Psychological skills training and Psychological well-being (PWB) are two essential concepts not only for general mental health but also for athletic performance in sport settings. However, the effects of problems in Sport Training Scale (PSTS) on sport performance and general psychological well-being have not been systematically examined through experimental designs, especially in professional soccer teams. Consequently, the goal of this research was to investigate the relationship between performance related psychological skills (team cohesion, confidence, and anxiety) and PWB and the effects of twelve weeks of cognitive-behavioral conceptual framework-based PST program on psychological skills of a professional soccer team. Results showed improved psychological skills and PWB after 12 weeks of PST. Follow up measurements indicated that improved psychological skills were preserved up to six months. Finally, psychological skills and PWB were found to be interconnected parameters, with congruence components. Overall, the PST program improved athletes’ team cohesion, self-confidence, anxiety and PWB levels.

Key words: Psychological skill training, psychological well-being, soccer.

INTRODUCTION

Over the years, many trainers, coaches and sport scientists have acknowledge the fact that psychological characteristics of athletes are one of the primary determinants of success and sustained performance in sports (Whelan et al., 1991; Gould et al., 1999; Ritz, 2012). In today’s elite level sport contexts, daily alterations in athletic performance are mostly attributed to psychological factors, such as lack of concentration, having poor arousal management, low motivation, confidence and high trait anxiety, rather than physical training parameters (Orlick and Partington, 1988; Van Raalte et al., 1994; Ravizza, 2001; Vealey 2005). In this regard, specific mental preparation practices aims at adjusting and improving certain psychological skills which has become an essential components of current training regimens in many professional and semi-professional sports (Bacon, 1989). As defined by Weinberg and Gould (2007), PST means the “systematic and consistent
practice of mental skills for the purpose of enhancing performance, increasing enjoyment, or achieving greater self satisfaction in sport and physical activity."

Initial PST applications in professional sport contexts have mostly focused on practicing single psychological skills including physiological and cognitive arousal, use of mental parameters, sustained attention, self-talk, confidence, goal setting and motivation (Wann and Church, 1998). However, such unidimensional approach to psychological skill training was criticized for having conceptual limitations and, thus, subjected to reconsideration by later studies (Williams and Davids, 1998; Tenenbaum and Eklund, 2007). More recent studies, for example, suggested that package PST programs training multiple set of psychological skills in a coherent manner produce more promising results than unidimensional PST programs in terms of reaching and maintaining optimum psychological performance (Hanton and Jones, 1999; MacDougall et al., 2001; Thelwell and Maynard, 2003). The main argument underlying multidimensional approach to PST is to provide both broaden and in-depth practice opportunities for combined set of task relevant to psychological skills, and thus, improve different aspects of sports performance (Edwards and Steyn, 2008). Previous research in team sports, for example, indicated that team players need to develop not only individual psychological characteristics such as ‘self-confidence’ and ‘anxiety management’ but also psychosocial skills facilitating optimum inter group interactions such as ‘team cohesion’ (Green, 1992; Weinberg and Williams, 2001; Morgan, 2006; Paiva, 2006).

Probably the most important question about PST is the effectiveness of it. Comprehensive reviews of the psychological skill training literature have supported the effectiveness of PST in improving the performance and personal growth of athletes (Tenenbaum and Eklund, 2007). Reviews examined all published studies using either group or single subject research designs. Checking within hierarchical order, the first review was published by Greenspan and Feltz (1994). They aimed to test effectiveness of various psychological interventions in sport settings, including golf, karate, skiing, boxing, basketball, volleyball, gymnastics, baseball, tennis and figure skating.

The result of this study indicated that 17 of the 20 studies had positive effect on intervention groups’ performance. In the second review related with effectiveness of PST interventions on performance and personal growth, Vealey (1994) analyzed studies that performed on until 1992. In her study she stressed that 75 % (9 of 11) studies employing psychological interventions improved performance in a variety of team and individual sports. Within that same year Weinberg and Comar (1994) analyzed 10 more studies using PST to develop competitive performance. The study’s results showed that 8 of 10 had a positive effect on performance and personal growth (Cox, 2007).

