METAPHORIC DESCRIPTIONS OF PRE- AND POST-GAME PERFORMANCE-RELATED EXPERIENCES IN A SOCCER TEAM DURING A COMPETITIVE SEASON

Hanna-Mari Toivonen

Dionne Pounds

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

Toivonen Hanna-Mari and Pounds Dionne, 2013. Metaphoric descriptions of pre- and post-game performance-related experiences in a soccer team during a competitive season. Master's Thesis in Sport and Exercise Psychology Department of Sport Sciences, University of Jyväskylä. 44p.

The main aim of the present study was to examine performance-related experiences of a youth female soccer team throughout a competitive season. Perceived game importance and expectations about the games were examined as antecedents of emotional experiences of the team. The perceived individual and team performances, outcomes of the games and the team's post-game emotional experiences were also investigated. Finally, inferences to the team's emotional climate were made. The participants included 24 female soccer players between the ages of 14 and 18 from a club team in Central Finland. The data were collected, prior to and after each game of the season, using the metaphor self-generation method. In addition, the players rated the perceived game importance, perceived individual performance and perceived team performance on a 10-point scale. Perceived game expectations were assessed through open-ended questions. Results revealed that the fall season was considered significantly more important than the spring season and the team's experiences differed correspondingly. During the spring, tiredness was more often reported prior to the games, whereas during the fall, the more often reported pre-game emotional experiences were willingness, anxiety and calmness. Interestingly, the home games were perceived as significantly more important than away games, although better outcomes were achieved away. When the expectations were very positive (>80%), the pre-game experiences were also positive (i.e. happy and willing), whereas when the expectations were less positive (<60%), the pre-game experiences were functionally harmful (i.e. tired and quiet). Interestingly, although the team had better outcomes during the fall, sadness and tiredness were the most reported post-game emotional experiences. During the spring, on the other hand, happiness was more often reported after the games, even after the games lost. Overall, the team had a very successful season. This study provides additional support for the use of the metaphor generation method in the assessment of athletes' experiences related to performance. The results of this study also supported the importance of the primary and secondary appraisal as antecedents of emotions experienced and the bidirectional emotion-performance relationship suggested by the IZOF model.

Key words: Emotional Experiences, Metaphors, Longitudinal Study, Youth Sport, Soccer

TABLE OF CONTENTS

APPENDIXES

1 INTRODUCTION

Emotions are central in every part of human life, including sport. For athletes, coaches, and sport scientists it is important to understand how emotions affect performance and how to manage them effectively. In teams, emotions have a special value as individuals' emotions have an impact on the other players' experiences and the emotional climate of the team. The emotional experiences of a team also ought to be studied more because they are crucial for the functioning of a team.

The idea for the current study stemmed from the personal experiences of the researchers and the recognition that emotional experiences at a team level lacked research. This study is one of a kind because it provides insight into the experiences of a soccer team prior to and after each game of a competitive season. Although, previous research has investigated the emotion-performance relationship in sporting context, the studies have mainly been cross-sectional studies of emotions in the best and worst performances (e.g. Hanin, & Stambulova, 2002; Ruiz, & Hanin, 2004b) or studied single emotions (e.g. Ruiz, & Hanin, 2004a; Woodman et al., 2009). Therefore, more longitudinal studies examining a wide range of emotions in teams are needed. Thus, in this study an individualized approach was chosen to better understand the meaning of the athletes' experiences. The metaphor self-generation method was used as a tool to help athletes describe the team's experiences with their own words.

The main theoretical frameworks that will govern the approach to this study are the Cognitive-Motivational-Relational Theory (CMRT) (Lazarus, 1991, 2000) and the Individual Zones of Optimal Functioning (IZOF) model (Hanin, 2000). CMRT helps to explain and predict emotions. According to it, emotions should be treated as discrete categories and each emotion is defined by a specific universal core relational theme. Each emotion also has its unique pattern of appraisal. The primary appraisal consists of goal relevance, goal congruence and type of ego involvement. The secondary appraisal includes blame or credit, coping potential and future expectations. The IZOF model, on the other hand, helps to better understand the relationship between emotion and performance. It consists of five basic dimensions: form, content, intensity, time, and context. The form dimension includes eight modalities: cognitive,

emotional, motivational, volitional, bodily, motor-behavioral, operational, and communicative. These modalities form a performance-related psychobiosocial state of a person (Hanin, 2000, 2003, 2010). The content dimension consists of four categories of emotion: pleasant-functionally helpful (P+), unpleasant-functionally helpful (N+), pleasant-functionally harmful (P-), and unpleasant-functionally harmful (N-). The intensity dimension refers to the intensity of each component of psychobiosocial state. The context dimension is the environmental characteristic of emotion intensity and content, and time dimension is associated with different situational emotion dynamics.

The primary aim of the study was to examine performance-related emotional experiences of a youth soccer team prior to and after the games throughout a competitive season using metaphor self-generation method. More specifically, the perceived importance and expectations about the games were investigated as antecedents of the team's emotional experiences. Also, the perceived individual performance, perceived team performance, game outcomes, and the post-game experiences of the team were studied. Finally, temporal dynamics of the team were explored.

2 PERFORMANCE-RELATED EXPERIENCES

2.1 Conceptualization of emotions

There is some confusion about the terminology of emotion and other related constructs such as mood and affect. Some researchers have used the terms interchangeably. However, the main difference between emotion and mood, found in the literature and relevant to the current study, is that emotions are usually relatively short in duration, high intensity and action oriented reactions to something, whereas moods are usually relatively long lasting, low intensity, not action oriented nor related to a specific event or cause (Lazarus, 1991; Lane, & Terry, 2000). Affect, on the other hand, is considered to be a broader concept referring to the experiential aspect of all valences responses, including emotion and mood (Lazarus, 1991; Gross, 1999). In the current study, the emotional experiences of a team were investigated.

Lazarus (1991) developed the cognitive-motivational-relational theory (CMRT) to better understand emotions. The cognitive aspect of the theory refers to one's appraisal of the situation as well as evaluation on how relevant the situation is to one's life. The motivational aspect refers to individual's goals, the relevance of goals, goal congruence, and perceptions of personal resources and self and world in general. The relational aspect refers to emotions always involving the person-environment relationship, which changes over time or circumstances and involves harms or benefits. Lazarus (1991, 2000) suggested that emotions should be treated as discrete categories that are represented on a scale from weak to strong. Each emotion is defined by a specific core relational theme that is universal and describes the person-environment relationship of that emotion. Hence, different emotions occur when situations are evaluated in different aspects and the pattern of appraisal is different for each emotion. A structural model of appraisal is needed to examine appraisals and individual emotions. Lazarus (1991, 2000) distinguished between two types of appraisals or evaluations: primary and secondary. Primary appraisal includes the evaluations of the motivational relevance (i.e. how relevant is the situation to the person's needs? how important is the situation to the person's well being?), motivational congruence (i.e. is the situation consistent or inconsistent with the person's goals? is the situation beneficial or harmful/threatening?), and

ego involvement (goal content) (i.e. what kind of goal is at stake?). Secondary appraisal includes the evaluation of one's resources (i.e. who is held accountable and responsible?), options for coping (i.e. should problem-focused coping or emotion-focused coping strategies be used?) and future expectations (i.e. expectation of how will the situation change? will it improve or get worse? will coping be effective or ineffective?), but is not necessary to elicit all emotions. Secondary appraisal serves to differentiate among emotions and influence the intensity of emotions. The present study examined perceived game importance, perceived expectations of the games and team's performance related experiences to better understand the players' appraisals of the situations.

According to Hanin's (2003) Individual Zones of Optimal Functioning (IZOF) model, psychobiosocial (PBS) states can be described in terms of the five basic interrelated dimensions: form, content, intensity, time, and context. Form, content and intensity describe the structure and function of the subjective emotional experiences and meta-experiences, whereas time and context are associated with the dynamics of the athlete's subjective experiences in a sport specific setting. The form dimension consists of eight interrelated modalities: cognitive, emotional, motivational, volitional, bodily, motor-behavioral, operational, and communicative (Hanin, 2000, 2010). These modalities form a performance-related psychobiosocial state of a person (Hanin, 2000, 2003). In the current study, a holistic, multimodal manifestation of form dimension is emphasized by examining athlete-generated metaphors as symbolical representations of the team's performance-related states.

The content dimension includes four categories of emotion: pleasant-functionally helpful (P+), unpleasant-functionally helpful (N+), pleasant-functionally harmful (P-), and unpleasant-functionally harmful (N-). The functionally helpful (P+ and N+) experiences tend to relate to successful performances, whereas the functionally harmful (P- and N-) experiences are typically associated with poor performance (Hanin, 2000). A lot of research has focused on studying single emotions such as anxiety but the present study uses a holistic approach to examine a range of positively-toned and negatively-toned emotions.

The intensity dimension refers to the degree or amount of each component of psychobiosocial

state. Hanin (2000) found that the level of intensity can influence the performance and therefore, proposed the 'in-out of the zone' notion. According to it, if the athlete's actual state is in his/her optimal intensity zone, the athlete is likely to have successful performance; whereas, if the athlete's actual state is out of his/her optimal intensity zone, the athlete is likely to have unsuccessful performance.

