



Selected Nebraska high school football players and coaches : a value study
by Donald Lee Holst

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF
EDUCATION

Montana State University

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Abstract:

It was the purpose of this study to indicate the significant similarities and differences in the expressed values of selected head football coaches and senior football players in the high schools of Nebraska.

The Allport, Vernon, Lindzey, Study of Values (SV) was sent to the counselors of 163 stratified randomly selected high schools.

This sampling represented two-thirds of the high schools in Nebraska which met the criteria for the study. One hundred and twenty-seven schools (78%) responded with usable returns. In addition, the high school coach was asked to complete a short questionnaire concerning his age, education and number of years as a head football coach.

In this study, 120 null hypotheses about coach-player value similarities and differences were stated. These null hypotheses were built around comparisons in specific categories of the coaches' and players' values as expressed on the SV. The null hypotheses were accepted or rejected by the t test at the 0.05 level of significance.

Also significant differences among values of the coaches alone, in the six SV categories were determined by appropriate testing with attention to information related to: age, school classification, and years of experience. Significant differences in values among the players in the six SV categories were also determined.

Some of the more important findings and conclusions were as follows: 1) coaches and players were significantly different at the 0.05 level on several of the values expressed by the SV. 2) Coaches' values varied significantly more compared to national norms and select junior and senior high school teachers than among their own group. 3) When values of players by school classification were compared to national high school norms significant differences in the theoretical value were noted in all classifications. 4) The aesthetic value was noted as the value most often significantly different when players and coaches were compared. 5) As players were compared to progressively older coaches, fewer significant differences were noted. 6) In the class A and B schools some 75% of the coaches have the masters degree however; in the class C and D schools nearly 85% do not have the masters degree. 7) Nearly 60% of the head football coaches fall within the age group 21-30, whereas only 7% are in age group 41-30. Only 13% of the coaches had been a head football coach for more than ten years.

The investigator recommended specific actions and further specific studies of coaches and players and the coaching profession in order to improve player-coach relationships.

SELECTED NEBRASKA HIGH SCHOOL FOOTBALL PLAYERS AND
COACHES: A VALUE STUDY

by

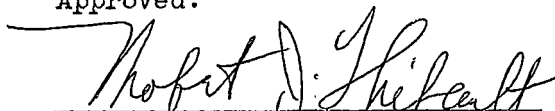
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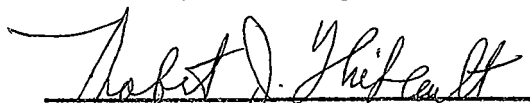
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	vi
ABSTRACT	xi
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	3
PURPOSE OF THE STUDY	3
GENERAL QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED	4
LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	6
DEFINITION OF TERMS.	7
SUMMARY.	12
2. SELECTED REVIEW OF LITERATURE.	13
ORGANIZATION	14
TRADITIONAL AND EMERGENT VALUE SYSTEMS	15
THE DEVELOPMENT OF VALUES IN PERSONALITY	18
THE GENERAL PERSONALITY TRAITS OF ATHLETES AND COACHES	21
THE COACH AND ATHLETE RELATIONSHIP	24
SUMMARY.	30
3. PROCEDURES	31
DESCRIPTION OF THE POPULATION.	31
THE SAMPLING PROCEDURE	32
DESCRIPTION OF THE INVESTIGATION	35

CHAPTER	Page
METHOD OF COLLECTING DATA.	36
RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE INSTRUMENT . . .	37
HYPOTHESES	40
ANALYSIS OF DATA	61
SUMMARY.	63
4. ANALYSIS AND RESULTS.	64
RELATED AND DESCRIPTIVE DATA	104
5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.	123
SUMMARY.	123
CONCLUSIONS.	126
RECOMMENDATIONS.	130
APPENDIXES	132
A. Correspondence.	132
B. Tables.	138
SELECTED REFERENCES.	146