While these studies have provided valuable insights regarding the effectiveness of package programs on relevant psychological skills, longitudinal studies with experimental designs are still very limited for team sports, especially in developing countries like Turkey (Miçoğulları, 2013). Although, for example, professional soccer is the mainstream team sport in Turkey, no experimental studies have been conducted to examine long term effects of package PST programs on performance related psychological skills. Moreover, most of the previous research was conducted with adult and elite athletes providing no research data on the psychological development of young and promising athletes (Jones and Hardy, 1990; Locke and Latham, 1990; Burton et al., 2001; Orlick and McCaffrey, 1991; Miller and Kerr, 2002; McCarthy et al., 2010). Finally, previous meta analyses on PST programs have indicated lack of follow up measures on longitudinal designs, leaving open the question of whether acquired psychological skills can be maintained in athletes. Therefore, the prior goal of this research is to evaluate long term effects of PST program on selected set of psychological skills in young professional Turkish soccer players.

Theoretical basement of Well Being phenomenon showed that it has subjective part (hedonic tradition) and objective part (eudaimonic) (Ryff, 1989). The concept of PWB has been defined – in eudaimonic part - as the realizing potential through some form of struggle (Edwards and Steyn, 2008). As mentioned earlier, PST is directly related with mental health process also PWB draws on mental health too. In addition to practical applications in the sport contexts, researchers have also emphasized the importance of training psychological skills in PWB.

In one of their earlier study, Bacon (1989) found that the essentials of psychological skills can be learned, and also the perspectives acquired from skills can be converted into domains in daily settings. Moreover, in another study -it has been also emphasized- learning psychological skills and employing positive mental perspectives can enhance not only athletic performance in specific but also psychological well being and perceived quality of life in general (Orlick and McCaffrey, 1991). Previous PST studies, however, have seldom focused on well being outcomes of the interventions in professional athletic populations (Edwards and Steyn, 2008).

Therefore, the secondary goal of this research is to examine changes in PWB parameters as a function of PST interventions in young professional Turkish soccer players. Based on the previous studies among track and field (Kirschenbaum et al., 2005), basketball (Edwards and Steyn, 2008), volleyball (Morgan, 2006), rugby (Maynard and Howe, 1987), karate and jogging (McGowan et al., 1991), swimming (Berger and Owen, 1998), it was predicted that PST programs will improve mental health and PWB in soccer players.
**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

Forty-eight male soccer players aged between 16 to 28 years old (M_age = 20.9, SD = 3.2) voluntarily participated in this study. None of the participants had previously worked with a PST consultant. Participants were selected from two professional soccer teams in Turkish Football Federation Spor Toto 3. League. The teams were selected purposively. Same category teams were chosen for not having any bias between teams. Initially, there were totally 48 athletes; 24 athletes for the experimental group and 24 athletes for the control group. At the end of the study, there were 48 participants in total, 24 athletes for experimental group with an average of 3.80 years (SD = 0.42) professional sport experience and 24 athletes for control group with an average of 5.33 years (SD = 3.12) professional sport experience.

**Measuring instruments**

**Group environment questionnaire**

A group environment questionnaire (GEO; Carron et al., 1985) was used to assess cohesiveness. In this research, GEO was utilized to investigate cohesion level of professional soccer players. The 18-item GEO assesses four dimensions of cohesion: individual attractions to the group—social domain reflects an individual’s personal desire to remain within the group for social reasons (ATG-S); five items); individual attractions to the group—task assesses an individual’s attraction to the group’s task, productivity, and goals and objectives (ATG-T: four items); group integration—task measures of the individual’s perceptions of the similarity, closeness, and bonding within the group around the task (GI-T: five items); and group integration—social reflects the perceptions of similarity, closeness, and bonding within the group around social orientations (GI-S: four items). All items were rated on Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 9 (strongly agree). Responses for each of the four concepts were calculated separately, providing an average score for ATG-S, ATG-T, GI-S, and GI-T. The original Cronbach’s alpha values of the four scales were 0.70 for ATG-T/S and 0.73 for GI-T/S. The adaptation process of the Turkish version of the Group Environment Questionnaire (GEO) was applied by Öcel and Aydin (2006). The Cronbach’s alpha obtained for total values and sub-dimensions’ scores ranged from 0.69 to 0.79. Internal consistency values for the present research showed acceptable values of the four scales were ranged between 0.70 (ATG-T/S) and 0.76 (GI-T/S).

**Trait sport-confidence inventory**

Trait sport-confidence inventory (TSCI) was designed to evaluate self-confidence level of athletes. TSCI is a measure of the degree of certainty how confident athletes generally feel when they compete in their sport. The TSCI is comprised of 13 items measured on a 9-point Likert scale anchored by Low (1) and High (9). Adequate internal consistency (0.93) has been reported (Vealey, 1988). Reliability and validity of the Turkish version of the Trait – Sport Confidence Inventory was determined by Engür et al. (2006), and TSCI was used on high school graduate students and internal consistency values were found 0.78 for the their sample.

