THE ATTITUDE OF COACHES AND STUDENT ATHLETES TO SPORT PSYCHOLOGY AND THE WORK OF A SPORT PSYCHOLOGIST

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Summary

The present article analyzes the attitude of sport coaches and sportsmen-students, who have participated in the SELL (Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania) games to sport psychology and the work of a sport psychologist. The research was performed in two directions: an analysis of specific literature and a questionnaire of sportsmen (based on the unique methodology of Martin et al, 2002), which allows determining tolerance to sport psychology, confidence in a sport psychologist, openness of respondents and links of cultural peculiarities. The survey showed that the coaches were not unanimous regarding the issues of the status of sport psychology and the work of a sport psychologist. Sportsmen-students indicated being tolerant, open and trusting in sport psychology and the work of a sport psychologist; however, in practice only 13 from 126 respondents had experience in consulting with a sport psychologist.

Keywords: sport psychology, work of a sport psychologist, attitude, tolerance, confidence in the work of a sport psychologist.

Introduction

The present-day reality is characterized by violent human activity in various areas, including sport. However, even today one of the weakest chains in sport activity is its psychological components, because sport psychology is a relatively new and young science. Its theoretical part is a little stronger, clearer, but the methodologies of the psychological preparation of sportsmen have not actually been settled. There is a toss between two extremes: on one hand, there exist claims that psychological preparation of sportsmen is exceptionally the business of the coach, while others consider that only a psychologist can select and implement the system of various preparation tools. The results of the psychological preparation of sportsmen depend on the skills of the coach (there are cases of a total lack of such skills) or on the subjectivity/objectivity of the psychologist in the selection of methodologies.

Thus the question of system’s management arises. The republican sport managers, sport clubs and teams should be customers. They set the tasks of the psychological preparation of sportsmen for coaches and psychologists, form social order and control its implementation because they manage this process and control the financial resources.
This ‘triumvirate’ (customer-coach-psychologist) should take into account that a young sportsman, who has been attending a sport school for a long time, participating in sport competitions, studying in the centres of Olympic reserves or the Football Academy, experiences partial sensory and social isolation, psychological famine, and the so-called deprivation. In the course of one—one and half years in a relatively closed system, young sportsmen experience critical developmental stages (intensification in the seventh and twelfth month): the interest in this sport branch decreases, adaptation diminishes, sensitivity and sensibility get subtle, psychological tension arises, progress stops, etc. (Sopovas, 2007). Thus they leave sport on their own decision or are discharged. In this area, many things depend on the position and activity of the sport psychologist who, in his turn, is controlled by his status, competence and human features. However, unfortunately, his/her activity is affected by the expanding market psychology as well. Sport psychologists mainly work with sportsmen and coaches. Thus the goal of the present research is to analyze the opinion of coaches and sportsmen about sport psychology and the work of sport psychologists. Well-known coaches and Baltic sportsmen-students were selected as the respondents of the research.

Tasks of the research: 1) to investigate the opinion of coaches about the work of sport psychologists; 2) to analyze the attitude of sportsmen-students to sport psychology and the work of sport psychologists; 3) to determine the relation of the respondents’ gender, the sport branch, the chosen profession, and the living environment to sport psychology and the work of sport psychologists.

The object of the research is sport psychology and the work of sport psychologists as perceived by coaches and sportsmen-students.

Research Methods

The following methods were applied in the research: analysis of specific literature, methodology for the determination of the attitude to sport psychology and the methods of mathematical statistics. Specific literature includes monographs by famous coaches and sportsmen and statements in press regarding these issues.

Martin et al (1997) prepared an original methodology for the investigation of attitudes to sport psychology. For the present research, its modified version, the Sport Psychology Attitudes-Revised Form (SPA-R) (Martin, Kellmann, Lavallee, 2002), was used.

In order to process the statistical data, the program Microsoft Office Excel 2003 as well as the SPSS 13.0 version of software was used. The Pearson correlation coefficient 1 was used for the analysis of data. The reliability of the scales of SPA-R was checked using the Cronbach’s α.

