



The Mediating Role of Training Behaviors on Self-Reported Mental Toughness and Mentally Tough Behavior in Swimming

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3 The Mediating Role of Training Behaviours on Self-Reported Mental Toughness and
4 Mentally Tough Behaviour in Swimming

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Abstract

1
2 Self-regulated training behaviours plays a vital role in athletes' physical and mental
3 sporting development. The purpose of the present study was to investigate the mediating role
4 of self-regulated training behaviours (self and coach rated) on the relationship between self-
5 reported Mental Toughness (MT) and coaches perceptions of swimmers Mentally Tough
6 behaviour (MTb) in competition. A second purpose of the study was to examine how
7 discrepancies in coach and athlete perceptions of training behaviours related to coach
8 perceptions of swimmers MTb in competition. A sample of 12 swimming coaches (11 men
9 and 1 women) and 208 of their competitive swimmers (86 men and 122 women) participated
10 in the study. The swimmers completed self-report assessments of MT and self-regulated
11 training behaviours. The coaches completed questionnaires regarding observations of their
12 swimmers MTb in competition and a smaller pool of items from the athletes self-regulated
13 training behaviours questionnaire. Findings supported our hypotheses that MT was positively
14 related to self-regulated training behaviours (self and coach rated) and training behaviours
15 was positively related to coach rated MTb. Further, self-regulated training behaviours ($\beta =$
16 0.12 ; $CI = 0.05 - 0.20$) and coach rated perceptions of training behaviours ($\beta = 0.07$; $CI =$
17 $0.03 - 0.13$) mediated the relationship between self-report MT and coach rated MTb in
18 competition. Finally, a significant amount of variance in MTb was accounted for (23%) only
19 when there was agreement between the coach and the athlete regarding the level of self-
20 regulated training behaviours. We recommend that future research examines what specific
21 types of training behaviours positively influence MT.

22 *Keywords:* training behaviours, mental toughness, swimming, polynomial regression
23 analysis, discrepancies

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25

The Mediating Role of Training Behaviours on Self-Reported Mental Toughness and Mentally Tough Behaviour in Swimming

Athletes who regularly maintain a high level of performance and goal directed behaviour under a range of stressors are generally described as being mentally tough (e.g., Gucciardi, Hanton, & Mallett, 2012; Hardy, Bell & Beattie, 2014). Mental toughness (MT) is a desirable skill allowing athletes to utilize a range of cognitive, emotional, and behavioural resources to maintain (or even improve) performance standards under pressure (e.g., Hardy et al., 2014; Gucciardi & Gordon, 2011). Research shows that MT contains state-like and trait-like factors. For example, Weinberg, Butt, Mellano, and Harmison, (2017) interviewed 12 elite performance academy tennis players on their perceptions of the stability of MT across different situations. They found that tennis players reported that they could be more mentally tough in some situations than others, supporting a state view of MT. Further, Gucciardi (2017) defined MT as “a state-like psychological resource that is purposeful, flexible, and efficient in nature for the enactment and maintenance of goal-directed pursuits” (p. 18). Indeed, while assessing MT across a 10-week period in a sample of undergraduate students, Gucciardi, Hanton, Gordon, Mallett and Temby (2015) found that in their 8-item measure of MT (Mental Toughness Index; MTI), 56% of the variance in MT could explained as a state-like concept that varies across situations (thus providing further support for Weinberg et al., 2017). However, this also indicates that a large amount of variance (44%) is also explained by trait-like between-person differences. This latter finding also supports research showing a behavioural genetic explanation in individual differences in MT across 219 sets of twins (Horsburgh, Schermer, Veselka, & Vernon, 2009).

MT and Mentally Tough behaviour

Recently, the over use of self-report MT questionnaires have been criticised based on the possible confound of social desirability and self-presentation issues (Hardy et al., 2014).