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		Page
1	Comparison of Mean Scores on Factors 1-6 of Class A Coaches and Players	66
2	Comparison of Mean Scores on Factors 1-6 of Class B Coaches and Players	68
3	Comparison of Mean Scores on Factors 1-6 of Class C Coaches and Players	70
4	Comparison of Mean Scores on Factors 1-6 of Class D Coaches and Players	72
5	Comparison of Coaches Age (21-30) and Players Class A.	74
6	Comparison of Coaches Age (21-30) and Players Class B.	76
7	Comparison of Coaches Age (21-30) and Players Class C.	78
8	Comparison of Coaches Age (21-30) and Players Class D.	80
9	Comparison of Coaches Age (31-40) and Players Class A.	82
10	Comparison of Coaches Age (31-40) and Players Class B.	84
11	Comparison of Coaches Age (31-40) and Players Class C.	86
12	Comparison of Coaches Age (31-40) and Players Class D.	88
13	Comparison of Coaches Age (41-50) and Players Class A.	90

TABLE		Page
14	Comparison of Coaches Age (41-50) and Players Class B.	92
15	Comparison of Coaches Age (41-50) and Players Class C.	94
16	Comparison of Coaches Age (41-50) and Players Class D.	96
17	Comparison of Mean Scores on Factors 1-6 Coaches Age (21-30) and Combined Players Classes A, B, C, and D	98
18	Comparison of Mean Scores on Factors 1-6 Coaches Age (31-40) and Combined Players Classes A, B, C, and D	100
19	Comparison of Mean Scores on Factors 1-6 Coaches Age (41-50) and Combined Players Classes A, B, C, and D	102
20	Comparison of All Coaches in the Study to all Players in the Study.	104
21	A Comparison of Coaches by School Classi- fication on the Basic Values as Expressed by the Study of Values.	107
22	Analysis of Variance for All Coaches on Factors 1-6	109
23	Scheffe' F - Ratio for Coaches on Factors 1-6 Compared by School Classification	110
24	Analysis of Variance by Age Groups (21-30, 31-40, 41-50) of Coaches on Factors 1-6	111
25	Means, Variances, and Standard Deviations by Age Groups of Coaches on Factors 1-6	112
26	Scheffe' F - Ratio for Age Groups of Coaches on Factors 1-6.	113

TABLE	Page
27	Means, Variances, and Standard Deviations on Factors 1-6 by Years of Experience as Head Coach 114
28	Analysis of Variance on Factors 1-6 by Years of Experience as Head Coach. 115
29	Scheffe' F - Ratio on Factors 1-6 by Years of Experience as Head Coach. 117
30	Comparison of Coaches to National Norm 118
31	Comparison of All Coaches to National Norms for Male Adults as in <u>Manual Study of Values</u> . . 119
32	Comparison of All Coaches to Wisconsin High School and Junior High Male Teacher Norms as in <u>Manual Study of Values</u> 120
33	Comparison of Players by Class to National Norms for High School Males as in <u>Manual Study of Values</u> 121
34	Comparison of All Players to National Norms for High School Males as in Manual Study of Values. 122
35	Frequency Distribution of Selected Nebraska Head High School Football Coaches by Years of Experience Spring, 1973 139
36	Frequency Distribution of Selected Nebraska Head High School Football Coaches by Age Groups Spring, 1973. 140
37	College Degrees Held by Selected Head High School Football Coaches in the State of Nebraska Spring 1973. 141
38	Sampling Distributions and Returns for the Initial Testing. 142

TABLE	Page
39 Sampling Distributions and Returns for the Second Testing	143
40 Comparison of Players' Mean Scores on Initial Test and Players' Mean Scores on Second Test.	144
41 Comparison of Coaches' Mean Scores on Initial Test and Coaches' Mean Scores on Second Test.	145

LIST OF CHARTS

CHART	Page
I The Traditional and Emergent Value Systems	16

ABSTRACT

It was the purpose of this study to indicate the significant similarities and differences in the expressed values of selected head football coaches and senior football players in the high schools of Nebraska.

The Allport, Vernon, Lindzey, Study of Values (SV) was sent to the counselors of 163 stratified randomly selected high schools. This sampling represented two-thirds of the high schools in Nebraska which met the criteria for the study. One hundred and twenty-seven schools (78%) responded with usable returns. In addition, the high school coach was asked to complete a short questionnaire concerning his age, education and number of years as a head football coach.

In this study, 120 null hypotheses about coach-player value similarities and differences were stated. These null hypotheses were built around comparisons in specific categories of the coaches' and players' values as expressed on the SV. The null hypotheses were accepted or rejected by the t test at the 0.05 level of significance. Also significant differences among values of the coaches alone, in the six SV categories were determined by appropriate testing with attention to information related to: age, school classification, and years of experience. Significant differences in values among the players in the six SV categories were also determined.