Research Materials

The research was performed in 2006-2007: in 2006 the SELL games of students took place in Estonia and 126 sportsmen-students were questioned using the SPA-R methodology in the English, Russian or Lithuanian languages: 40 sportsmen were from Lithuania, 38 from Latvia 24 from Estonia and 24 from Finland. 83 men and 43 women were questioned. They represented basketball (33 persons), swimming (23), football (22), track-and-field athletics (20), volleyball (6), orienteering (15), wrestling (4), and weightlifting (3). The age of the respondents varied from 18 to 29 (x=20.99).

The attitude of coaches and famous sportsmen was studied with reference to the analysis of specific literature.

Results of the Research

A part of coaches are interested in professional psychological consultation: when problems arise, the sport psychologist is addressed (Volkovas, 2007). Others would like to have a permanent sport psychologist in the team (Sivickis, 2007). Sometimes a sport psychologist is invited to solve the problems of a certain preparation stage, while others remember sport psychologists only in certain situations or in cases of particular problems (Sivickis, 2007).

The position of coaches regarding sport psychologists is best revealed by the statements of a famous basketball coach A. Gomelsky. In 1976 (p. 141) he wrote:

1 The difference when p<0.05, is considered to be statistically significant, and if the p value is from 0.05 to 0.100, it is considered to be a statistical tendency, i.e. the tendency when a relation between two objects is observed.
The light hand of Brazil football players caused a new position to appear in many world teams—a position of a psychologist, who is enforced to bear the heavy burden of the preparation of a team's will and the related lion's share in the responsibility for the results of the match. Personally I tend to criticize such a novelty. I think that there should not be any person in the team to solve the issues of psychological preparation instead of the coach. In my opinion, the main tasks of the coach are to train the will power of the players, their ability to strive for victory, to teach the students to overcome the problems of daily studies-exercises and matches (of course, this requires excellent knowledge of the issue, pedagogical mastership, intellect, etc.).

This statement shows evidently that the coach is sceptical (the opinion is even negative) about the work of a psychologist. In 1987 (p. 96) A. Gomelsky wrote:

It is evident that no clearly thinking coach would pass by the interesting advice or professional consultation regarding the issues of the training of the will of the player. [...] In recent ten-fifteen years, professional psychologists appeared in the teams. Moreover, some people expect nearly miracles from psychologists: they think that a talk of such a specialist, a doctor of souls, with a distracted sportsman will immediately result in punctuality and accurateness and a tablet to a sportsman from the top ten of the shiest will immediately turn him into a fighter. Actually, everything is much more complex. [...] In my opinion, no psychologist (neither the most intelligent nor the most literate) is able to decide, instead of the coach, how to turn players into fighters and make the team stable. A psychologist is totally helpless in the course of a game—it is not possible to arrange a consultation during the time-out. The moments are critical for the game and the coach has to undertake the responsibility for tactical reconstructions, changes, and, thus, the end of the match.

Does it mean that I deny the role of psychology? Not at all. But, in my opinion, the coach, first of all, should be a psychologist. And the history of many sport branches (not only basketball) testifies that the great coaches have always been the great judges of the character psychology of sportsmen. [...] [but] when one is engaged in our business, it is equal to death to decide that one already knows everything. Even if one has learnt to control 12-13 guys of difficult (I would even say the most difficult) characters, who are striving for the top in such a psychologically difficult sport branch as basketball. Briefly, a psychologist, maybe even a psychiatrist, is necessary in the headquarters of coaches.

It should be noted that the psychologist is necessary in the team, although his/her role is limited, more precisely, only informative-diagnostic.

In 2002 A. Gomelsky said to a sport correspondent: 'I think it is necessary to have the entire group of coaches divided into directions. One has to engage in athletic preparation, the other in psychological, the third in individual [...]’ (Rybalko, 2002).

One of the most famous basketball coaches needed a quarter of century to declare that a coach-psychologist responsible for the psychological preparation of sportsmen is necessary for teams.