The context dimension is an environmental characteristic that consists of situational, interpersonal, intragroup, and organizational determinants of emotion intensity and content (Hanin, 2003, 2010). In the present study, the situational, interpersonal, intragroup, and organizational factors may have played a role when the anticipated or actual contact and interaction with others have influenced the emotional experiences. Also, the players' beliefs that a certain emotional experiences should or should not be present in certain situations might have been a factor. Moreover, individually challenging situations and other factors (e.g. weather or memories of the opponent) might have had a situational impact on the emotional experiences of the team.

The time dimension can be associated with different situational emotion dynamics such as present, past or future; short-term or long-term; or before, during or after performance. Previous studies on pre-, mid- and post-performance have showed that the emotional content and intensity of the athlete's experiences vary from practice to competition and after success and failure (Hanin, & Stambulova, 2002; Hanin, & Syrjä, 1996). Longitudinal studies in sporting context concerning emotions are scarce. However, an investigation conducted by Syrjä (2000) studied 68 players of two Finnish under-21 national soccer teams 11 and 10 times within a two year period. He examined their performance-related emotional experiences using the individualized emotion profiling procedure based on the IZOF model. The findings revealed that the content of individually developed emotion scales differed a lot among players and the players used different adjectives to describe their states in successful and unsuccessful performances. Furthermore, the emotion patterns at the inter-individual and group level remained similar but at the intra-individual level emotion profiles and intensity zones varied. Finally, he also found that the emotions were very different for pre-game, mid-game and post-game, and that the in-out of zone hypothesis was supported for the pre-game and mid-game

measurements for successful performances but not for unsuccessful performances. In the present study, the short-term dynamics are examined as the data is collected in real time, prior to and after each game of the season. Also, the long-term dynamics of the team's experiences are explored as the data is collected throughout the season.

In the literature, emotional climate is defined as the collective emotions generated through the social interaction of members in a group in a particular environment or setting. It reflects how individuals think the majority of others are feeling in the group. Emotional climate is not a short temporary state but a relatively stable pervasive emotional phenomenon (De Rivera, 1992). De Rivera and Páez (2007) believed that emotional climate might also be helpful in predicting collective behavior. In sporting context, the term climate is most used when talking about motivation. However, in this study, the term climate is used as a metaphor to refer to the changes in the emotional experiences over a period of time. To our knowledge, the only study focusing on emotional climate in sporting context is Mankad, Gordon and Wallman's (2009) study on the perceptions of emotional climate in injured athletes. Therefore, this study will contribute to the literature on emotional climate in sporting context as inferences to a climate will be made by examining the temporal dynamics of experiences of the team over the course of a competitive season.

2.2 Measurement of emotions

Different approaches have been developed to measure athletes' emotional experiences. In the past, nomothetic approach used to be the most common consisting of a more broad outlook making predictions of athletes and exercise participants in general (Hanin, 2000). When applying a nomothetic approach, standardized scales, such as Profile of Mood States (POMS; McNair, Lorr, & Droppleman, 1971) or the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, & Tellegen, 1985), consisting of researcher-generated content, are used.

More recently, individualized approach has been used to more accurately capture individual's experiences. In an individualized approach, idiographic measures such as providing athletes with a stimulus list to choose words from to describe their emotions (Hanin, 2000, 2003), and

more holistic idiographic measures, such as the individualized emotion profiling (IEP; Hanin, 2000, 2003) or metaphor self-generation method (Hanin, & Stambulova, 2002) are utilized. Moreover, within the individualized approach there are methods that are developed to measure a range of pleasant and unpleasant emotions (Hanin, 2000), and other methods that are developed to measure single emotions (Ruiz, & Hanin, 2004a). Also, interviews and narratives are instruments used to measure individual experiences. In the present study, a holistic approach was taken by using the metaphor self-generation method to examine the team's emotional experiences prior to and after games.

It can be hard to describe emotions using literal language, especially for children and adolescents. Therefore, metaphors and nonverbal language can be an alternative way to express emotions (Plutchik, 1994). The Oxford English Dictionary Online defines metaphor as "a figure of speech in which a name or descriptive word or phrase is transferred to an object or action different from, but analogous to, that to which it is literally applicable". According to Ortony (1975), metaphors serve three communicative functions. First, metaphors enable one to express what otherwise would be difficult or impossible to express. Second, metaphors allow one to express large amount of information in a very concise manner. Third, metaphors make it possible to catch the vividness and quality of a unique experience. Hence, metaphors offer a holistic picture of one's understanding of something, emphasizing personal meaning (Ruiz, & Hanin, 2004b). Therefore, this study focused on the value of the metaphors to describe idiosyncratic emotional states.

The metaphors used to study emotions were usually researcher generated (Hanin, & Stambulova, 2002) until Hanin and Stambulova (2002) developed the metaphor self-generation method, which provided athletes with a possibility to describe their feelings using metaphors, which best fit in the situation. In the concerned study, 85 Russian athletes were identifying and interpreting metaphors, which best described their feeling states prior to, during and after their recalled best ever and worst ever competitions. The results showed that the metaphors generated by athletes were highly idiosyncratic, holistic and action oriented, and therefore, more accurate, compared to metaphors that were generated by researchers. Analogous results were obtained when Ruiz and Hanin (2004b) studied 16 highly skilled Spanish karate athletes'

self-generated metaphors and descriptors of feeling states prior to, during and after their recalled best ever and worst ever competitions. In the current study, athlete-generated metaphors were chosen to gain a better, holistic understanding of the performance-related experiences of the youth soccer team.

The research on emotional climate is scarce and focusing mainly on the emotional climate of organizations (Tran, 1998; Brown, & Brooks, 2002; Ruiz, 2007) and countries (De Rivera, 1992; De Rivera, & Páez, 2007). Researchers agree that emotional climate is a very complex concept and therefore difficult to measure. The most commonly used measures to examine emotional climate have been behavioral observation, questionnaires (e.g. a 24-item scale that attempts to measure each of eight different basic social feelings; De Rivera, 2002) and interviews. To our knowledge, the only study conducted on emotional climate in a sport setting is the perceptions of emotional climate in injured athletes (Mankad, Gordon, & Wallman, 2009), in which semi-structured interviews were used. In our study, emotional climate is not directly measured but rather examined by exploring the temporal patterns of the experiences of the team.

2.3 Emotion-performance relationships

Athletes, coaches, researchers, and practitioners acknowledge emotions as vital part of the competitive experience (Botterill, & Brown, 2002). In sport psychology, a lot of research has been conducted on athletes' subjective emotional experiences in relation to their successful and unsuccessful performances (e.g. Hanin, & Stambulova, 2002; Ruiz & Hanin, 2004b; Robazza, Bertollo, & Bortoli, 2006). The goal of the research has been to recognize athletes' optimal states of functioning in order to develop and implement individualized interventions. Botterill and Patrick (2003) highlighted that in team sports "the effects of emotion are exponentially expanded" (p.115) because each player's emotions have an influence on the other players' emotions and the emotional climate of the team. Despite that, research on emotional experiences at a team level is scarce. The current study attempts to fill this gap by examining the individuals' perceptions of the emotional experiences of the team prior to and after each game of a season.

In an organizational setting, concepts of group emotion and emotional atmosphere have been studied as an attempt to understand emotions in a group. According to Kelly and Barsade (2001), the combination of the group's affective composition and the affective context in which the group is behaving constitute the group emotion. Therefore, group emotion is a result of individual's emotions and sharing of the emotions within the group. The emotional atmosphere, on the other hand, is defined as the relatively short-term collective feeling, mood or behavior of the group. The emotional atmosphere is situational and can easily change. It is usually composed of an emotional event that the group experiences as a whole or that affects the entire group (Rime, 2007). Therefore, as studies on emotional experiences of a group are rare, the concepts of group emotion and emotional atmosphere can further help to understand the process of emotions in a group setting.

It is important to recognize that the emotion-performance relationships are bidirectional and dynamic. Prior to a performance, emotions can be beneficial or detrimental for the performance, whereas ongoing evaluations of performance affect mid- and post-event emotions (Hanin, 2000). Within the IZOF model, emotion-performance relationships are explained using resources-matching hypothesis. Optimal emotions reflect availability and effective use of resources, whereas dysfunctional emotions reflect lack of and ineffective use of resources. Furthermore, Hanin (2003, 2007) stated that there are three types of performance-related experiences: emotional or state like experiences that are actual experiences, patterns of emotions or trait like experiences that are repeated experiences, and meta-experiences that are knowledge, beliefs and attitudes about the experiences. The present study examined the emotional experiences of the team prior to and after the games (i.e. situational emotion states). Furthermore, whether the team's emotional experiences remained the same or were different over a number of games (i.e. the patterns of the emotional experiences) was investigated. Finally, meta-experiences were reflected on athletes' symbolic representations of the team's emotional experiences.