Some of the more important findings and conclusions were as follows: 1) coaches and players were significantly different at the 0.05 level on several of the values expressed by the SV. 2) Coaches' values varied significantly more compared to national norms and select junior and senior high school teachers than among their own group. 3) When values of players by school classification were compared to national high school norms significant differences in the theoretical value were noted in all classifications. 4) The aesthetic value was noted as the value most often significantly different when players and coaches were compared. 5) As players were compared to progressively older coaches, fewer significant differences were noted. 6) In the class A and B schools some 75% of the coaches have the masters degree however; in the class C and D schools nearly 85% do not have the masters degree. 7) Nearly 60% of the head football coaches fall within the age group 21-30, whereas only 7% are in age group 41-50. Only 13% of the coaches had been a head football coach for more than ten years.

The investigator recommended specific actions and further specific studies of coaches and players and the coaching profession in order to improve player-coach relationships.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Individualism appears to be increasing among our high school aged students (Fagon, 1962). The problems today's athletes have adjusting their individualistic values to the discipline demanded by a team sport and by a coach operating under different values has not gone unnoticed. The modern society-wide emphasis on non-conformity has brought changes in the traditional coach-athlete relationship where the athlete accepted the coach's discipline unquestioningly. James (1972:57) stated:

It's no longer possible to make an entire team look alike, act alike, and respond alike. The coach must treat his players as sensitive human beings; and react to their problems with concern, sincerity and patience.

This thesis attempted to determine the values of some coaches and athletes and to illuminate the friction developing between many of them. It was the investigator's desire that from information gathered in this study he might offer suggestions helpful to the coach-player relationship.

The athletic coach, by nature of his position, is constantly making and exhibiting value judgments as he trains his athletes.

In the close and highly charged contacts between athletes and coaches, under pressure of performing well, values are unmasked and come face to face. Both parties inevitably react strongly, either positively or negatively to each other's values. "People tend to like those whose values and beliefs appear similar to their own (Jones, 1962:324).

The differences that develop between coaches' and athletes' values are often explained in terms of the "generation gap". But, in athletic coaching at the high school level, coaches vary widely in age, from recent college graduates to near retirees. Moore (1969:34) believes that more than age is involved in the conflict between coaches and their high school athletes' values: "Although the struggle may come to focus primarily between age groups, it cannot be limited to age alone."

Hunzinger (1972:5) attempted to clarify value differences by setting aside the idea of a generation gap in favor of the concept that "the different time-sense is not so much dependent on the generation to which one belongs as on the knowledge one has of things old and new." Hunzinger seems to imply that knowledge of society's past and present values gives one a flexibility - an ability to accept changing values. Many coaches seem to lack this flexibility.

This researcher believes, from his 20-years experience as a coach, that most coaches think their own success largely depends on having winning teams. So, they try to instill a winning psychology in their players. Young players, however, are increasingly questioning "the significance of the rewards of winning" (Kohl, 1969) and "the belief that competition has intrinsic value" (Ogilvie, 1971:60).

By testing and reviewing related literature, this study has attempted to clarify the differences between values generally held by coaches and those held by today's athletes.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem of this study was to determine the expressed values of a stratified random sampling of selected Nebraska Head Football Coaches and selected Nebraska High School Senior Football Players.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to indicate the significant similarities and differences in values of selected head football coaches and selected senior football players in the high schools of the state of Nebraska and to compare the expressed values of

these coaches and players to national norms. The Study of Values test was used as the testing instrument.

The investigator plans to share the results of this study with the Nebraska High School Activities Association and the Chadron State College Research Institute. Sharing the results is seen as an effort to increase awareness of the values expressed by coaches and athletes. He also plans to suggest appropriate action that would benefit the coach - athlete relationship generally.

GENERAL QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED

The following were general questions asked in this study:

1. How do coaches and players from the same school classification compare on the six basic interests of the Study of Values?
2. How do coaches, by age categories, compare with players in each school classification on the six interests of the Study of Values?
3. How do coaches by age categories compare with players as a total group on the six interests of the Study of Values?
4. How do coaches, as a total group, compare to players, as a total group, on the six interests of the Study of Values?
5. How do coaches from each high school classification compare on the six basic interests of the Study of Values?