The famous coach of ice-hockey V. Tichonov states that, what regards psychology, he trusts his intuition and experience: 'I have to notice that there are no trouble-free means in high psychological preparation of the players. I have learnt that one and the same attitude to a problem sometimes may “work” and in other cases prove to be completely unsuitable [...]. Thus, with regard to psychology, I mostly trust the coach’s intuition that is based on experience, of course.' (Tsypanev, 1982).

The famous handball coach A. Evtushenko (1986: 67) has been closely cooperating with sport psychologists. He has written:

The activity of sport psychologists in our team is very versatile. Once in a year they analyze the motivation of the players, determine whether there are conflicts between the players and, if yes, in what area—professional or emotional. About once in 3-4 months they specify the personal characteristics of the players.

Besides, sometimes special attention is paid to the adaptation of ‘rookies’ in the team, the ways of their inclusion into the team. In the educative-training camps, our assistants control how the players support the load, whether the psychological tiredness of sportsmen does not accumulate. Two days before a tournament, psychologists evaluate the sport form of the guys. Then they assess the level of preparation for the match with a certain rival. If I receive such information towards the end of the morning exercises, I can make a correct choice between 16 people and choose the 12 to play in the evening. Besides, as I have an overall picture of the internal condition of a player, I can lead him more effectively.

We do not see psychologists every day. However, their information works for us the entire year. I use it when I make individual plans where I write in detail the functions of each player in his club [...].

A. Evtushenko mainly regards sport psychologists as consultants who help him find optimal solutions.
In Russia, Smolenceva (2007) analyzed the attitude of experienced (at least 5 years of work experience) coaches (80 persons) to the psychological preparation of sportsmen and found out that the knowledge of coaches in this area was insufficient. 32% of the questioned coaches stated that the application of psychological tools was meaningful only in the stage of raising the sport mastership. Other 32% of the respondents stated that it was necessary to reorganize psychological preparation, i.e. that the psychological preparation of sportsmen did not receive any attention at all.

According to Sivickis (2007), 62.5% of coaches do not consider themselves as specialists in this area. They attribute the most important role for the sport psychologist invited to settle certain issues when they arise. However, the coach of psychological preparation is certainly necessary in a team.

The present research showed that 56.3% of the students-sportsmen were tolerant to sport psychology and 43.7% were less tolerant or completely intolerant.

With reference to the evaluation of the respondents’ gender and tolerance to sport psychology, no statistically significant correlation (p=0.506) between the gender of the respondents and tolerance was determined. However, women were found to be more tolerant than men (see Table 1).

Table 1. Correlation between the gender of the respondents and tolerance to sport psychology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SPA-R scale</th>
<th>Scale’s groups</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>In total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scale of tolerance</td>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerant</td>
<td>54.2%</td>
<td>60.5%</td>
<td>56.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intolerant</td>
<td>45.8%</td>
<td>39.5%</td>
<td>43.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p=0.506

The analysis of the country of residence of the students and tolerance to sport psychology (see Table 2) showed no statistically significant difference between these variables (p=0.382). According to the results, students from Finland (66.7%), Estonia (62.5%) and Lithuania (60.0%) were the most tolerant to sport psychology. A tolerant attitude was found to be characteristic to 42.1% of students living in Latvia, but more than a half of them were less tolerant or intolerant (57.9%). Besides, 40% of Lithuanian, 37.5% of Estonian and 33.3% of Finnish students considered that visiting a sport psychologist worsens the reputation of a sportsman and such visits should be confidential.

Table 2. Correlation between the country of residence of the respondents and tolerance to sport psychology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SPA-R scale</th>
<th>Scale’s groups</th>
<th>Residence</th>
<th>In total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scale of tolerance</td>
<td></td>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>Latvia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerant</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
<td>42.1%</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intolerant</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>57.9%</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p=0.382

No statistically significant difference between the sport branch represented by the respondents and tolerance to sport psychology (p=0.898) was determined. However, attention should be paid to the fact that the representatives of separate sport branches were evidently more tolerant that the respondents from sport games (see Figure 1).