3 FEMALE SOCCER

Pirinen (1993) found that females' status in sport culture has been influenced by perceptions of what is suitable for females' personality and body at the certain time period (as cited in Vehviläinen, & Itkonen, 2009). Furthermore, Laine (2004) stated that females have always been set different kind of conditions, especially when participating and competing in manly sports (as cited in Vehviläinen, & Itkonen, 2009). The history of female soccer in Finland can be divided into four distinct periods: 1971 to 1981 was "the organizing" period, 1982 to 1991 was "the stabilizing" period, 1992 to 2000 was "the fields invite players" period, and from 2001 to 2006 was "the leap to popular" period (Vehviläinen, 2008).

During "the organizing" period, females' role in the society became gradually more equal and independent. However, the resources in sport were still quite limited and the operations and policies were not very systematic. In 1971, the competitive female soccer started when the Finnish Football Federation, encouraged by FIFA and UEFA, took over the female soccer. The first Women's Finnish Cup was organized and a Women's Finnish Championship League started. In 1971, there were 984 listed female players and just a year later this amount more than doubled to 2,252. However, after the novelty disappeared, the female soccer did not expand much within the next ten years. There was a lack of coaches wanting to coach females, as well as general prejudice toward female soccer (Vehviläinen, 2008).

"The stabilizing" period was the time of fast economic growth in Finland leading into greater well-being and consumption among people. The role of female became even more equal due to equality laws. During this period, female soccer became part of the exercise culture in Finland, the league systems were stabilized and international contacts increased. Women and girls' soccer were divided as two distinct areas and development plans were created for both. The total amount of female players increased from a little less than 3,000 in 1982 to over 7,000 in 1991 (Vehviläinen, 2008).

The next period, "the fields invite players", was when the number of female soccer players kept gradually increasing. In the early 90s the recession hit Finland and influenced also the whole

exercise culture and sport organizations. Volunteering became very important part of female soccer. At the same time, attitudes toward female soccer started to become more positive. The Finnish Football Federation hired a person to be in charge of the female soccer. The competitions, leagues, coaches and scouts were reorganized, educated and developed. More resources were allocated to soccer at schools. The amount of registered female players in 1992 was 7,000 and gradually increased to nearly 14,000 by 2000. The exercise culture had now changed so that it was not unusual for females to participate in soccer (Vehviläinen, 2008).

"The leap to popular" was a period when the number of female players radically increased and national teams succeeded, resulting in increased overall interest in female soccer. The Finnish Football Federation started a project called "play soccer, dream, and enjoy" (= F.U.N) to renew the image people had about female soccer and to promote it as something that any girl or woman can enjoy. During this period, the amount of registered female soccer players increased from a little over 14,000 in 2001 to 21,000 in 2006, making soccer the most popular team sport among girls (Vehviläinen, 2008).

As the history shows, the role of a female soccer player in Finland has changed a lot within a short period of time. In the early 90s, the general opinion, even among the physical education teachers, was that females should not be playing soccer because it is males' sport. However, just a decade later, even in kindergartens, girls were playing soccer. Clubs had started princess leagues for 5 years old girls and soccer balls became available in pink.

Before and in the early 90s, a typical female soccer player was a tomboy, whereas now even the most girly girls choose soccer. As the culture has changed also the behavior and emotions surrounding the sport have changed. For example, when one of the researchers just 10 years ago was the same age as the currently studied team and played soccer in the same league, the players were pinching each other, stepping to each other's feet on purpose and calling each other with names on the field. Whereas, now the same age players do not do any of that. They definitely do not pinch the opponents, if they step on someone foot they apologize right away, and they rather compliment the opponent than talk trash to them. Twenty years ago, the girls who played soccer had to be "tough". A lack of competitiveness, crying and expressing

emotions were seen as weaknesses. Hugging players (when not celebrating a goal), complimenting someone's appearance, giggling, or wearing make-up on the field was not part of female soccer. Today, female soccer players can be anything across the board and freely express any emotions. Female soccer players can play to compete or just to have fun. They can cry when they make a mistake or fall down without anyone yelling at them to get up and stop being a baby. They can hug their teammate on the field just to show how much they like them. They can giggle all they want without anyone looking down on them. They can wear as much make-up as they want without having trouble to fit in. They can be happy, sad, angry, disappointed, excited, frustrated, or anything else without anyone judging them. In fact, today it is uncommon to see a female soccer player who does not show her emotions on and off the field. Therefore, the present study aims to describe the emotional experiences of a typical Finnish female team throughout a competitive season.

4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to examine performance related experiences of a youth female soccer team throughout a competitive season. Specifically, the study aimed at examining the perceived importance and perceived expectations prior to the games as antecedents of emotional experiences of the team. Furthermore, the relationship among outcomes of the games, the perceptions of individual and team performances and the team's emotional experiences after the games were studied. Finally, the temporal dynamics across the competitive season were also explored.

5 METHOD

5.1 Participants

The participants of this study were 24 female soccer players from a club team in central Finland with age ranging from 14 to 18 years (*M*=16, *SD*=1.25). They had played soccer for an average of 9 years (*SD*=2.22), 15 of them having played in the same team the previous year. Two of the participants were goalkeepers, 7 defenders, 5 midfielders, and 10 forwards. The team had a constantly changing composition with 17 of the participants playing in the team for the entire season and 7 coming from other teams to play games. Fifteen of the participants played 15 or more games, whereas 9 of the participants played 10 or less games. The season consisted of 21 games.

5.2 Instruments

5.2.1 Metaphor self-generation method

The metaphor self-generation method (Hanin, 2000; Hanin, & Stambulova, 2002) was developed to examine athletes' feeling states prior to, during and after best ever and worst ever competitions. First, the demographic information, asking the athletes' age, gender, sport event, sporting experience, and skill level, is collected. The concept of metaphor and examples of metaphors describing emotions in non-sport situations are briefly introduced for the athletes. By completing such open-ended sentence as, "When I am on a beach on a bright sunny day, I feel like…", the athletes generate metaphors and then by completing a paraphrase, "In other words, I feel myself…", the athletes give symbolic descriptions of their feeling states. Finally, when the athletes understand the idea of metaphoric description of their psychological states, they are ready to describe their performance experiences.

In this study, the metaphor self-generation method was used in a slightly different manner. First, the demographic information (players' age, position, the name of the team the participant played for the previous season, and the total number of years played) was gathered. Then, prior

to the games, the players were asked to complete the following sentence: "Right now, your team's atmosphere is like…" and to paraphrase the sentence: "In other words…" After the games, the players were asked to answer the same questions to describe their perceptions of the team's experiences.

5.2.2 Perceived importance and expectations of the games

Prior to the games, the participants were asked to rate how important they perceived the forthcoming game was to them on a 10 point scale (0=unimportant, 5=somewhat important, and 10=very important). Player's expectations were assessed by asking them to complete an open-ended question: "What do you expect from this game?" Finally, the players were given a possibility of writing additional comments about the game or their states.

5.2.3 Performance measures

After the games, the players were asked to rate their own performance as well as the performance of the team on a 10 point scale (0=very poor, 5=average, and 10=very good), and finally, provide comments about the game. Game results were recorded.

5.3 Procedure

Before the season began, a meeting was organized with the players and their parents to explain the purpose of the study. During the meeting, the used methodology was introduced, a chance to practice creating metaphors was given, and any questions concerning the method were clarified. The voluntary nature of participation in the study and the anonymity of responses were emphasized. At the end of the meeting, the players gave their informed consent.

The pre-event data collection was conducted one and half hours prior to each game of the season in the locker room using the pre-game sheet (Appendix 1). The post-event data was collected immediately after each game of the season in the locker room using the post-game sheet (Appendix 2). Each player filled out the sheet and put it inside an envelope. Additionally,

other factors (e.g. weather, condition of the field, and things that happened before, during or after the games) were written down by the researchers following each game.

5.4 Role of the researchers

As one of the researchers was involved in coaching the team, the data was collected by the second researcher and kept in closed envelops until the season was over. When analyzing and interpreting the data, the researchers attempted to understand the participants' subjective experiences (an emic perspective). This was possible and rational as one of the researchers was part of the coaching staff (participant observer) and had an insider's view of the team. However, the second researcher was not part of the team and had an outsider's view of the team (an etic perspective). Furthermore, Rossman and Rallis (2003) stated that it is impossible to fully represent the participants' experiences, as researchers always include their own interpretations and understanding of what they have learned. Therefore, in the present study, emic and etic approaches were combined in order to gain a full understanding of the emotional experiences of the studied team over a competitive season.

5.5 Data analysis

The data were analyzed only at the end of the data gathering. A metaphor and associated interpretative descriptors formed a raw data text unit that included a single personal idea or meaning. The text units were analyzed in an inductive and deductive manner (Patton, 2001). In an inductive content analysis, the metaphors and associated descriptors were categorized according to emerging themes and patterns reflecting their idiosyncratic characteristics. Then, a deductive content analysis was used to test and affirm the appropriateness of the categories by examining the data that did not fit the categories.

Deductive content analysis was also used to examine the perceived expectations about games. The expectations were divided into three pre-established main categories of positively-toned, negatively-toned, and neutral expectations. All analyses were conducted independently and, at all stages of analysis, consensus was reached between both researchers.

