender	13	13.3%
Relative	11	11.2%
Spouse	4	4.1%
Coach	4	4.1%
Parent	2	2.0%
Teammate	1	1.0%
Another Employee	1	1.0%
Employer	1	1.0%
Total	98	100%

Table 17

Number of Days Since Hurtful Incident

<u>Category</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
1-7 days	10	14.5%
8-30 days	14	20.3%
31-100 days	10	14.5%
101-365 days	19	27.5%
366 plus days	16	23.2%
Total	69	100%