1 Recent research has also criticised the general overreliance of self-report MT questionnaires
2 that make no obvious links to meaningful behavioural outcomes (e.g., Anderson, McCullagh,
3 & Wilson, 2007). Hardy et al. (2014) also note that before one can make reasonable claims
4 about the usefulness of cognitions, attitudes, and emotions that underpin qualitative
5 assessments of MT, there needs to be an evaluation of whether Mentally Tough behaviour
6 (MTb) has occurred (see also Gucciardi et al., 2015). In addition, MTb in sport tend to be
7 assessed in highly stressful environments such as competitive situations. To this end, Hardy
8 et al. (2014) developed their own informant rating of MTb in cricket where coaches rated
9 eight MT behaviours of the cricketers they coached in a competitive environment. For
10 example, coaches were asked how well their athletes could maintain a high level of
11 performance in competitive matches “When the match is particularly tight”. In a
12 comprehensive study on a behavioural analysis on MT in soccer, Diment (2014) created a
13 systematic observation instrument containing 15 different types of mentally tough behaviours
14 assessed under competitive circumstances that were agreed upon by expert coaches and sport
15 psychologists. These observed competition behaviours included players ‘having a physical
16 presence’, playing with confidence’ and ‘quickly recovering after an error’. Others have also
17 advocated a behavioural approach to assessing MT (Arthur, Fitzwater, Hardy, Beattie, &
18 Bell, 2015; Beattie, Alqallaf, & Hardy, 2017; Bell, Hardy, & Beattie, 2013). Finally, in
19 distinguishing the difference between MT and the behavioural component MTb, Anthony,
20 Gordon, Gucciardi, and Dawson, (2017) described MTb as “a purposeful yet adaptable verbal
21 or physical act that contributes positively to performance through the attainment and
22 progression of self-referenced objectives or goals” (p. 5).

23 However, despite researchers claiming the importance of examining MTb in
24 competition, and distinguishing it from quantitative assessments of MT, there has been little
25 research directly examining the relationship between self-report assessments of MT and

1 informant ratings of MTb (Arthur et al., 2015; Gucciardi et al., 2015). Therefore, the first
2 purpose of the study was to further examine the relationship between a self-report assessment
3 of MT (i.e., the MTI; Gucciardi et al., 2015) and an informant rating of MTb in competition
4 (i.e., the coach). Our first hypothesis predicted that higher levels of self-reported MT would
5 be positively related to higher levels of informant ratings of MTb (i.e., the coach).

6 **Training Environment effects upon MT**

7 Research shows that in the very early stages of an athlete's career, the training
8 environment plays a large part in the development of MT. For example, in an elite sample of
9 female gymnasts, Thelwell, Such, Weston, Such and Greenlees (2010) found that training
10 factors (e.g., simulating competition, competition preparation, overcoming problems, recover
11 and train with injury, and learn new moves/complex skills) contributed to the development of
12 MT. In a sample of elite level cricketers, Bull, Shambrook, James and Brooks (2005) found
13 that the environment (e.g., exposure to foreign cricket and opportunities to survive early
14 setbacks) was a strong foundation upon which MT develops. In a sample of elite cricket
15 coaches, Gucciardi, Gordon, Dimmock and Mallett (2009) found that coaches who exposed
16 their athletes to competition simulation, set challenging training environments, and
17 emphasized improvement and enjoyment over winning, were important characteristics in
18 developing MT. Further, Connaughton, Wadey, Hanton and Jones (2008) found that
19 environmental factors such as coaches' leadership, vicarious experience, skill mastery,
20 critical incidents, and social support, were perceived underlying mechanisms in the
21 development of MT. In a survey of mentally tough adolescents from three performance
22 contexts (i.e., sport, academia, and music) it was found that MT development was predicated
23 by significant others, supportive social processes, critical incidents, and curiosity (Mahoney,
24 Gucciardi, Mallett, & Ntoumanis, 2014). The above research also indicates that successful
25 interactions with the training environment fosters the development of a range of MT

1 characteristics such as being tough in character, attitude and thinking (Bull et al., 2005);
2 being able to handle pressure, increased self-belief and resilience (Gucciardi et al., 2009); and
3 having a heightened awareness, being persistent and optimistic (Mahoney et al., 2014).