Paired samples t-tests were conducted to examine differences in the ratings of importance, perceived individual performance and perceived team performance between spring and fall games, as well as between home and away games.

6 RESULTS

6.1 Emotional experiences of the team

The players generated 604 individual metaphors and 1918 descriptors. The metaphors were idiosyncratic. Out of the 604 metaphors 569 (94%) were entirely different and used only once. Thirty-five (6%) metaphors were used more than once in a following way, 26 metaphors were used twice, six metaphors were used three times, two metaphors were used five times, and one metaphor was used 15 times (i.e. "bronze medal", after the last game of the season). Inanimate (58%) agents outnumbered animate (42%) agents. The inanimate category included objects (57%) e.g. *"balloon"*, foods (20%) e.g. *"melted ice-cream"*, abstract things (14%) e.g. *"black hole"*, doings or happenings (4%) e.g. *"being sick"*, and places (4%) e.g. *"sauna"*, whereas the animate category included human beings (51%) e.g. *"mother after birth",* animals (41%) e.g. *"bear"* and other characters (8%) e.g. *"Eeyore"*. As expected, the content of the metaphors was holistic and referred to emotions and nonemotions.

Fifteen different categories that included emotions and other modalities of performance states were extracted from the players' symbolic descriptions. Out of the 15 categories, happiness (i.e. happy, cheerful, and satisfied), anger (i.e. irritated), sadness (i.e. disappointed), and anxiety (i.e. nervous) were in line with Lazarus' (1991, 2000) discrete emotion categories. The rest of the categories, willingness, tiredness, calmness (i.e. relaxed), focused, best, good, sluggish, busy, hot, anticipatory, and quiet, were related to different modalities of performance states. Table 1 represents the five most selected descriptors prior to and after the games during the spring. Table 2 displays the five most selected descriptors prior to and after the games during the fall.

Table 1 Top-5 Most Selected Descriptors Prior to and After the Games in Spring, (N=10).

Experiences	N (%)
Prior to performance	
Happiness (happy, cheerful)	9 (90)
Tiredness	6 (60)
Willingness	5 (50)
Anxiety (nervous)	3 (30)
Hot	2 (20)
After performance	
Happiness (happy, cheerful, satisfied)	9 (90)
Anger (irritated)	4 (40)
Tiredness	3 (30)
Sadness (disappointed)	3 (30)
Busy	1 (10)

Table 2 Top-5 Most Selected Descriptors Prior to and After the Games in Fall, (N=11).

Experiences	N (%)
Prior to performance	
Happiness (happy, cheerful)	9 (82)
Willingness	8 (73)
Anxiety (nervous)	5 (45)
Relaxedness	4 (36)
Tiredness	2 (18)
After performance	
Happiness (happy, cheerful, satisfied)	6 (55)
Tiredness	5 (45)
Sadness (disappointed)	5 (45)
Anger (irritated)	4 (36)
Quiet / Best	1 (9)

6.2 Perceived importance, games' expectations and team's experiences

The perceptions of game importance, as presented in Figure 1, ranged from 1 to 10. At the

group level, most of the games were considered quite important (*M*=7.85, *SD*=1.04) but there were differences between the individuals' perceptions of their importance (see Figure 1). The substitutes and injured players (with lower probabilities of playing) perceived games often as less important. Interestingly, at the group level, the fall season (*M*=8.40, *SD*=1.21) was seen as significantly more important than the spring season (*M*=7.24, *SD*=1.82), t(17)=-4.63, p<.001. Correspondingly, the pre-game emotional experiences of the team differed between the spring and the fall. During the spring, the team's emotional experiences prior to the games were more often tired, whereas during the fall, willingness, anxiety and calmness were more often reported. Also, the post-game emotional experiences of the team varied, in accordance with the perceived importance, between the spring and the fall. During the spring, happiness was reported more often after the games, whereas during the fall, sadness and tiredness were reported more often after the games. Especially interesting was the difference after the games tied. During the spring, happiness was usually reported after the games tied, whereas, during the fall, sadness was always reported after the ties. The home (*M*=8.09, *SD*=0.43) games were perceived significantly more important than away (*M*=7.77, *SD*=0.54) games, t(15)=2.81, p<.05. However, there was no difference in the emotional experiences of the team prior to home or away games.
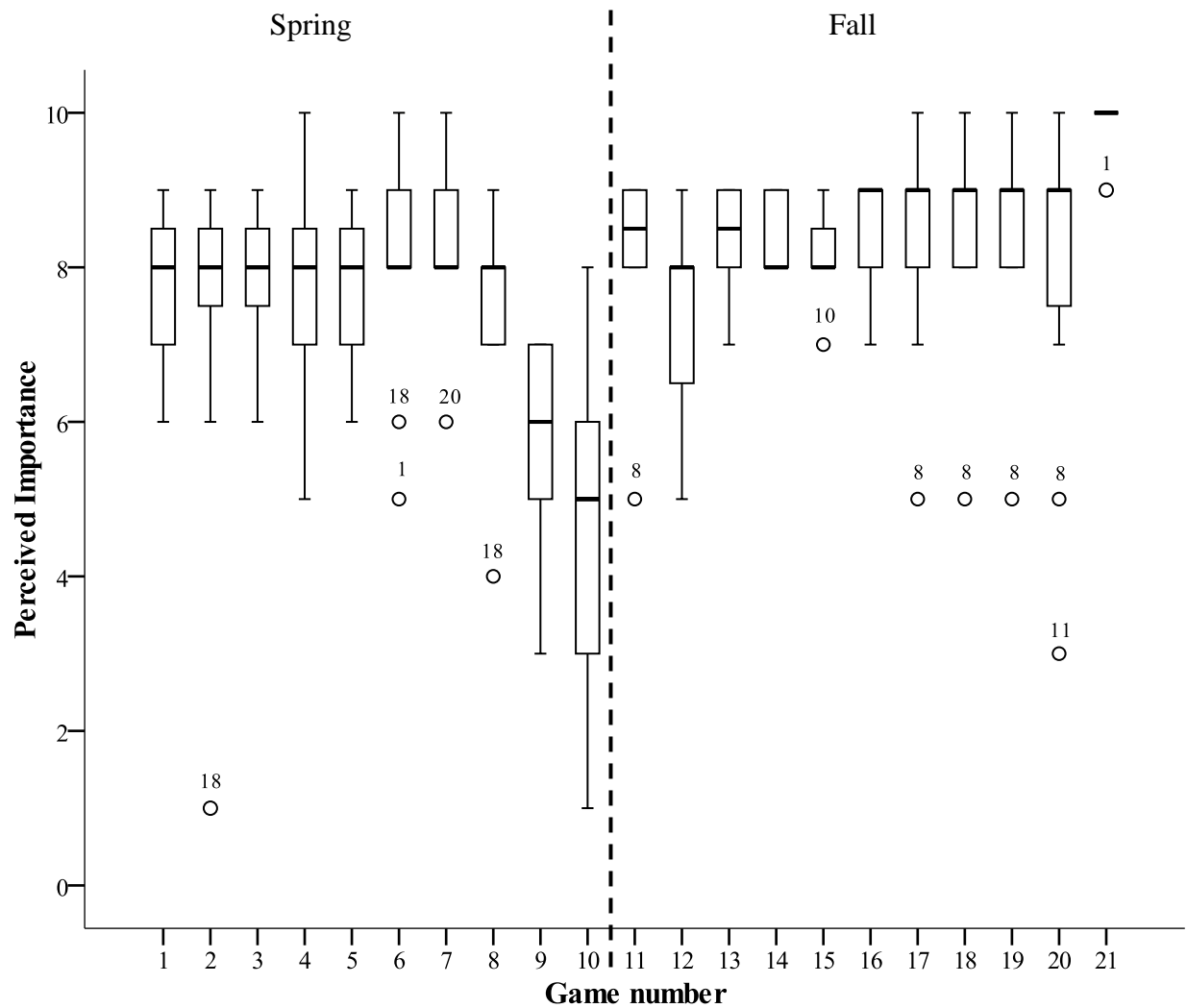
Figure 1. The players' perceived importance of the games throughout the season, N=24.

Prior to the games (number 6, 7, 18, 19, and 21) that were perceived as most important, the team's most reported experiences were happiness, willingness and anxiety. Prior to the games that were considered as least important (9 and 10) and in which the variability in the perceptions of importance were high, happiness, sluggishness and calmness were reported.