**State-trait anxiety inventory**

In this study, trait anxiety was measured by trait form of the State - Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) which includes 20-items (Spielberger, 1970). Participants responded to each item according to how they generally feel using a four-point scale ranging from “Almost Never” (1) to “Almost Always” (4). The original Cronbach’s alpha value for the trait anxiety scale was 0.83. Original scale was developed on 982 high school and collegiate students but the scale is reported as reliable (internal consistency 0.80) for young players by Carter and Kelly (1997), Griciūtė and Cibulskaitė (2009). Adaptation study of the Turkish version of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory was applied on 1534 youth and adult, and its internal consistency reliability was 0.94 (Öner and Le Compte, 1983).

**Ryff’s psychological well-being scale**

In this research, psychological well-being was evaluated by Ryff’s PWB scale (1989a) on the six dimensions of psychological well-being: purpose in life, positive relations with others, autonomy, personal growth, environmental mastery and self-acceptance. The original version consists of six dimensions of 20 items each but however, the shortened version proposed by van Dierendonck (2004) was used in this research. Totally, there were 39 items for six dimensions. The subscale length varied between six items (Self-acceptance, Positive relations with others, Environmental mastery, Purpose in life), seven items (Personal growth) and eight items (Autonomy). A six-point answering scale was used for all scales, ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 6 (totally agree).

**Procedure**

In this research, the cognitive – behavioral consultation model by Murphy and Murphy (1992) was used. An emphasis of Murphy and Murphy’s model is designed to view the athlete as a person, not just a competitor, and the evaluation of the athlete’s functioning in sports and general family life form all parts of the evaluation. This study used the evaluation of the athlete’s functioning in sports.

The program was designed to reveal long term effects of PST on participants by follow up tests. Overall presentation of PST program with its specific time table is presented in Table 1. The program described here involved three different mental abilities: anxiety control, self-confidence and team cohesion (team building). The three psychological skills were selected in the current program because of two factors. Firstly, it is understood that these three skills are the lacking ones in soccer players. Secondly, these skills are particularly important for optimal performance in athletics (Singer et al., 1993; Wann, 1997; Weinberg and Gould, 2007). Components of the psychological skills training program were respectively team cohesion, self-confidence and anxiety.

Weinberg and Gould’s (2007) PST program phases (education, acquisition and practice) were pursued to design the general structure of the study. In this part of the study, single psychological skill is explained by the structure of the PST program below. On the whole, author followed a 12-week psychological skills program during the season. Single psychological skill’s application continued for three weeks. Weinberg and Gould’s (2007) PST program levels were followed to apply skills. The 12 weeks PST program included 48 sessions totally. For single psychological skill, 16 sessions were made. The first four sessions of each skill were for the education phase, 10 sessions were for the acquisition phase and two sessions of the program were for the practice phase.

For each skill, the initial phase of the PST program was the educational phase because many athletes were unfamiliar with theoretical part of the psychological skills and how psychological skill can enhance learning and performance (Weinberg and Gould, 2007). The education phase helps the athlete in identifying basic psychological skills/methods, and realizing their own personal use or patterns regarding each skill/method (Vealey, 1988). The important part of the education phase involves improving athletes’
awareness of the role that psychological skills play in performance and personal life’s excellence (Ravizza, 2001).

The educational sessions of the program were made in the meeting room of the Club facilities. First weeks (four sessions) for each skill are separated for educational phase. Every educational session was set for twenty minutes. The curriculum of the educational sessions was set to give theoretical basement of the skill (for example; definition of skill), importance of the skill, determinants (for example; correlates of skill) of the skill and relationship between related skill and performance (Self-Confidence and Performance).

The second phase of the PST program is the acquisition phase that adjusts on strategies and techniques for learning various psychological skills (Weinberg and Gould, 2007). While choosing techniques for participants, some scientific clues were followed including shorter training sessions, simpler verbal instructions, and turning the exercises into games. Moreover, some of the related assignments were given to the participants to have regular practice. Detailed information related to those processes was given within each skill’s explanation. The acquisition phase continued for ten sessions for each single skill. The last phase of the PST program was the practice phase. The practice phase has three primary objectives:

1. To automate skills through over-learning.
2. To teach players to systematically integrate psychological skills into their performance situations.
3. To simulate skills that athletes will apply in actual competition (Weinberg and Gould, 1997).

PST program phases ranged from 15 to 30 minutes per session. Within this study, it was expected that certain cognitive-behavioral techniques would be utilized, such as team building, goal setting, self-talk, pep talk, breathing, imagery. By this way, athletes’ and coaches’ inputs guided the development of the PST program.