4 **MT effects upon the Training Environment**

5 However, as the athletes career progresses, there appears to be a role reversal in the
6 relationship between the training environment and MT. That is, after MT beliefs are
7 established, such beliefs are then used to deal with tough training environments. For example,
8 Driska, Kamphoff, and Armentrout (2012) found that in their interview with high level
9 swimming coaches from the United States, MT was invaluable in training contexts. That is,
10 the coaches noted that MT swimmers pushed themselves to the limit in training by being
11 relentless, controlling their training environment, pushing themselves into pain zones where
12 most swimmers would not go, swimmers had vision and goals that justified their need for
13 relentless effort, and MT swimmers retained emotional and psychological control on poor
14 training days. Finally, MT swimmers appeared to have developed a strong sense of self-
15 regulated training behaviours and did extra things in training that the coach did not ask for.
16 However, Driska et al. (2012) did not use any quantitative assessments of MT to quantify the
17 link between MT and self-regulated training behaviours. Therefore, a second purpose of the
18 study was to examine such a relationship. Our second hypothesis predicted that a strong and
19 positive relationship would occur between MT and self-regulated training behaviours (self
20 and coach rated).

21 **Self-Regulation and Training**

22 Self-regulation refers to “the many processes by which the human psyche exercises
23 control over its functions, states and inner processes” (Vohs & Baumeister, 2007, p 1). Self-
24 regulation has been linked to goal directed behaviour via the regulating processes of thoughts,
25 emotions, impulses, appetites, task performances and attentional processes (Vohs &

1 Baumeister, 2007). More pertinent to the current study is the self-regulation of behavioural
2 maintenance (e.g., choosing to repeat certain behaviours until they manifest themselves as
3 habits; Wood, 2016). Habits often originate from repeated goal-directed behaviours (e.g.,
4 prolonged swim training), and once they are formed they can be resistant to lapses in self-
5 control due to boredom, high levels of stress, or lack of willpower (Neal, Wood, & Drolet,
6 2013). Therefore, self-regulation seems particularly important for athletes who spend long
7 arduous hours in a confined training environment especially in the sport under current
8 investigation that is, swimming.

9 In examining self-regulation and swim training, Young and Starks (2006a)
10 identified seven non-regulated training behaviours that helped to identify ineffective swim
11 training, namely, poor attendance, off-task in warm-up, incomplete volume in warm-up,
12 incomplete volume for the entire workout, inaccurate recall of pace times, last to arrive on the
13 pool deck, and unfocused during kick sets. Interestingly, in a follow-up study, Young and
14 Starks (2006b) found that swimmers who showed higher levels of self-regulatory behaviours
15 (i.e., showed high on-task behaviours) completed significantly higher swim volume in
16 training. Therefore, in relation to the findings from Driska et al. (2012) and Young and
17 Starks (2006b), our third hypothesis is that self-regulated training behaviours will have a
18 strong and positive relationship with MTb in competition. But perhaps more importantly, as
19 research indicates that individuals high in MT train harder, and self-regulated training
20 behaviours will lead to higher levels of MTb in competition, our fourth hypothesis predicted
21 that training behaviours will mediate the relationship between self-assessed MT and coach
22 rated MTb in competition.