The players' perceived expectations of the games (see Figure 2), for the whole season, were mainly positive (75% of 848 expectations), e.g. "I expect to see good passing game and us winning".
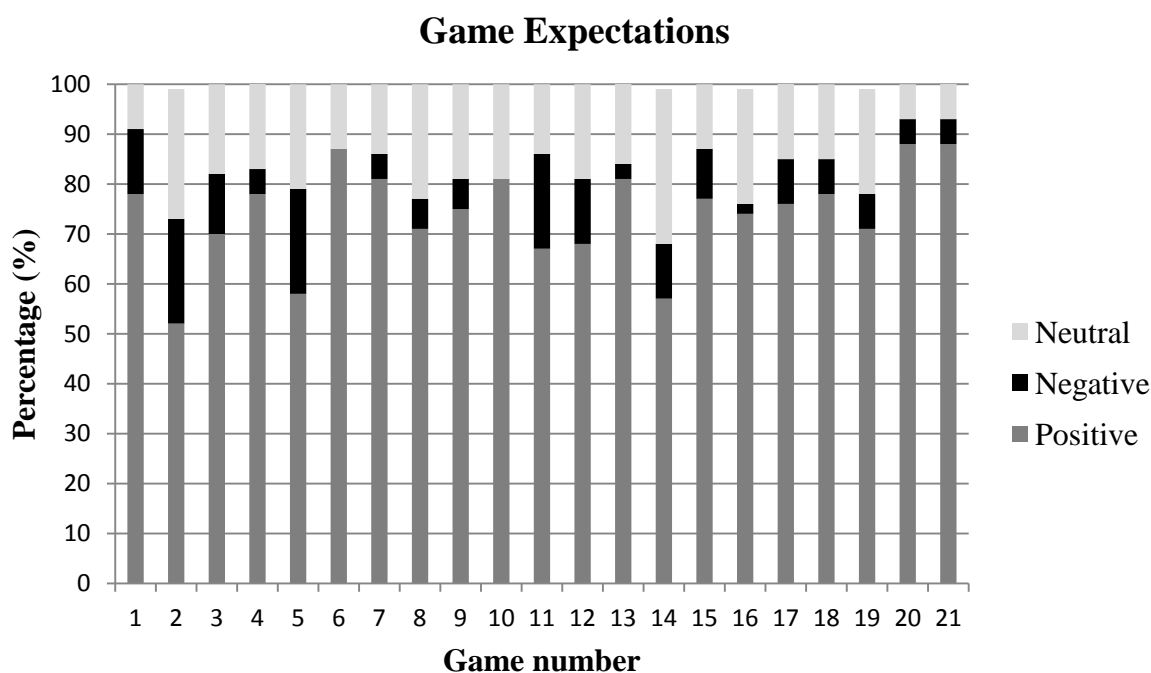
Game Expectations

Figure 2. Players' perceived games' expectations throughout the season, N=24.

Prior to the games (number 2, 5 and 14) where the expectations were the least positive (<60%) of the season, the experiences of the team were mainly tired and quiet. Prior to the games (number 6, 7, 10, 13, 20, and 21) where the expectations were the most positive (>80%) of the season, happiness and willingness were the most common experiences of the team. Furthermore, when anxiety or calmness was reported prior to a game, the expectations were always very positive (79%). There was no significant difference in perceived expectations between the spring and fall or home and away games.

The studied team played twice against a team that had won the league the previous season. Although the team won both games, the expectations were more positive (81%) and less negative (5%) before the first game compared to the second game (57% positive and 11% negative). Happiness, willingness and anxiety were the reported emotional experiences before the first game and the game was anticipated as a challenge, whereas before the second game, the team's emotional experiences were tired and quiet and the game was anticipated as a threat. After both games, happiness was reported. The studied team also played twice against the team that was second in the league the previous year. The team lost both games but the expectations

were clearly less positive (52%) and more negative (21%) before the first game than before the second game (74% positive and 2% negative). The experiences of the team before the first game were tired and quiet and the game was anticipated as a threat, whereas willingness, happiness and anxiety were reported before the second game and the game was anticipated as a challenge. After both games, sadness, anger and tiredness were the most reported emotional experiences of the team, but also happiness was reported after the first game.

6.3 The emotion-performance relationship

Overall, the studied team won 9 games, lost 4, and tied 8. They scored 47 goals and let in 27 goals. The fall season was more successful than the spring season as the team won six games, tied three and lost two. Playing away, the team was more successful as they also won six games, tied three and lost two. Moreover, the team scored 31 goals at away but only 16 at home.

Figure 3 illustrates the outcomes of the games. The team's post-game experiences for the most part reflected the outcomes of the games. After the games won, happiness was always reported, whereas after the games lost, sadness and anger were always reported; but during the spring also happiness was reported after the losses. Interesting was also that happiness was reported during the spring after almost all the games, despite their outcomes, whereas during the fall, happiness was reported only after the victories. Finally, the combination of sadness and anger was reported after most of the games tied, especially during the fall.
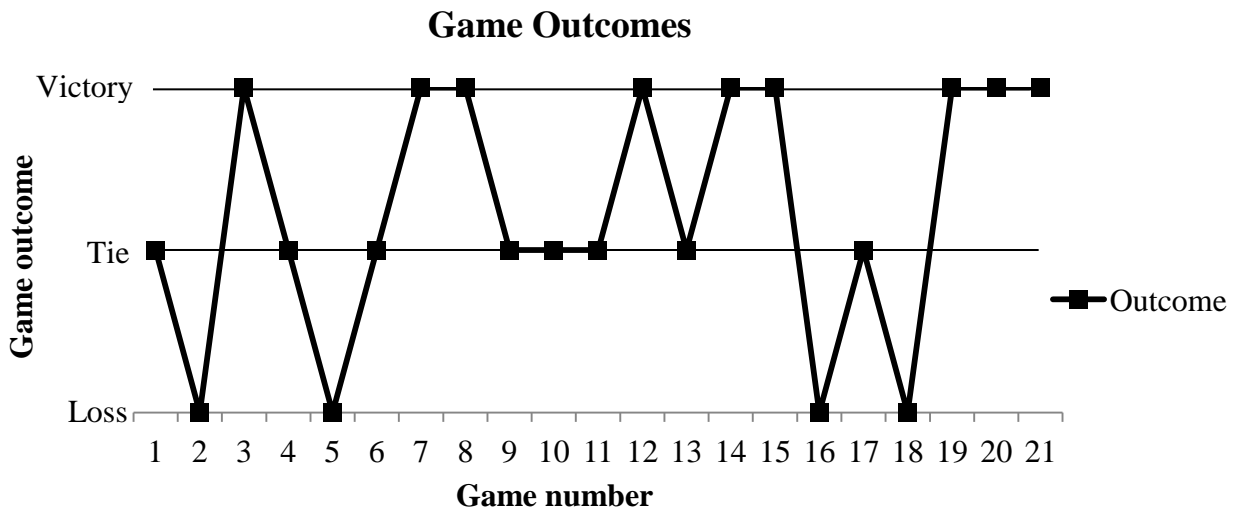
Game Outcomes

Figure 3. The outcomes of the games throughout the season, N=21.

The ratings of individual performance ranged from 0 to 10 (see Figure 4). The players who did not play in the game, did not rate their individual performance. The perceived individual performance for the most part reflected the outcomes. As expected, at the group level, the perceived individual performance was rated higher after the games won (*M*=7.56, *SD*=1.25) than after the games lost (*M*=5.51, *SD*=2.08).
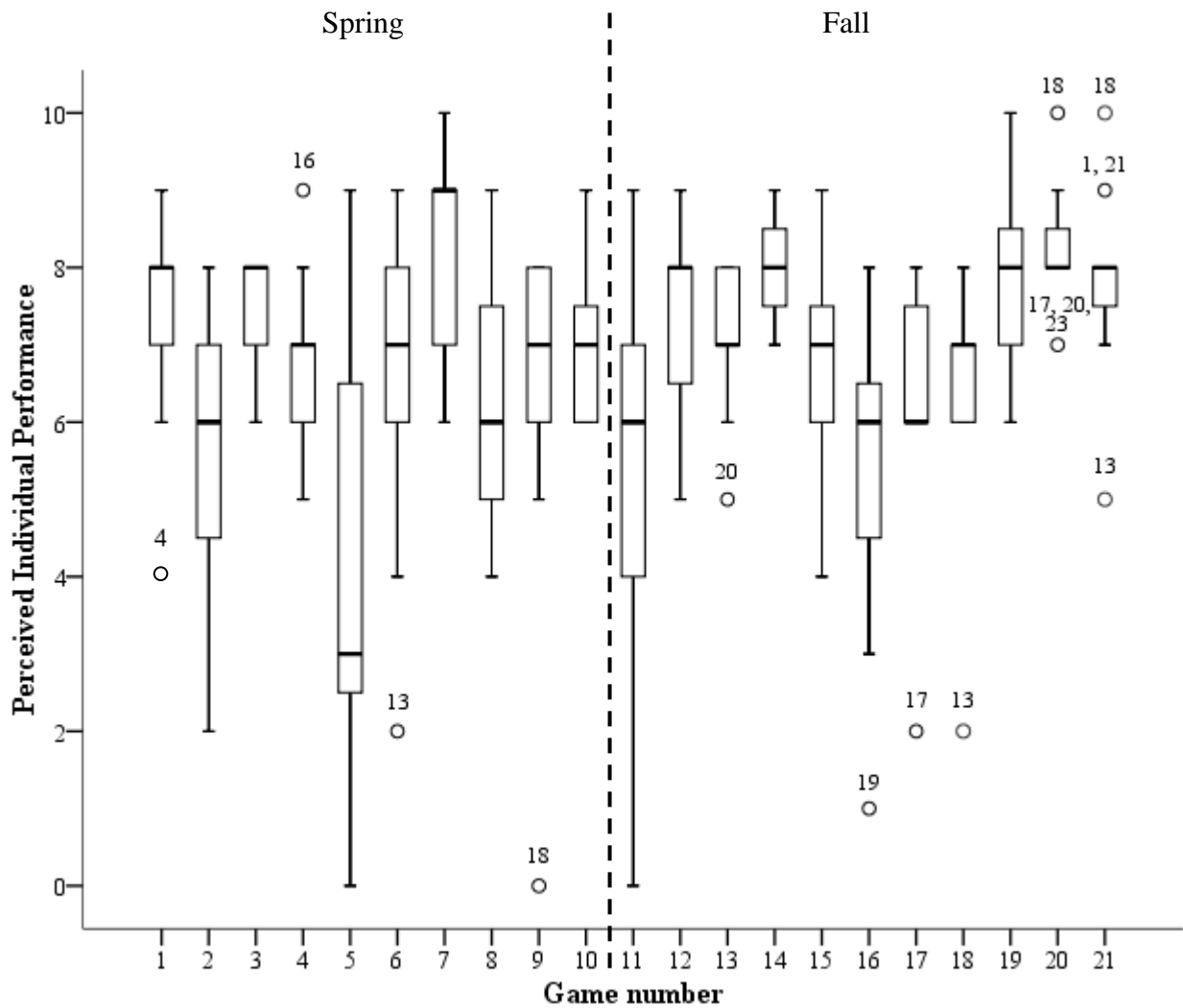
Figure 4. The players' perceived individual performance throughout the season, N=24.