The research attempted to determine the links between the future profession of the respondents and the attitude to sport psychology. The analysis of the results showed no statistically significant difference between the variables (p=0.440). Most of the questioned participants in the SELL games studied humanities (43.7%) and engineering (17.5%). According to Figure 2, the respondents studying business and administration (87.5%), followed by the students of law (66.7%) and medicine (66.7%), showed the highest confidence in a sport psychologist. Besides, high confidence in a sport psychologist was found to be characteristic to 57.1% of the respondents studying communications and 52.7% of the students of humanities. The interviewed students interested in architecture and engineering
showed a low level of confidence in a sport psychologist (42.9% and 63.6% respectively): according to them, the help of a sport psychologist is worthless.

Figure 1. Correlation between the main sport branches represented by the students and tolerance to sport psychology¹

Figure 2. Correlation between the main interest area of the students and confidence in a sport psychologist²

¹ Blue colour—high tolerance level; red colour—low tolerance level. X-axis: basketball, football, weightlifting, swimming, track-and-field athletics, volleyball, wrestling, other.

² Blue colour—low tolerance level; red colour—high tolerance level. X-axis: Agriculture, communications, medicine, nursing, architecture, education, law, business and administration, engineering, humanities, other.
However, it was determined that 54% of the respondents trusted in a sport psychologist, i.e. the respondents thought that a psychologist was able to help in achieving better results and solving problems, while 46% of the respondents trusted less or did not trust in a sport psychologist at all.

Correlation between gender and confidence in a psychologist was found to be statistically significant (p=0.029): women trusted in a sport psychologist more (67.4%) than men (47.0%). 53.0% of male respondents did not believe in the effectiveness of the consultations of a sport psychologist (only 32.6% of female respondents). The Estonian respondents showed the most trust in a sport psychologist (75.0%), while the Finnish respondents were found to show the least trust in such a specialist (only 33.3%) (p=0.010). The percentage of the Lithuanian respondents’ trust in a sport psychologist amounted to 55.0%.

The survey showed that personal openness of the respondents was mostly related to their education: the most open were the persons having a bachelor’s (63.8%) or master’s (60%) degree, while the most self-contained were the persons with secondary education (63.9%) and college graduates (57.1%) (p=0.012).

A statistical tendency (p=0.053) regarding the links between the future profession and personal openness of the respondents was observed. The most open personalities were future doctors (77.8%) and communication specialists (57.1%). The lowest level of openness was determined among the respondents studying education (83.3%), architecture (57.1%), engineering (54.5%) and humanities (54.5%).

Women can be said to be a little more open (51.2%) than men (47.0%) (but p=0.660). The highest level of personal openness was characteristic of the Estonian respondents (58.3%), and the lowest level was observed among Lithuanians (57.5%). The cultivated sport branch and personal openness were not closely related (p=0.817); however, the self-containment of volleyball (66.7%) and football players (72.7%) surprised.

Noteworthy is the fact that among 61 respondents characterized by a high personal openness, even 56 (91.8%) indicated to have never visited a sport psychologist, while eight from the 65 ‘self-contained’ respondents indicated to have had consultations and even more than once.

What regards cultural peculiarities, its correlations with the respondents’ main profession (p=0.080) as well as with the represented sport branches (p=0.084) were determined. Cultural peculiarities were found to have a little stronger effect on women (58.1%) than on men (51.8%) (but p=0.503). The Finnish respondents felt the biggest cultural impact (70.8%), and the Lithuanian—the smallest (45.0%).

The survey showed that male respondents from all 4 FELL countries did not tend to address a sport psychologist regarding sport-related (67.5%) or personal (63.9%) issues, while only 30.2% and 25.6% of the female respondents expressed such a position (p=0.0001).