6. How do coaches, by age categories, compare on the six interests of the Study of Values?

7. How do coaches, by the number of years as a head football coach, compare on the six interests of the Study of Values?

8. How do coaches from each school classification compare with national adult norms on the six basic interests of the Study of Values?

9. How do coaches as a total group compare with national adult norms on the six basic interests of the Study of Values?

10. How do coaches as a total group compare with selected 'teachers' norms on the six interests of the Study of Values?

11. How do players from each school classification compare with national high school norms on the six interests of the Study of Values?

12. How do players as a total group compare with national high school norms on the six basic interests of the Study of Values?

13. How do coaches as a group, in the initial testing, compare with coaches as a group in the second testing on the six interests of the Study of Values?

14. How do players as a group, in the initial testing, compare with players as a group in the second testing on the six interests of the Study of Values?

The Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values (SV), according to the Manual Study of Values (1970:3), was "to measure the relative prominence of six basic interests or motives in personality: the theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious."

Four copies of the SV, a forty-five question test, and a coach's questionnaire were sent to the school counselor in all schools selected for this study. The test responses were tabulated and appropriate statistics were applied to the results to answer the questions of this study. The method for analyzing the data received is explained in Chapter 3.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. This study was limited to selected public high schools of Nebraska which employ a counselor and a football coach.

2. The investigator acknowledges that the difficult language of the Allport, Vernon, Lindzey Study of Values (SV) may have made the questions unclear to some of the students.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Terms from the SV

There are six basic interests tested by the SV, the testing instrument used in this study. The following definitions for the six basic interests were taken from the Manual for the SV test (1970:4-5). For clarification, the definitions for the six basic interests should be used with the SV in mind.

The Theoretical

The dominant interest of the theoretical man is the discovery of truth. In pursuit of this goal he characteristically takes a "cognitive" attitude, one that looks for identities and differences; one that divests itself of judgments regarding the beauty or utility of objects, and seeks only to observe and to reason His chief aim in life is to order and systematize his knowledge.

The Economic

The economic man is characteristically interested in what is useful This type is thoroughly "practical" and conforms well to the prevailing stereotype of the average American businessman.

The Aesthetic

The aesthetic man sees his highest value in form and harmony. Each single experience is judged from the standpoint of grace, symmetry, or fitness. He regards life as a procession of events; each single impression is enjoyed for its own sake. He need not be a creative artist, nor need he be effete; he is aesthetic if he but finds his chief interest in the artistic episodes of life.

The Social

The highest value for this type is love of people. In the Study of Values it is the altruistic or philanthropic aspect of love that is measured The social man prizes other persons as ends, and is therefore himself kind, sympathetic, and unselfish.

The Political

The political man is interested primarily in power Leaders in any field generally have high power value. Since competition and struggle play a large part in all life, many

philosophers have seen power as the most universal and most fundamental of motives.

The Religious

The highest value of the religious man may be called unity. He is mystical and seeks to comprehend the cosmos as a whole, to relate himself to its embracing totality. Spranger defines the religious man as one "whose mental structure is permanently directed to the creation of the highest and absolutely satisfying value experience."

The Manual SV (1970:5) interprets Spranger's idea about these values as follows:

Spranger does not imply that a given man belongs exclusively to one or another of these types of values. His depictions are entirely in terms of "ideal types," a conception fully explained in his Types of Men Spranger (1928).

Additional definitions from other sources helpful to this study are:

Coach

In this study, "coach" refers only to a high school head football coach.

Player

In this study, "player" refers only to a high school senior football player.

School Classification

The Nebraska State Activities Association Bulletin (1972:7-11) classifies the state high schools by enrollment into the following:

Class A - The thirty-two largest schools in the state

Class B - The sixty-four next largest schools

Class C - The 128 schools next in size

Class D - The 145 remaining, or smallest, schools

Personality

"Gordon W. Allport surveyed the professional literature and extracted 50 different definitions of personality Gordon W. Allport, the surveyor himself, added a psychologist's view, stressing adjustment, suggesting that 'personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.'" (1937:25-54)

The SV test is based on Eduard Spranger's Types of Men (Spranger, 1928). Spranger believed personalities are best known through study of men's values or evaluating attitudes. The six basic interest categories of the SV were derived directly from Spranger's classification in Types of Men.