The individuals perceived having performed better (*M*=8.04, *SD*=0.98) in games number 7, 14, 19, and 20 and happiness was the most reported emotional experience after those games. In games number 2, 5, 11, and 16, the individuals perceived their performances as worse (*M*=5.22, *SD*=2.24) than in other games and the most reported emotional experiences of the team after the games were sadness, anger and tiredness.

The ratings of the team performance ranged from 5 to 10 (see Figure 5). All the players (even the ones who did not play) rated the team's performance. The team performance was rated quite high for all games, despite the outcomes. However, during the fall season, the ratings of the team performance varied more between games and were more in line with the outcomes. As

expected, the perceived team performance was rated higher after the games won (*M=8.77, SD=0.95*) than after the games lost (*M=7.08, SD=0.99*).
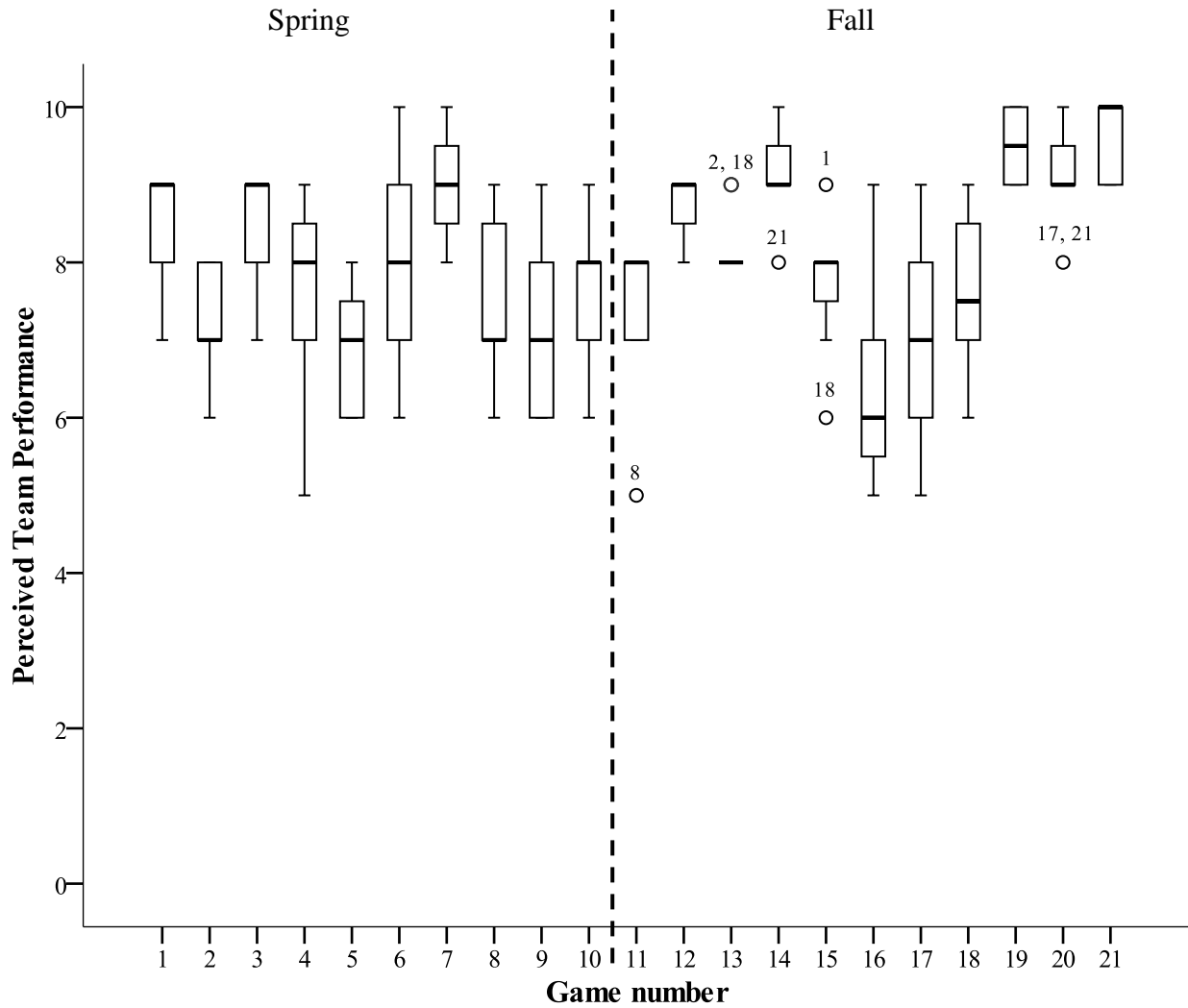
Figure 5. The players' perceived team performance throughout the season, N=24.

The perceived team performance ratings revealed that the team perceived having performed better (*M=9.01, SD=0.69*) in games number 7, 14, 19, 20, and 21, and happiness was the most reported experience of the team after those games. In games number 5, 16 and 17, the team perceived their performance as lower (*M=6.77, SD=1.00*) than in other games, and sadness and anger were the most reported emotional experiences of the team after those games.

6.4 Temporal dynamics of the team's emotional experiences

Happiness was the most reported emotional experience of the team throughout the season. Only low levels of negative emotions were reported (e.g. disappointed and irritated). Thus, the emotional climate of the team was happy.

During the fall season there was a phase when the team lost, then tied, and again lost a game. The games were perceived as important (M=8.41, SD=1.00) and the expectations were positive (76%). Happiness, willingness and anxiety were reported prior to those games and before every game for the rest of the season. Therefore, even the sadness and anger that were reported after the games did not manage to shift the temporal dynamics of the team.

7 DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current study was to examine performance related experiences in a young female soccer team throughout a competitive season. More specifically, the perceived importance and expectations of the games were examined as antecedents of the emotional experiences of the team. Furthermore, the relationship between perceived individual and team performances, outcomes of the games, and post-game emotional experiences of the team were investigated. Finally, inferences of the emotional climate of the team were made.

The players used emotions and non-emotions of performance states to describe the team's emotional experiences that was in accordance to previous research (Hanin, & Stambulova, 2002; Ruiz, & Hanin, 2004b). The current study indicated that the players' perceived importance of the games and perceived expectations about the games were important antecedents of the emotional experiences of the team. The impact of perceived importance was especially apparent when comparing the spring and the fall seasons. The fall season was perceived significantly more important than the spring season. When the perceived importance was lower, tiredness was more often reported prior to the games, whereas when the importance was higher, willingness and anxiety were emphasized. This finding is in line with Lazarus' (1991, 2000) proposal that appraisals of the situation influence the experienced emotions. However, it does not concur with Cerin and Barnett's (2011) finding that the importance of the event was more strongly related to negative than to positive affect. In the current study, out of the negatively-toned emotions, only anxiety was often reported when the game was perceived as very important but even it was usually combined with happiness and willingness. Therefore, the emotional experiences were mainly positively-toned even before the more important games. Interestingly, home games were also perceived significantly more important than away games. There may be many reasons for this, one being the players' will to perform well in front of their friends and family. Despite the difference in importance there was no difference in the team's pre-game emotional experiences in home and away games.

The current study also indicated that the perceived importance might have had an impact on the post-game emotional experiences of the team. Happiness was reported more often during the

spring even though the games were perceived as less important and the performance outcomes were worse during the spring. In fact, happiness was reported after almost every game and even after the losses during the spring. During the fall, on the other hand, sadness, and tiredness were the most reported emotional experiences, although the games were perceived significantly more important and the performance outcomes were better than during the spring. This time the results are congruent with the finding that the importance of the event was more strongly related to negative than to positive affect (Cerin, & Barnett's , 2011).