**RESULTS**

As it was stated earlier, the relationship between selected psychological skills and psychological well-being was examined in this current study. Moreover, the impact of a twelve-week psychological skills training program (PST) was assessed. This PST program was constructed on cognitive-behavioral conceptual framework on the team cohesion, confidence, anxiety and psychological well-being of an intact team. This part provided results according to their applied rank.

Initially, the effect of PST on team cohesion level was analyzed using a mixed model Multivariate Analysis of Variance. The analysis (4 time; pre- post-test follow up 1 follow up 2) x 2 (group) showed a significant time x group interaction effect; Wilks’ Lambda = .39. $F(4, 43) = 16.61$ $p < .05$. Moreover, time; Wilks’ Lambda = .30. $F(12, 35) = 6.96$, $p < .05$ and group main effects; Wilks’ Lambda = .15. $F(4, 43) = 16.98$ $p < .05$ were found to be significant. Follow-up pairwise comparison test for both experimental and control groups in four subscales (ATG-T, ATG-S, GI-T and GI-S) were conducted. The result revealed that whereas ATG-T for experimental group significantly changed from pre-test ($M = 5.24±1.73$) to post-test ($M = 6.65 ± .96$), from pre-test to follow-up 1 ($M = 6.72 ± 1.09$), from pre-test to follow-up 2 ($M = 7.31±0.62$) ($p < .05$). ATG-T for control group did not significantly change among four measurements (Figure 1).

The other subscales of group cohesion, ATG-S, also displayed similar findings to ATG-T. That is, ATG-S for experimental group changed significantly from pre-test ($M = 5.45±1.85$) to post-test ($M = 7.02±1.44$) from pre-test to follow-up 1 ($M = 6.96±1.21$), from pre-test to follow-up 2 ($M = 6.78±1.19$) ($p < .05$). However, this pattern was not observed for control group. The third subscale, GI-T and the fourth subscale, GI-S, of group cohesion had also the pattern like ATG-T and ATG-S subscales. The result for GI-T for experimental group significantly changed from pre-test ($M = 6.07±1.82$) to post-test ($M = 7.46±1.26$) from pre-test to follow-up 1 ($M = 7.53±0.83$), from pre-test to follow-up 2 ($M = 7.52±0.80$) ($p < .05$). However, the result of GI-T for control group did not display a significant difference among 4 measurements (Figure 3). Similarly, although the result for GI-S for experimental group significantly changed from pre-test ($M = 5.92±0.87$) to post-test ($M = 6.23±0.87$), from pre-test to follow-up 1 ($M = 7.33±0.74$), from pre-test to follow-up 2

---

**Table 1. The macro time schedule of procedure.**

| Week 0 | Week 1 - Week 12 | Week 13 | Week 17 | Week 25 |
|--------|----------------|---------|---------|---------|
| Pre-data team cohesion self-confidence anxiety (PWB) | Intervention time period | Post-data | First retention | Second retention |

---

**Data analysis**

Obtained data from participants questionnaires’ were analyzed and exhibited. Initially, arithmetic averages (means) and standard deviations for demographic information and scale scores were calculated and presented. In this research, only team cohesion skill has sub-dimensions and because of this detail, a mixed design multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was utilized to analyze possible changes from pre-season to post-season and follow up tests. In order to evaluate changes in the measures for self-confidence and anxiety skills from pre-season to postseason and follow up tests, a mixed design analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized (Thomas and Nelson, 2001). Before applying MANOVA and ANOVA, four assumptions of those were controlled independent observation (Wilks Lambda), multivariate normality, homogeneity of population (Box M test) and interval/ratio scale on DVs (Levene’s test). Within-Subjects analysis was used to evaluate the effect of time on experimental and control group. Pairwise comparison was conducted for further analysis within-subjects effects. Between-Subjects analysis was used to measure effect of group between experimental and control group. Follow-up Tukey post-hoc was used when needed. Significant level was determined as $p < .05$. 

---

Miçooğulları 1141
Figure 1. Estimated marginal means of ATG-T between experimental and control group over measurements.

Figure 2. Estimated marginal means of ATG-S between experimental and control group over measurements.
(M= 7.55±0.55) (p < 0.05), and the result of GI-S for control group did not significantly change among 4 different measurements (Figure 4).