The lowest sport psychologists’ evaluation scores were received from the Finnish respondents: 58.3% persons were not interested in a sport psychologists’ consultation regarding sport issues and an even higher percentage of the respondents were sceptical about discussing personal issues (66.7%). The most ‘amenable’ with regard to the discussion of personal issues with a sport psychologist were the Estonian respondents (only 37.5% would not go to psychologist).

Statistically significant (p=0.001) links between the previous experience of a visit to a sport psychologist and a wish to have a consultation again (regarding sport-related issues) was observed (see Table 3).

Table 3. Correlation between the previous experience of a visit to a sport psychologist and a wish to have a consultation again (regarding sport-related issues)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Visit to a sport psychologist</th>
<th>Wish to have a sport psychologist’s consultation regarding sport-related issues again</th>
<th>In total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I do not want at all</td>
<td>I partly want</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No visit</td>
<td>58.4%</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3 visits</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-5 visits</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 5 visits</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In total</td>
<td>54.8%</td>
<td>29.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p=0.001

Analogical results were received after the analysis of the sportsmen’s wishes to visit sport psychologists and discuss personal issues.
Discussion of Results

During the process of the present research, contradictions between psychological preparation, development of the theory of sport psychology and practical needs of the present-day sport were noticed. One of the reasons for such a situation is that coaches and sportsmen do not sufficiently or adequately evaluate psychological preparation and psychological regulation in sport activity. Coaches do not pay systematic attention to these questions stating that they are not able to assimilate the methodologies offered in scientific-methodical literature because of the lack of specific skills. Thus even the most famous coaches and sportsmen practice only a small part of psychological preparation and sometimes even not properly.

The present research showed that sport psychology and the work of a sport psychologist was at the level of knowing, declaration at least among the youth of the four countries under investigation: only 13 from 126 respondents have visited a sport psychologist and almost 55% of the respondents did not want to meet a sport psychologist at all.

Smolenceva (2007) analyzed the attitude of sportsmen of various mastership levels (900 persons) to psychological preparation. It was determined that the biggest part of the respondents (especially of high mastership) understood the meaning of psychology in striving for high results, but they thought that the sport psychologist and the coach have to prepare them. 51.3% of young sportsmen stated that psychological preparation was necessary only at the highest level of engagement in sport, while in the opinion of 57% of sportsmen of high qualification, psychological preparation and the studying of the conditions of psychological regulation should be conducted in the stage of the elements of sport specialization, because later this requires a lot of efforts and is little effective. This can be said to certainly be true; moreover, it has already been realized by the famous A. Gomelsky a quarter of a century ago (1976, 1987, 2002).

The research showed that the majority of sportsmen were tolerant to sport psychology (54.3%). Women were even more tolerant (60.5%) than men (54.2%). It can be presumed that this happens because of the lack of information, although, according to Leffingwell, Rider and Williams (2001), intolerance to sport psychology may show that the sportsman does not appreciate, even deprecate the aid of a sport psychologist. The intolerance of men is explained by their self-consciousness, ambitions, and fear about reputation and self-containment: at first a man will try to handle the problems troubles himself. If he goes to a psychologist and his friends, the coach or other persons important to the sportsman learn about this, he will lose reputation. Johnson (1988) has also determined that women tended to use the help of a sport psychologist more than men. This data is confirmed by the tests done by Martin et al (2001).

In the present research, the links between the respondents’ confidence in a sport psychologist and their gender, education and nationality were determined. The major part (54%) of the respondents trusted in a sport psychologist. The survey showed that women trusted in the effectiveness of the consultations of a sport psychologist more than men. With regard to nationality, the Finnish students were found to be the most tolerant to sport psychology (66.7%). However, they were the ones who trusted the least in the effectiveness of the consultations of a sport psychologist: the majority thought that a sport psychologist could not help them achieve high results. Cultural peculiarities affected the Finnish respondents more than the Estonian, Lithuanian or Latvian. This could be related to the distrust of Finnish respondents in the effectiveness of the work of a sport psychologist.