Value

"A value is defined as an activity or condition that is cherished. A pattern of values is the distribution of a sample of activities and conditions with respect to the degree to which they are cherished by a person. The position of a particular value in an individual's pattern of values is determined by his ranking of the activity or condition in the distribution of the sample." (Battle, 1957:20)

Trait

"A personality trait is best understood as being a surface or peripheral expression of some deep-seated, inner psychological tendency. It is usually descriptive of the overt behavior we can see and identify." (Alderman, 1974:150)

Type

"Type psychologies, in which persons are classified on the basis of many characteristics rather than a single one, have existed for centuries. Verbal description in qualitative rather than quantitative terms are still widely used to characterize individuals." (Tyler, 1964:174)

SUMMARY

In this chapter, a good coach and player relationship has been recognized as mutually beneficial. Differences in values between coach and player affect their relationship.

Attitudes toward participation in team sports by increasingly individualistic high school athletes are changing. A number of athletes now believe their life styles are not in line with the rigid discipline required of a team sport.

The "value gap" may result from not only age but also from inflexibility on either side. It can be overcome, in part, by the coach who understands the dynamism and growth in both individuals and society.

Chapter 2

SELECTED REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Periodically we must take a look at our changing value systems. A noticeable result of changing values has been the "generation gap." The literature reviewed indicated increased interest in this subject. Moore (1969:32) described the situation by stating

The rapidity with which the social environment has changed has made differences between the generations inevitable. Adults and young adults have grown up in vastly different worlds.

Copp (1970:35) summarizes the transition of age groups not in the terms of "generation gaps" but rather "value gaps."

Not only do members of different generations have their own set of moral and generic values and ascribed virtues, but that priority is based in inner development. Although those of each generation may assume, unfairly, the "other has no values" - what is forgotten is the nature of the differences and the importance of the differences.

One term used by Copp is "self-actualization." It may be that "self-actualization," the period of searching for and forming new values that express his individuality is indicative of pulling away from the past imposed values of an older generation. Friedenber (1971:107) saw how strong an impact others' judgments could have on an adolescent.

The adolescent building his appraisal of himself is therefore extremely vulnerable to the feeling and judgments expressed by the persons and institutions of his immediate environment.

The extremity of his feelings at this age may make him resent and finally avoid an authority figure who is constantly attacking his emerging values.

Buhler (1964:520) stated:

Many studies show that, in Europe as well as in America, the youths of this generation prefer to consult their peers rather than adults and to put more store by peer acceptance than by adult approval.

Thus he may band together with his peers against a heavy-handed coach -- a not uncommon situation.

ORGANIZATION

The chapter is organized around the following sequence:

1. The traditional and emergent value systems were described as seen by scholars. The effect of these changes in values on athletics has been noted.
2. Opinions were shown on how values develop in personality.
3. The general personality traits of athletes and coaches, as seen by researchers, were noted.

4. The coach and athlete relationship ideas about how a coach and athlete relate were reviewed.

TRADITIONAL AND EMERGENT VALUE SYSTEMS

During the past few decades the rapid changes in American society, e.g., communication and transportation, have expanded the value gap between generations. Scholars have recognized these changes in values since the 1930's. Robinson (1960:226) observed that "published studies of attitude and value change generally began to appear in the literature during the mid and late nineteen thirties."

Reichart (1964:26) cited the areas of change in American values observed by Spindler:

Spindler has challenged us to recognize the fact that a shift is taking place in the core values of American culture. He has categorized the shift in terms of a movement from traditional to emergent values, the latter including emphasis upon sociability, relativistic moral attitude, a hedonistic, present time orientation, and conformity.

Both Spindler (1955:145-53) and Getzels (1957:92-102) viewed contemporary American society as having two competing value systems. In Chart I, page 16, Bidwell et.al. (1963:300) lists and describes these emergent and traditional values.

Chart I

The Traditional and Emergent Value Systems

Traditional Values	Emergent Values
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <u>The work-success ethic</u>: Values of achievement take precedent over values of being; one is obliged to attain prestige and position through diligence and effort. 2. <u>Future-time orientation</u>: The future not the present or past, is important; emphasis on deferred gratification. 3. <u>Independence, or the autonomous self</u>: Inviolability of the self, its greater ultimate significance than the group's; self-determination, self-activity, and self-perfection are the general criteria of personal worth, so that mastery of self and environment becomes a value. 4. <u>Puritan morality</u>: Emphasis on the absolute personal standards of respectability, thrift, self-denial, hard work, sexual restraint. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <u>Sociability</u>: Concern with the affiliative and co-operative components of corporate life, not the competitive; desire for "frictionless" interpersonal relations. 2. <u>Present-time orientation</u>: Emphasis on the consummatory "here and now" (immediate impulse gratification). 3. <u>Conformity</u>: The goal of behavior is adjustment; sensitivity to peer-group standards and the mass media. 4. <u>Relativistic moral attitude</u>: Absolutes of right and wrong are questionable; morality is a statistical rather than an ethical concept.