Another factor, that we were able to consider thanks to the exclusive access to the team, was the different team goals for the spring and the fall. During the spring, the team set a goal to remain in the league, whereas the goal for the fall was to be as close to the top as possible. The team goals had an effect on the post-game emotional experiences of the team. During the spring, happiness was reported even if the team performed poorly, whereas during the fall sadness was reported always if the team could not win even if they performed very well. Moreover, during the spring after the games tied, the post-game emotional experiences of the team were usually positively toned. This was because the team was satisfied with the one point they received because it helped them to achieve their goal (i.e. remain in the league). During the fall, the emotional experiences after the games tied were always more negatively toned because tying a game meant losing two points and making it harder for them to meet their goal (i.e. be at the top).

The perceived game expectations had an impact on the team's pre-game emotional experiences throughout the season. When the expectations were less positive, tiredness and quietness were the most reported pre-game emotional experience of the team. Prior to the games where the expectations were very positive, happiness and willingness were the most reported emotional experiences of the team. These findings are in accordance to Lazarus' (1991, 2000) proposal that if future expectations are very positive, positive emotions may be intensified, whereas if the future expectations are negative, negative emotions may be highlighted. However, interestingly, pre-game anxiety and calmness were always associated with very positive expectations. Prior to those games, the players anticipated their team to do well. However, when the players considered the opponent tough, anxiety was reported, whereas when the

players considered the opponent easy, calmness was reported.

The team anticipated the first game against the last year's champion as a challenge. The game expectations were really positive and the reported emotional experiences of the team were willingness, anxiety and happiness. The team managed to beat the team 1-0. The result was congruent with their goal and therefore, happiness was reported after the game. The second game against the same opponent was anticipated as a threat. Although, the team had beaten them once, the expectations were more negative and the team was not confident that they can beat them again. The studied team also had only 12 players in the line-up. The team's pre-game emotional experiences were tired and quiet. Despite that, the team won the game. The team exceeded their goal and therefore, happiness was reported after the game. The game against the opponent who had been second in the league the previous season was anticipated as a threat. Prior to the first game against the opponent, the expectations were the most negative of the season and the team did not expect to win the game. The emotional experiences of the team prior to the game were tired and quiet. The team lost the game. The result was congruent with their goal, hence happiness was reported. However, losing the game pulled the team further away from their goal of keeping their spot in the league and therefore also anger, sadness and tiredness were reported after the game. The second game against the same opponent was anticipated as a challenge as the team had had a lot more time to prepare, practice and play together. The expectations were clearly more positive and willingness, anxiety and happiness were reported prior to the game. Despite that, the team lost. The result was incongruent with their goal and therefore, sadness, anger, tiredness, and quiet emotional experiences were reported after the game. These finding were consistent with Lazarus' (1991, 2000) proposal that athletes anticipate a situation as challenging or threatening and the challenge appraisals usually elicit positive emotions, whereas threat appraisals elicit negative emotions. Cerin and Barnett (2011) found that goal congruence was negatively associated with negative affects and positively associated with positive affects. This was also the case in the current study as demonstrated above.

The studied team had a very successful season as they achieved their goals and did better than anyone outside of the team had expected. The outcomes were clearly better during the fall than

during the spring. The outcomes also clearly influenced the team's post-game experiences. As expected, after the team won, the emotional experiences of the team were positively-toned, whereas after the team loss, the emotional experiences were negatively-toned. However, during the spring happiness was also reported after the losses. This could have something to do with assigning credit or blame to oneself or others (Lazarus, 1991, 2000). It is possible that during the spring after the losses some credit were given to the opponents of how good they were or blame was directed toward, for example, environmental conditions, making the situation uncontrollable to the team. Therefore, even after the games lost, the team felt they had done everything they could. On the contrary, after the losses during the fall, the team was most likely only blaming themselves for the losses that resulted in sadness and anger.

Although, there were individual differences, at the team level, the perceived individual performance was strongly related to the outcome. When the outcome was good, the perceived individual performance was higher, whereas when the outcome was poor, the perceived individual performance was lower. The same did not happen with perceived team performance. The perceived team performance remained quite high throughout the season, despite the outcomes of the games. However, during the fall, the perceived team performance varied more between the games and was more strongly related to the outcome than during the spring. For example, in the three poor games that the team had in the middle of the fall, the team performance was perceived as clearly lower than, for example, after the last three victories. Overall, when the perceived performances were higher, the emotional experiences of the team were positively-toned, whereas when the perceived performances were lower, negatively-toned emotional experiences were reported.

In the current study, a home disadvantage effect was recognized as the team's performance outcomes were better at away than at home games. The team won twice as many games and tied fewer games at away than at home. The team also scored twice as many goals at away. The home games were perceived significantly more important than the away games. These findings are in line with Poulter (2009) who found that home disadvantage is more likely to occur when the game is important. Also, soccer is the sport where the home advantage effect is reported to be the strongest. Poulter (2009) defined the home disadvantage effect as deteriorated

performance due to increased self-awareness or concerns about self-presentation. The increased self-awareness and concerns about self-presentation could also be the reasons why the home disadvantage effect occurred at the studied team. Furthermore, Pollard's (2007) finding that home advantage appears at all levels of soccer, even when the crowd is small indicates that it was not the number of spectators but who the spectators were that mattered.

Overall, happiness was clearly the most reported emotional experience of the team throughout the season. Therefore, it is safe to say that the emotional climate of the team was happy. Only low levels of anger, anxiety and other negative emotions were reported during the season. Robazza, Bertollo and Bortoli (2006) found in their study of anger in contact sports that low skill level athletes have more difficulties in regulating negative emotions, whereas high skill level athletes know how to manage better their negative states. However, in the current study this did not show, as the players did not report much negative emotions except after the games lost. In the current study it is possible that, due to their young age, the players were not able to express all their emotions in the first place or that they experienced strong negative emotions at the individual level but it never reached the team level.

Halfway of the fall season, the team had a period when they lost, then tied, and lost again. The perceived importance was high, the perceived expectations were positive, and happiness, willingness and anxiety were reported before all three games and even prior to the rest of the games of the season. After the games, sadness and anger were reported. Interestingly, none of this had an impact on the emotional climate of the team. Robazza, Bertollo and Bortoli (2006) could help to explain these findings as they discovered that in team sports the pressure of having direct responsibility for performance is lower than in individual sports and therefore, athletes in team sports find it easier to deal with high levels of difficult emotions such as anger. Therefore, it is a possibility that the players of the current study did not feel directly responsible for things that happened on the field and therefore, even losing did not have an influence on their personal emotions and the emotional experiences of the team.

7.1 Strengths and limitations of the study

The first strength of this study was that the first researcher was part of the coaching staff of the studied team and therefore, had an unlimited access to the team. This allowed access to a lot of information that otherwise might not have been available. Also, having a second researcher with an outsider's perspective allowed an observation of the team from a different point of view. Second, the study was longitudinal allowing the researchers to make valid inferences about the dynamics of the emotional experiences of the team. Finally, an individualized approach was used which provided first-hand information on the players experiences.

There were also some limitations to this study. First, only one youth female soccer team was studied and therefore, the results apply only to the specific team for the specific time. Second, the team consisted of different age players whose linguistic abilities and awareness of their own and others' emotions may have differed. Therefore, they may not have known how they felt or may not have known how to label or describe their experiences, although their awareness may have increased toward the end of the study. Finally, even though the importance of giving honest answers and the fact that there are no correct or incorrect answers were emphasized, it is possible that the players wanted to make the experiences of the team sound more positive than what they actually were, especially at the beginning of the season.

7.2 Ethical issues

The main ethical issue faced in this study was that one of the researchers was part of the coaching staff of the studied team. The dual role of a coach and a researcher might have influenced the players' decision to participate and the answers they gave to describe the team's experiences. To deal with this ethical issue, prior to and during the study, the voluntary nature of participation, and the fact that the players can withdraw from the study at any point of the season with no consequences, were emphasized. It was also highlighted that whatever the participants' answers to the questions were, it would not influence their soccer participation as the data was collected to envelops that were opened only after the season was over. The athletes were also informed of the confidentiality of the results. That is, only the two researchers and

their supervisor would see the results, and in the thesis or in any other publication, their individual and the team's anonymity would be kept. The rest of the coaching staff would only receive a summary of the results.