Secondly, another statistical analysis was conducted to find out the effects of PST on SC. The result of this analysis displayed a significant group x time interaction $F_{(3, 44)} = 6.39, p < .05 \eta^2 = .30$, and significant time $F_{(3, 44)} = 3.93, p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.21$ and group $F_{(1, 46)} = 6.37, p <$
0.05 $\eta^2 = 0.12$ main effects. According to the result of group x time interaction, experimental group obtained positive implications about SC. Follow-up pairwise comparison displayed a significant change for experimental group from pre-test (M= 6.69±1.30) to post-test (M= 7.44±0.95), from pre-test to follow-up 1 (M = 7.67±0.70), from pre-test to follow-up 2 (M= 7.71±0.68) (p < .05). Nevertheless, the result of SC for control group did not display a significant difference among 4 measurements (Figure 5).

Thirdly, a mixed design analysis of variance was conducted to test the effects of PST on anxiety. The result for this analysis revealed a significant group x time interaction $F_{(3, 44)} = 4.50$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = 0.24$, and significant group x time $F_{(3, 44)} = 8.60$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = 0.37$, and group $F_{(1, 46)} = 18.54$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = 0.29$, main effects. Significant time x group interaction refers to the fact that experimental group acquired positive implications about anxiety. Follow-up pairwise comparison displayed that whereas anxiety for experimental group significantly dropped from pre-test (M= 2.33±0.21) to post-test (M = 2.30±0.22), from pre-test to follow-up 1 (M = 2.14±0.23), from pre-test to follow-up 2 (M = 2.14±0.15) (p < .05), and anxiety for control group did not show any significant change among 4 measurements (Figure 6).

Final statistical analysis was conducted to test the effects of PST on PWB. The result for this analysis revealed a significant group x time interaction $F_{(3, 44)} = 220.01$, $p < 0.05$, $\eta^2 = 0.94$, and significant time $F_{(3, 44)} = 267.17$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = 0.95$, and group $F_{(1, 46)} = 18.11$, $p < 0.05$, $\eta^2 = 0.28$, main effects. Significant time x group interaction refers to the fact that experimental group acquired positive implications about PWB. Follow-up pairwise comparison displayed that although PWB for experimental group displayed significant improvements from pre-test (M= 16.21±1.87) to post-test (M= 18.14±1.87), from pre-test to follow-up 1 (M = 18.97±1.78), from pre-test to follow-up 2 (M= 18.49±1.66) (p < .05), PWB for control group did not show a significant difference among 4 measurements (Figure 7).

**DISCUSSION**

After implemented interventions of psychological skill trainings, results revealed that players in experimental group significantly increased perceptions of team cohesion over the intervention time period more than control group. That is to say, soccer players who took part in the Psychological Skill Training had a significant improvement in their perceptions of team cohesion in general from pre-test to two follow-up tests. In particular, results indicated significant improvement in all subscales of team cohesion which is ATG-T, ATG-S, GI-T and GI-S. The increase in ATG-T scale showed that implied PST program significantly enhanced athletes’ individual perceptions about having enough motivation to be a part of team and team’s tasks and shared belief to success.
The enhancement of ATG-S scale approved that there was a significant enhancement on athletes’ individual perceptions about having a good social interaction. The improvement of GI-T scale showed that practiced
strategies related with team cohesion have significantly enhanced athletes’ individual perceptions about having a support from other team members. In consistent with the hypothesis of this study, the development in GI-S subscale was significant. This means that goal setting and communication interventions did affect the experimental groups’ perceptions about being a social unit as a team.

In relation to the study hypotheses, the findings with regard to the significant increase in team cohesion were generally supported by other researches. Studies indicated that enough long duration PST program significantly increased experimental groups’ team cohesion through the use of and the realization of the importance of setting common goals, and other methods applied could enhance the team cohesion level by putting all athletes in the exact ways (goals) to reach the teams goal (Burton, 1989; Brawley et al., 1993; Cogan and Petrie 1995; Voight and Callaghan 2001; Carron et al., 2002; Stevens and Bloom 2003; Senecal et al., 2008).

Results also lend support to the perceptions of self-confidence level of soccer players in experimental group significantly increased over the intervention time period. The level of self-confidence of control group remained stable. Follow up tests results showed that experimental group had a significant increase in perceptions of self-confidence from pre-test to post-test. The study also indicated that the increase in the perception of self-confidence was maintaining over two follow-up tests.

The positive change of self-confidence revealed that applied psychological interventions to improve self-confidence significantly enhanced athletes’ perceptions and feelings about living and acting in a more secure sportive environment, being more encouraged to behave according to soccer principles, having a better ability on performing motor skills, and having a better ability to deal with stressful sportive situations. These results could be attributed by some reasons which include; creating enthusiastic sportive environment with the help and support of all athletes, developing perceptions of athletes about inspiration for success, trying to establish more positive manners in a team, and directing the athletes to have better level attentional focus within all sport settings.