Getzels (1957:98) described emergent and traditional values as they appear in an educational conflict:

The younger teachers are more likely to be emergent in their values than the older teachers, the superintendents and principals more emergent than the parents and public they serve, the parents and public more emergent than the school-board members they elect.

Hellison (1973:44) discussed the overall conflict between traditional and emergent values, emphasizing its effect on physical education:

Several, if not all of the major orientations of American culture are being challenged today: Individualism by collectivism (e.g., communal living) competition by cooperation (e.g., de-emphasis on competitive grading in schools) According to physical education teachers and coaches, the letter jacket and athletic status are no longer social symbols in many schools.

Athletics have sometimes served as a mock training ground for the development of society's approved values. Felshen (1974:147) stated:

Programs in schools do not duplicate the whole of socio-cultural experience; rather, they exemplify and represent those dimensions that are considered appropriate and/or not provided for adequately in other institutionalized ways.

Athletics are strongly ingrained in traditional American culture. The worthwhileness and relativeness of athletics have often been questioned. McCormick (1968:46) described the emerging

position of athletics as a realistic and beneficial part of our culture by stating "we are seeing the coming of age of sport within the framework of our society."

THE DEVELOPMENT OF VALUES IN PERSONALITY

Many observations have been made concerning the formation of values. As this investigator surveyed the related literature, it became evident that published material on the subject was of a general nature. There was universal agreement among researchers that the personality of the individual was dynamic in nature.

Lawther (1972:101) described personality in the following way:

Personality is a term used to describe characteristics and customary type of behavior of an individual. It refers to the qualities, properties, attributes or traits which distinguish him from other individuals. His personality is a product of his environment, and especially his social environment.

Alderman (1972:109) emphasized the usefulness of the term "personality" even though its definition is ambiguous:

Personality, though a highly ambiguous term which is difficult to define, has become a viable and useful concept for describing and categorizing behavior in physical activity and sport. The reason for this is that personality, its broadest context, can be interpreted as representing total psychological structure of the individual. The personality of a person is an

integration or merging of all the parts of one's psychological life -- the way one thinks, feels, acts, and behaves.

Both Mr. Clifford Fagon, Executive Secretary of the National Federation of State High School Activities, and Mr. A. D. Duer, Executive Secretary of the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics, emphasize the leadership role of coaches and society in general, in developing values among athletes. Fagon (1962:11) stated

We believe that personal and social values can be obtained in sports competition but that these objectives are not automatic and, to a great degree, they depend on leadership.

Duer (1962:72) made the following statement:

If we are to restore high ethical values and habits in American youth, we must change the emphasis of our society, for no program can succeed unless supported by the adult society in which it is being generated.

Kluckhohn and Murray (1949:48) viewed the personality of an individual as "the produce of inherited dispositions and environmental experiences." Gelfman (1971:242) saw the development of values in personality as "each individual lives in a series of systems and subsystems which reflect this particular cultural milieu, or social environment." Both Singer (1968:314) and Cormier (1969:17) considered the perennial traditions society presents to

a generation for adoption in value formation. Singer stated "the value systems of a society establishes certain standards that provide direction to an attitude and account for its persistence." Cormier added another dimension to Singer's statement -- the concept that values passed from one generation to another have already undergone conflict. Cormier stated further

Our attitudes and beliefs grow out of the traditions of our society and the traditions of the society seem to grow out of the problems the society has faced and successfully resolved.

Nolan et al (1963:185) investigated how attitudes of high school students are formed. From the information gathered he stated the formation occurred as "the result of generalized and habitual systems of values operating within personality." Ekstein (1964:523) recognized both the complexity of forming values and the fact that values are not an innate characteristic.

Values are as much a product of society and individual development as they are based on available dispositions in the growing human mind. This is another way of saying that values are not inborn and absolute traits of people, although the capacity to acquire values depends on available psychic structures in each individual. Values can only be learned, no one is born with them.