7.3 Practical implications

The results of this study showed that the experiences of the team differed a lot during the season, especially between the spring and the fall. Therefore, when preparing for a new season, players, coaches and sport psychology professionals should anticipate differences in the experiences of the team. The perceived importance and expectations turned out to be important antecedents of the emotional experiences of the team. In general, the more important the game was perceived as, the more positive pre-game experiences were reported. Also, when the expectations were very positive, the pre-game emotional experiences of the team were positive as well. Therefore, coaches and sport psychology professionals need to pay attention to how they influence players' perceptions of the game importance and expectations. Coaches should learn to know their team, in order to recognize when to emphasize the importance and when not, or how to state their expectations. In this study, when the expectations were not met, very negative emotional experiences were reported. Thankfully, it did not have a negative impact on the emotional dynamics of the team but it could have had. Hence, coaches and sport psychology professionals should make sure that expectations set for the games are realistic and that the players learn ways to deal with adversity. Finally, it was also transparent that the emotional experiences influenced the outcomes and the outcomes had an impact on the emotional experiences. Therefore, if coaches or sport psychology specialists want to aim for better outcomes, the emotional experiences of the team could be the target of the intervention. In the present study, the dynamics of the emotional experiences remained positive throughout the season that led to a successful outcome. However, this is not always the case as high social cohesion may also have a harmful impact on performance (Rovio et al., 2009). Thus, in order to foster performance enhancing emotional experiences in the team, the coach or sport psychology professional needs to first find out what is functionally helpful for the concerned team. This study showed that, for example, the metaphor self-generation method is very useful tool in the assessment of athletes' experiences related to performance.

7.4 Recommendations for future research

The current study examined the emotional experiences of a youth soccer team. However, the type of sport and level of skills can influence the emotions experienced (Robazza, Bertollo, & Bortoli, 2006). Therefore, future research should investigate the emotional experiences of a team among different sports and different skill levels. Moreover, this study showed that more longitudinal studies ought to be conducted to get a broader picture on the emotional experiences of teams throughout competitive seasons. It would also be useful to conduct more qualitative inquiries to gain further understanding of the team's emotional experiences. Using open-ended questions could provide answers to many questions that in this study were only speculated. Also, interviewing the athletes before, during and/or at end of the data collection could give more insight to many aspects of the athletes' answers. In this study, the researchers had a great access to the team and lots of additional information was received. However, if the access to the team is limited, also interviewing or giving a questionnaire to the coach could be very useful in gaining another perspective. Finally, it would have been interesting to study the differences between the players' and the coaches' perceptions of the emotional experiences of the team. Therefore, future research should look more into both the players' and the coaches' perspectives and provide answers on how to make them more coherent when needed.

8 REFERENCES

Botterill, C., & Brown, M. (2002). Emotion and perspective in sport. *International Journal of Sport Psychology, 33*(1), 38-60.

Botterill, C., & Patrick, T. (2003). Understanding and managing emotions in team sports. In R. Lidor & K. P. Henschen (Ed.). The psychology of team sports (pp.115-130). Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.

Brown, R. B., & Brooks, I. (2002). Emotion at work: Identifying the emotional climate of night nursing. *Journal of Management in Medicine, 16*(5), 327-344.

Cerin, E., & Barnett, A. (2011). Predictors of pre- and post-competition affective states in male martial arts: A multilevel interactional approach. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine & Science in Sports, 21*, 137-150.

De Rivera, J. (1992). Emotional climate: Social structure and emotional dynamics. *International Review of Studies on Emotion, 2*, 197-218.

De Rivera, J., & Páez, D. (2007). Emotional climate, human security, and cultures of peace. *Journal of Social Issues, 63*(2), 233-253.

Gross, J. J. (1999). Emotion regulation: Past, present, future. *Cognition and Emotion, 13,* 551-573.

Hanin, Y. L. (2000). *Emotions in sport*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Hanin, Y. L. (2003, February). Performance Related Emotional States in Sport: A Qualitative Analysis. *Forum Qualitative Social Research*, *4*(1). Available at: http://www.qualitative-research.net/fqs-texte/1-03/1-03hanin-e.htm [Feb 26, 2003].

Hanin, Y. L. (2007). Emotions in sport: Current issues and perspectives. In G. Tenenbaum & R. C. Eklund (Eds.). Handbook of Sport Psychology (3rd ed.) (pp.31-58). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Hanin, Y. L. (2010). Coping with anxiety in sports. In Nicholls, A.R. (2010), *Coping in sport: Theory, methods and related constructs* (159-175). Nova Science Publishers, Inc.

Hanin, Y. L., & Stambulova, N. B. (2002). Metaphoric description of performance states: An application of the IZOF model. *The Sport Psychologist, 16*(4), 396-415.

Hanin, Y. L., & Syrjä, P. (1996). Predicted, actual, and recalled affect in Olympic level soccer players: Idiographic assessment on individualized scales. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 18*, 325-335.

Kelly, J. R., & Barsade, S. G. (2001). Mood and emotions in small groups and work teams. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 86*(1), 99-130.

Lane, A. M., & Terry, P. C. (2000). The nature of mood: Development of a conceptual model with a focus on depression. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 12*, 16-33.

Lazarus, R. S. (1991). Progress on a cognitive-motivational-relational theory of emotion. *American Psychologist, 46*(8), 819-834.

Lazarus, R. S. (2000). Cognitive-motivational-relational theory of emotion. In Y. L. Hanin (Ed.), Emotions in sport (pp.39-63). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Mankad, A., Gordon, S., & Wallman, K. (2009). Perceptions of emotional climate among injured athletes. *Journal of Clinical Sports Psychology, 3*(1),1-14.

Metaphor. (2009). *Oxford English Dictionary.* Oxford University Press. Retrieved February 2, 2010, from http://dictionary.oed.com/cgi/entry/00307429?single=1&query_type=word&queryword=metaphor&first=1&max_to_show=10.

Ortony, A. (1975). Why metaphors are necessary and not just nice. *Educational Theory, 25,* 45-54.

Plutchik, R. (1994). *The psychology and biology of emotion*. New York: Harper Collins.

Pollard, R. (2007). Home advantage in soccer: Variations in its magnitude and a literature review of the interrelated factors associated with its existence. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 29* (2), 169-189.

Poulter, D. R. (2009). Home advantage and player nationality in international club football. *Journal of Sport Sciences, 27*(8), 797-805.

Rime, B. (2007). The social sharing of emotion as an interface between individual and collective processes in the construction of emotional climates. *Journal of Social Issues, 63*(2), 307-322.

Robazza, C., Bertollo, M., & Bortoli, L. (2006). Frequency and direction of competitive anger in contact sports. *Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness, 46*(3), 501-508.

Rossman, G. B., & Rallis, S. F. (2003). *Learning in the field: An introduction to qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Rovio, E., Eskola, J., Kozub, S. A., Duda, J. L., & Lintunen, T. (2009). Can high group cohesion be harmful?: A case study of a junior ice-hockey team. *Small Group Research, 40*(4), 421-435.

Ruiz, M. C., & Hanin, Y. L. (2004a). Idiosyncratic description of anger states in skilled Spanish karate athletes: An application of the IZOF model. *Revista de Psicología del Deporte, 13*, 75-93.

Ruiz, M. C., & Hanin, Y. L. (2004b). Metaphoric description and individualized emotion profiling of performance states in top karate athletes. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 16*(3), 258-273.

Syrjä, P. (2000). *Performance-related emotions in highly skilled soccer players: A longitudinal study based on the IZOF model.* Doctoral dissertation, University of Jyväskylä, Jyväskylä, Finland.

Tran, V. (1998). The role of the emotional climate in learning organizations. *The Learning Organization, 5*(2), 99-103.

Vehviläinen, H. (2008). *Alussa oli mimmiliiga: Naisten jalkapalloilun muutos Suomessa vuosina 1971–2006.* Master's thesis, University of Jyväskylä , Jyväskylä, Finland.

Vehviläinen, H, & Itkonen, H. (2009). *Mimmiliigasta maailmalle: Tutkimus suomalaisen naisjalkapalloilun muutoksesta.* Kustannusyhtiö Ilias Oy.

Woodman, T., Davis, P. A., Hardy, L., Callow, N., Glasscock, I., & Yuill-Proctor, J. (2009). Emotions and sport performance. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 31*, 169-188.

APPENDIXES

Appendix 1. Pre-game questionnaire

ENNEN PELIÄ

PÄIVÄMÄÄRÄ

Kotijoukkue-Vierasjoukkue

Nimi: _____

Pelinumero: _____

1. Asteikolla 0-10, miten tärkeä tämä peli on sinulle? (ympyröi yksi vaihtoehto)

Merkityksetön   Keskinkertaisen tärkeä   Todella tärkeä

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

2. Mitä odotat tältä peliltä? _____

_____

_____

3. Juuri nyt joukkueesi ilmapiiri on kuin… _____

_____

_____

4. Toisin sanoen… _____

_____

_____

_____

5. Muita kommentteja: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix 2. Post-game questionnaire

PELIN JÄLKEEN

PÄIVÄMÄÄRÄ

Kotijoukkue-Vierasjoukkue

Nimi: _____

Pelinumero: _____

1. Asteikolla 0-10, miten sinä mielestäsi pelasit? (ympyröi yksi vaihtoehto)

Todella huonosti   Keskinkertaisesti   Todella hyvin

    0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

2. Asteikolla 0-10, miten joukkueesi sinun mielestäsi pelasi? (ympyröi yksi vaihtoehto)

Todella huonosti   Keskinkertaisesti   Todella hyvin

    0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

3. Juuri nyt joukkueesi ilmapiiri on kuin… _____

_____

_____

4. Toisin sanoen… _____

_____

_____

_____

5. Kommenttisi pelistä: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____