The results of the current study with regard to the significant increase in self-confidence have been indicated by various researches (Gipson et al., 1989; Cohn et al., 1990; Daw and Burton, 1994; Savoy and Beitel, 1997; Zinner et al., 1998; Garza and Feltz, 1998; Hanton and Jones, 1999; Hatzigeorgiadi and Morgan, 2006; Edwards and Steyn, 2008; Gucciardi et al., 2009).

Conclusion

Findings from the present investigation lend support for the notion that athletes in experimental group significantly decreased perceptions of their anxiety level over the intervention time period. The perception level of anxiety of control group remained stable. Follow up tests results showed that experimental group significantly decreased in perceptions of anxiety from pre-test to post-test. The study also indicated that there was a decrease in the perception of anxiety maintaining over two follow-up tests.

The decreasing of anxiety indicated that implied psychological strategies to reduce anxiety significantly enhanced athletes’ feelings about being more powerful in front of a stressful sportive environments, being more comfortable to behave according to soccer principles, having a better ability on performing motor skills, and having a proper acceptance opinions to deal with win-lose understanding in sports. These results could be attributed by some reasons which include; applied strategies may modify perceptions of anxiety and those help the athletes achieve a relaxed state of body and mind; also interventions associated with improving self-esteem levels of athletes affected levels of anxiety; and lastly, efficiency of cognitive-behavioral interventions in decreasing anxiety could be explained by athletes’ better ability to calm their mind and body by implying relaxation techniques.

The results of some studies with regard to the significant decrease in anxiety have been indicated by various researches (Meyers et al., 1982; Romero and Silvestri, 1990; Holm et al., 1996; Shaffer and Wiese-Bjornstal, 1999; Poland 2007; Wadey and Hanton, 2008). The results produced by the study revealed that athletes in experimental group significantly improved in perceptions of their psychological well-being level over the intervention time period. The level of psychological well-being of control group remained stable. Follow up tests findings showed that experimental group significantly increased in their psychological well-being levels from pre-test to follow up tests.

Intervention implications developed PWB levels significantly. The findings of the various studies with regard to the significant enhance in PWB have been indicated by various researches. The underlying mechanisms accepted to be responsible for results could be applied strategies, and interventions may positively changed constructs of psychological well-being by improved independency and self-determination levels; by helping to develop more efficient ability to manage their life; by having a chance to be open to new experiences; by facing high quality relationships; by believing theirs and others’ lives are meaningful and trying to show positive attitudes towards their and others’ past life and lastly participants’ good intentions to have new approach about their life (Ryan and Deci, 2001; Hair et al., 2003; Marchetti-Mercer, 2003; Abbott et al., 2006; Edwards and Steyn, 2008; Zheng et al., 2014).

Conflict of interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.
REFERENCES

Abbott RA, Ploubidis GB, Huppert FA, Kuh D, Wadsworth ME, Croudace IJ, Bjornstal DM (2006). Psychometric evaluation and predictive validity of Ryff’s psychological well-being items in a UK birth cohort sample of women. Health Qual. Life Outcomes 4:76-90.

Bacon T (1989). The planning and integration of mental training programs, Sports: Sci. Period. Res. Technol. Sport. 10(1):1-8.

Berger BG, Owen DR (1998) Stress reduction and mood enhancement in four exercise modes: swimming, body conditioning, hatha yoga and running. Res. Q. Exerc. Sport. 59:148-159.

Biddle SJ, Fox KR, Boucher SH (2000) Physical Activity and Psychological Well-Being. London: Routledge.

Brawley LR, Carron AV, Widmeyer WN (1993). The influence of the group and its cohesiveness on perceptions of goal-related variables. J. Sport Exercise Psychol. 15:245-260.

Brewer BW, Shillinglaw R (1992). Evaluation of a psychological skills training workshop for male intercollegiate lacrosse players. Sport Healpsychol. 6:139-147.

Burton D (1989) Winning isn't everything: Examining the impact of performance goals on collegiate swimmers' cognitions and performance. Sport Psychol. 2:105-132.

Burton D, Naylor S, Holdiday B (2001). Goal settings in sport. In R. N. Singer, H. A. Hausenblas, and C. M. Janelle (Eds) Handbook of sport psychology, (2. ed.) New York, John Wiley, pp. 497-528.