Smith (1964:485) discussed growth in value dimension with this summation:

The mature, adult members of any society dare not turn for whatever reason from the responsibility for inducting the young successfully into the value system they wish to sustain and extend if the core values of that society are to be preserved in the lives of its people.

THE GENERAL PERSONALITY TRAITS OF ATHLETES AND COACHES

The personality traits of the coach and athlete have been studied by many researchers. The coach and athlete are often prominent individuals and examination of their personal characteristics has been part of the traditional American sports scene.

The abundant attention paid to the personalities of individuals associated with the sports world has not been confined to the national and international levels -- every small community has its identifiable sports figures. Schendel (1970:79) stated "over the past several years there has been an increasing interest in the study of the personality dynamics of athletes of varying ages and levels of achievement."

Cooper (1969:17) found in reviewing the literature that generally there were no intellectual differences between high school athletes and non-athletes. The following, according to Cooper's findings, are various scholars' descriptions of athletes as they differ from non-athletes in personality traits: Behrman (1967:163-71)

and Merriman (1960:163-73) - more outgoing and socially confident; Kroll et al (1965) - more outgoing and socially aggressive, dominant and leading; Seymour (1956:338-46) and Biddulph (1954:1-7) - higher social adjustment as rated by teachers and peers; Jones (1946:287-301) - higher in prestige and social status; Sperling (1942:351-63) - self confidence; Booth (1958:127-39) - stronger competitors; Kroll (1965:433-40) - less anxious; Lakie (1964:497-503) - less compulsive; Ryan et al (1966:383-390) - greater tolerance for physical pain; Schendel (1965:52-67) - lower feminine interests; and Henry (1941:745) - higher masculine interests.

Both prior studies, Kane and Warburton (1966), Ogilvie (1967:48), Schendel (1965:66), and later studies, Lawther (1972) and Cratty (1973:83), are in general agreement with Cooper's findings.

A traditional inherent merit of athletic participation has been the values it purports to develop. Hellison (1973:21-22) reviewed Schendel's three-year longitudinal study which found the non-athletes total profile changed more (as tested by the California Psychological Inventory) than the athletes. He noted the following:

Those traits related to self-perceptions such as sense of self worth, individuality, and confidence in social interaction improved more drastically for the non-athletes. These traits also improved for the athletes but to a more

moderate extent. Part of the answer to this surprising result is found in ninth grade comparisons of athletes and non-athletes which showed the athletes to possess a high sense of self-worth and self-acceptance at that time, thereby reducing the chance for large improvements after ninth grade.

Allport's (1955:75) discussion of the schemata of value in development of personality agrees in general theory to Hellison's findings. "Thus in the moral sphere we may say that becoming depends upon the development of a generic conscience which, in turn, depends upon the possession of long-range goals and an ideal self-image."

One person who has traditionally been regarded as an individual who typifies, for example, personal qualities of character and leadership is the athletic coach. Webster (1965:209) observed:

The best way to help students form values is by setting a good example. Students learn a great deal and derive many lasting impressions from watching and imitating their teachers and adults.

Values are emphasized for school programs as a way of perpetuating those qualities considered by society to be worthy. An identifiable individual expected to display personal traits in line with society's best values is the coach. The coaches' significance as a model and the importance of high school athletics cannot be denied. It is likely that the notoriety associated with

school athletics affects the personality traits of both player and coach. Coleman (1970:84) cites the popularity and social prominence of high school athletics by stating

Research -- based on the visibility of athletic stars, on most desired achievement, on the composition of the leading crowd, on status criteria in leading crowd membership, on popularity -- demonstrates conclusively that athletics is far and away more important as a value among high school students than intellectual achievement.

THE COACH AND ATHLETE RELATIONSHIP

An important change witnessed during the past decade has been the increasing amount of freedom afforded individuals in determining their own values. Carmical (1969:5) referred to it as "one of the most significant changes in our social structure" There are, however, situations where individuals working together under tense and exhausting circumstances may have value conflict.