According to the data of the present research, the younger students (persons with secondary, college education or a bachelor’s degree) trust in sport psychology the most. Graduate or postgraduate students trust in a sport psychologist less or do not trust at all. Anderson et al (2004) made the same conclusion: the confidence of younger sportsmen and the sportsmen with higher education in sport psychology does not differ. However, these authors indicated that the sportsmen of lower education resisted more to the help of a sport psychologist and did not believe in its effectiveness.

Differently from the present research, Martin (2005) made a conclusion that the sport branches with a strong physical contact (e.g. wrestling, football, basketball) were characterized by a more negative attitude to the significance and effectiveness of the consultations of a sport psychologist than in the sport branches without physical contact (e.g. swimming, tennis, track-and-field athletics, etc.). In the present research, however, such a tendency was not observed.

No statistically significant difference between the respondents’ opinions and cultural peculiarities was found, but the data showed that cultural peculiarities had the smallest effect on the Lithuanian respondents and the biggest on the Finnish and Estonian sportsmen.

The survey revealed that personal openness of the respondents was mostly dependant on their education and future profession, while gender, nationality, sport branch and visits to a sport psychologist had a smaller effect. It was determined that openness was characteristic to 48.4% of the respon-
students, while their self-containment was higher (51.6%). The data of the present research corresponds to the data received by Donohue et al. (2004) who determined that the sportsmen who did not tend to publish personal information openly, encountered internal barriers when the help of a sport psychologist was needed. The skepticism of sportsmen regarding sport psychology is usually the main reason why they avoid using the advice of a sport psychologist (Bull, 1991). Postgraduate and graduate students are characterized by a biggest personal openness, while the sportsmen of secondary or college education are more self-contained.

According to the data of the present survey, the interests of the future profession also affect personal openness: future doctors (77.8%) and communication specialists (57.1%) were the most open. It became evident that the future profession and the wish visit a sport psychologist are closely related (p=0.019): future doctors, pedagogues, lawyers, businessmen and administrators expressed the biggest wish to visit the specialist, while the future architects, engineers and humanitarians were the most reluctant.

Finally, a wish of sportsmen to go to a sport psychologist is affected by their previous experience as well. Investigations of Vogel and Wester (2003) as well as Martin (2005) resulted in analogical data, which showed that the positive experience of a visit to a sport psychologist served as the basis to use the aid of a sport psychologist in the future. The respondents who have visited a sport psychologist more than 5 times were found to be the most interested in using the help of such a specialist again.

Conclusions

1. The research showed that the coaches were not of an unanimous opinion with regard to sport psychology and the work of a sport psychologist: some acknowledged being incompetent and avoid such issues, others regarded the psychologist as a consultant, while yet others considered sport psychology and the help of a psychologist only in case of a trouble.

2. The participants of the SELL games theoretically are tolerant to sport psychology and the work of a sport psychologist, but in practice they do not believe in the effectiveness of consultations. That could be treated as the reason why almost 90% of the respondents have not been to a consultation of a sport psychologist. If the possibility arises, 15.9% respondents would like very much to visit a sport psychologist.

3. With regard to the tolerance to sport psychology, there is no statistically significant difference between female and male respondents (p=0.506), although women are (60.5%) more tolerant than men (54.2%). The representatives of separate sport branches are more tolerant to sport psychology than the respondents from sport games. It was revealed that the Finnish respondents are the most tolerant to sport psychology (66.7%), while the Latvians are the least tolerant (42.1%) (although p=0.382). The future profession and a desire to visit a sport psychologist are closely related (p=0.019): future doctors, pedagogues, lawyers, administrators and businessmen are the most interested in a consultation of a psychologist, while architects, engineers and humanitarians are the most reluctant.

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**TRENERIŲ IR SPORTININKŲ STUDENTŲ POŽIŪRIS Į SPORTO PSICHOLOGIJĄ BEI SPORTO PSICHOLOGO DARBĄ**

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**Santrauka**


**Pagrindinės sąvokos:** sporto psichologija; požiūris; sporto psichologo darbas; tolerancija; pasitikėjimas sporto psichologo darbu.