Carron AV, Colman MM, Wheary J, Stevens D (2002). Cohesion and performance in sport: A meta-analysis. J. Sport Exercise Psychol. 24:168-188.

Cohn PJ, Rotella RJ, Lloyd JW (1990). Effects of a cognitive-behavioral intervention on the pre-shot routine and performance in golf. Sport Psychol. 4:33-47.

Cogan KD, Petrie TA (1995). Sport consultation: An evaluation of a season-long intervention with female collegiate gymnasts. Sport Psychol. 9:282-296.

Cox RH (2007). Sport psychology: Concepts and applications, McGraw Hill International edition, Columbia.

Daw J, Burton D (1994). Evaluation of a Comprehensive Psychological Skills Training Program for Collegiate Tennis players. Sport Psychol. 8:37-57.

Edward SD (2003) Physical exercise and psychological wellness in health club members: A comparative and longitudinal study. South Afr. J. Res. Sport, Phys. Educ. Recreat. 25(1):23-33.

Garza DL, Feltz DL (1998). Effects of selected mental practice on performance, self-efficacy, and competition confidence of figure skaters. Sports Psychol. 12:1-15.

Gipson M, Mckenzie T, Lowe S (1989). The sport psychology program of the USA women's national volleyball team. Sport Psychol. 3:330-339.

Gould D, Guinan D, Greenleaf C, Medberry R, Peterson K (1999). Factors affecting Olympic performance: Perceptions of athletes and coaches from more and less successful teams. Sport Psychol. 13:371-394.

Green S (1992). Effects of mental training techniques on knowledge and performance of volleyball skills. Unpublished master dissertation, University of Ottawa, Canada.

Greenspan M, Feltz DL (1989). Psychological interventions with athletes in competitive situations: A review. Sport Psychol. 3:219-236.

Gucciardi DF, Gordon S, Dimmock JA (2009). Evaluation of a mental toughness training program for youth-aged Australian footballers: I. A quantitative analysis. J. Appl. Sport Psychol. 21:307-323.

Hair E, Lutong, Cochran SW, Trends C (2003). Youth development programs and educationally disadvantaged older youths: A synthesis. Washington, DC: Child Trends. Accessed online May, 3, 2005.

Hanton S, Jones G (1999). The effects of a multimodal intervention program on performers: I. Training the butterflies to fly in formation. Sport Psychol. 13:22-41.

Hatziigeorgiadis A, Theodorkis Y, Zourbanos N (2004). Self-talk in the swimming pool: The effects of self-talk on thought content and performance on water-polo tasks. J. Appl. Sport Psychol. 16:138-150.

Holm JE, Beckwith BE, Ehde DM, Tinus TP (1996). Cognitive-behavioral interventions for improving performance in competitive athletes: A controlled treatment outcome study. Int. J. Sport Psychol. 27:463-475.

Jones JG, Hardy L (1990). Stress and Performance in Sport. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Kirschenbaum D, McCann S, Meyers A, Williams J (1995) The use of sport psychology to improve sport performance [electronic version]. Sport Science Exchange, 6. Available at: http://www.gssiweb.com/reflib/ref5s/alt_all_00000200000386.pdf?CFID=20246048&CFTOKEN=38810862.

Locke E, Latham G (1990). The application of goal setting to sports. J. Sport Psychol. 7:205-222.

McCarthy PJ, Jones MW, Harwood CG, Oliver S (2010). What do young athletes implicitly understand about psychological skills?, J. Clin. Sport Psychol. 4:158-172.

MacDougall M, Scott D, McFarlane G, Leblanc J, Cormier T (2001). Using a single subject multiple baseline design to evaluate the effectiveness of a mental skills package on basketball foul shooting. vol. 4 (105-107), Proceedings of the 10th World Congress of Sport Psychology. May 28 to June 2, Skiahtos Greece. Thessaloniki: Christodoulidi.

Marchetti-Mercer MC (2003). Family murder in post-Apartheid South Africa: Reflections for mental health professionals. Health SA Gesondheid 8(2):83.

Maynard LW, Howe BL (1987). Interrelations of trait and state anxiety with game performance of rugby players. Percept. Motor Skills 64(2):599-602.

Meyers AW, Schelserer R, Okwumabua TM (1982) A cognitive-behavioral intervention for improving basketball performance. Res. Q. Exercise Sport. 53:344-5347.

Miçoğullari BO (2013). Effects of 6 weeks psychological skill training on team cohesion, self-confidence & anxiety: A case of youth basketball players; Middle East Technical University, Social Science Faculty, Physical Education & Sport Department, Unpublished Doctoral Degree Dissertation, Ankara.