The coach and athlete relationship presents such a condition. Hellison (1973:16) cited the good effects that athletics can have on interpersonal relations if in the athletic training, the value of certain qualities such as cooperation and sensitivity toward others are emphasized. The basic question that needs to be answered before communication can take place is "how does one

go about this -- what is the testing ground for initiating good interpersonal relationships?" Rogers (1964:38) explains how one individual's sensitivity, understanding and communicativeness can elicit a satisfactory response:

Assuming (a) a minimal willingness on the part of two people to be in contact (b) an ability and minimal willingness on the part of each to receive communication from the other; and (c) assuming the contact to continue over a period of time; then the following relationship is hypothesized to hold true:

The greater the congruence of experience, awareness and communication on the part of one individual, the more the ensuing relationship will involve: a tendency toward reciprocal communication with a quality of increasing congruence; a tendency toward more mutually accurate understanding of the communications; improved psychological adjustment and functioning in both parties; mutual satisfaction in the relationship.

Battle (1957:27) saw the congruence of individual value patterns as important for a profitable relationship:

The relation between two persons is conceived to tend to be compatible and productive in proportion to the degree in which the value patterns of the two persons are similar.

Griffitt (1969:137) also believes people to be attracted to others like themselves:

Persons similar to one's self provide more precise comparisons for self evaluation than do persons who are dissimilar, and the similarity functions as reward leading to attraction toward similar persons.

Young people often identify with an older adult model. The importance of a significant individual, other than parental, is described by Ekstein (1964:526):

The origin of values, moral and otherwise, rests in the early child-parent situation. The teacher is much like the gardener who gets the small seedling from the nursery.

Tutko and Richards (1971:63) discussed the coach's personality and the possibility of his being the individual with whom the athlete identifies.

At this stage, the child has a strong need for identification. The adolescent is trying to find a strong, stable figure with whom to identify. At this age he has sports heroes. There are instances when the coach himself becomes this model, especially if the boy has come from a relatively unstable background.

The coach and team have been discussed as specific agents in interpersonal relationships that could bring about individual personality change. Coaches at the high school level do not have the freedom to "choose their players" to the extent of the college coach, e.g., recruitment practices. It is to be emphasized that college and high school athletics operate under different philosophical guidelines. Singer (1972:85) states the following:

It is well known that we tend to select friends and judge them according to our own value systems and personalities. We like to see in other people the kinds of traits we admire in ourselves. Do coaches therefore tend to select athletes who possess similar qualities

to their own? Although conclusive research evidence is lacking, it does appear that an aggressive football coach tries to pick aggressive players. A conservative basketball coach, on the other hand, can select players who are exceptionally alert, composed and calculating.

Cratty (1973:118) offers some suggestions for coaches concerning their relationship with athletes of similar and different personalities:

Decide which athletes on his team he should find easier to work with and which ones he is likely to have a difficult time understanding. All things being equal (but they seldom are), athletes who resemble him in psychological make-up will be more easily understood, whereas those who possess different personality traits may be more difficult for him to motivate and otherwise relate to.

Differences in values often have identifiable symptoms. The review of literature yielded numerous examples of conflict between appearance and coaches' dress codes. Scott (1969:28) asks the following question:

Why are coaches so preoccupied with the length of athletes' hair? Black and white athletes who, not being ashamed of their hair, let it grow naturally have been persecuted by coaches almost everywhere.

Masin (1971:5) discussed the futility of forcing athletes to change their personal appearance to suit the coach.

You may create the image you want, but you won't be making the boys any better or any manlier.

Once they get away from your influence, they'll probably revert to what all the other kids are doing.

Veller (1971:58-59) did a state-wide survey of the high schools in the state of Florida. The study highlighted the problems and needs of the coaching profession. Veller reports:

An overwhelming number of coaches (82 percent) disagreed with a statement, "A member of an athletic squad should be able to dress with beard, sideburns, clothes any way he wishes."

Perhaps the coaches' generation gap was showing as there was a definite difference of opinion on this issue between the coaches with less than five years' experience and those with over twenty. Sixty percent of the young group agreed that athletes should be allowed long hair, beards, etc., while only five percent of the old timers thought so.

One-third of the total number of coaches surveyed by Veller had less than five years' experience, and two-thirds less than ten years. Fewer than seventeen percent had coached for more than fifteen years. Veller summarized with the following statement: "So perhaps it is a young man's game."

James (1972:54) found in a study of fifty southern California high school basketball coaches that the number of problem athletes is increasing. Seventy-two percent of the coaches admitted an increase in problems from five years before.

The coaches cite breakdowns in the home environment and the more permissive and more affluent society as the major factors in the increase of problem athletes.