Miller PS, Kerr GA (2002). Conceptualizing excellence: Past, present, and future. J. Appl. Sport Psychol. 14(3):140-153.

Morgan TK (2006). A Season-Long Mental Skills Training Program for Collegiate Volleyball Players, Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Tennessee.

Orlick T, McCaffrey N (1991). Mental training with children sport life. Sport Psychol. 5:322-334.

Orlick T, Partington J (1988). Mental skills to excellence. Sport Psychol. 2:105-130.

Öner N, Le Compte A (1983). Durumluş-Sürekli Kaygı Envanteri, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Matbaası, İstanbul.

Paiva M (2006). An examination of the relationship between mental skills training and bowling performance. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Universidade de Coimbra, Portugal.

Poland RJ (2007). The influence of a mental skills training program on competitive anxiety, Unpublished master thesis, Defiance College.

Ravizza K (2001). Increasing awareness for sport performance. J.M. Williams (Ed.). Applied sport psychology: personal growth to peak performance (4th ed.), Mayfield, Mountain View, CA (2001), pp. 179-189.

Ritz N (2012), The effects of mental preparation for distance runners, Marathon Beyond: 2:120-130.

Romero K, Silvestri L (1990). The role of mental practice in the acquisition and performance of motor skills. J. Instruct. Psychol. 17:218-221.

Ryan R, Decl EL (2001). On happiness and human potentials: a review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. Ann. Rev. Psychol. 52:141-166.

Ryff CD (1989a). Beyond Ponce de Leon and Life Satisfaction: New Directions in Quest of Successful Ageing. Int. J. Behav. Dev. 12(1):35-55.

Savoy C, Beitel P (1997). The relative effect of a group and group / individualized program on state anxiety and state self-confidence. J. Sport Behavior. 20. Available at: http://search.epnet.com.proxy.ohiolink.edu:9099/login.Aspx?direct=tr&amp=an=9710272603.

Shaffer SM, Wiese-Bjornstal DM (1991). Psycho-social intervention strategies in sports medicine. In: Ray R, Wiese- Bjornstal DM, eds.
Counseling in sports medicine. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics. pp. 41-54.
Singer RN, Murphy M, Tennant LK (1993) Epilogue. In R. N. Singer, M. Murphy, M., & L. K. Tennant (Eds.) Handbook of research in sport psychology (pp. 933-938). New York: McMillan.
Spielberger CD, Gorsuch RL, Lushene RE (1970). S.T.A.I. Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists’ Press.
Stevens DE, Bloom GA (2003). The effect of team building on cohesion. Avante 9:43-54.
Tenenbaum G, Eklund RC (Eds.), (2007). Handbook of sport psychology (3rd ed.). New York: John Wiley.
Thomas JR, Nelson JK (2001). Research methods in physical activity (4th ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
Van Derendonck D (2004). The construct validity of Ryff’s scales of psychological well-being and its extension with spiritual well-being. Pers. Individ. Diff. 36:629-643.
Van Raalte JL, Brewer BW, Rivera PM, Petitpas AJ (1994). The relationship between observable self-talk and competitive junior tennis players’ match performances. J. Sport Exercise Psychol. 16(4):400-415.
Vealey RS (1988). Future directions in psychological skills training. Sport Psychol. 2:318-336.
Vealey RS (1994). Current status and prominent issues in sport psychology interventions. Med. Sci. Sports Exercise 26:495-502.
Vealey RS (2005). Coaching for the Inner Edge. Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.
Vealey R (2007). Mental skills training in sport. In G. Tenenbaum & R. Eklund (Eds.), Handbook of sport psychology (3rd ed). Chichester: John Wiley and Sons. pp. 287-309.
Voight M, Callaghan J (2001). A team building intervention program: Application and evaluation with two university soccer teams. J. Sport Behav. 24:420-431.
Wadey R, Hanton S (2008). Basic Psychological Skills Usage and Competitive Anxiety Responses: Perceived Underlying Mechanisms, Res. Q. Exercise Sport. 79(3):363-373.
Wann DL (1997). Sport Psychology, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
Wann D, Church B (1998). A Method for enhancing the psychological skills of track and field athletes, Murray State University.
Weinberg RS, Comar W (1994). The effectiveness of psychological interventions in competitive sport. Sports Med. 18:406.418.
Weinberg RS, Williams JM (2001). Integrating and implementing a psychological skills training program. In J. M. Williams (Ed.), Applied sport psychology: Personal growth to peak performance 4th ed., Mountain View, CA: Mayfield Publishing. pp. 347-377.