23 **Congruence between athlete and coach perspectives of training upon MTb**

24 Finally, we set out to examine what (if any) congruence existed between the athlete
25 and the coach on their perceptions of self-regulated training behaviours and how these beliefs

1 predicted MTb in competition. For example, Vazire (2010) and Vazire and Mehl (2008)
2 found that both self and significant others possess unique insights into how an individual
3 typically behaves. To examine these viewpoints, both the swimmer and the coach completed
4 a measure of self-regulated training behaviours. That is, the coach also reported training
5 behaviours for each swimmer in the study. This enabled us to examine how discrepancies
6 between the athletes vs. observer (i.e., coach) ratings of training behaviour predict coach
7 ratings of MTb by using polynomial regression analysis (e.g., Shanock, Baran, Gentry,
8 Pattison, & Heggstad, 2010). Polynomial regression analysis allows the examination of the
9 combined relationship between two predictor variables upon an outcome variable,
10 particularly when discrepancies between the two predictor variables are important. We use
11 this technique to examine the combined view of athlete and coach ratings of self-regulated
12 training behaviour upon coach rated MTb. Research examining coach athlete relationships,
13 show that empathic accuracy (a capacity to perceive the psychological condition of another,
14 such as thoughts, feelings, moods, motivations, and reasoning behind behaviour [Ickes,
15 Stinson, Bissonnette, & Garcia, 1990]) leads to a higher level of coach-athlete relationship
16 satisfaction (e.g., Lorimer & Jowett, 2009). Further, the successful interaction between the
17 coach and the athlete in the training environment positively influences performance (e.g.,
18 Jowett & Poczwardowski, 2007). Therefore, our fifth hypotheses predicted that a stronger
19 relationship between training and MTb in competition would occur when the coach and the
20 athletes' viewpoint regarding self-regulated training behaviours are congruent, compared to
21 when they are incongruent.

22 Method

23 Participants

24 Twelve UK swimming coaches (11 men and 1 women $M_{\text{age}} = 49.77$, $SD = 15.60$) and
25 208 of their competitive swimmers (86 men and 122 women $M_{\text{age}} = 14.82$, $SD = 2.29$)

1 completed the study. Coaches had on average 21.80 years ($SD = 12.09$) of coaching
2 experience and the swimmers had 5.13 years ($SD = 2.54$) of competitive experience. Coaches
3 rated training behaviours on a range of 6 to 34 of their own athletes. The average cluster size
4 was 1 coach to 17 athletes. Power analysis indicated that 109 participants were required for
5 detecting a moderate indirect effect (partial r for all paths = .30, $\alpha = .05$ and power = .80)
6 (MedPower; Kenny, 2017).

7 **Measures**

8 ***Mentally Tough Behaviour in Competition.*** We used the Swimming Mental
9 Toughness Inventory (Beattie et al., 2017) as a measure of informant rating of a range of MT
10 behaviours in competitive swimming (see also Hardy et al., 2014). The Swimming Mental
11 Toughness Inventory contains 11 items and asks the coach to rate their swimmers on the
12 following stem; “Swimmer X is able to maintain a high level of performance in competitive
13 meets even when...” The inventory contains items such as “S/he has a number of events
14 during a competition”; “S/he has underperformed after swimming several races during a
15 meet”; “S/he is swimming up an age group and/or against a national squad member”; and
16 “S/he has to achieve a National qualifying time”. Items were scored from 1 (*never*) to 7
17 (*always*) with a midpoint of 4 (*sometimes*). Beattie et al. reported adequate fit statistics for the
18 Swimming Mental Toughness Inventory ($\chi^2 [44 / 58.92 = 1.33]$; CFI = 0.97, RMSEA = .042,
19 SRMR = .045, Cronbach’s Alpha = .91). In this study, we also test the concurrent validity of
20 the Inventory. However, due to limitations of Cronbach’s Alpha (i.e., the conservative nature
21 of Cronbach’s Alpha yields estimates of reliability that are too small, making measure look
22 less reliable), McNeish (2017) recommends using Omega values¹. These are reported
23 throughout.

¹ The interested reader can calculate these values using an excel spreadsheet from here
<https://sites.google.com/site/danielmmcneish/academic-work/reliability>

1 ***Mental Toughness Index.*** The Mental Toughness Index (Gucciardi et al., 2015) is a
2 single factor 8 item measure that asks athletes to rate the extent to how the 8 items reflect
3 how they typically thought, felt and behaved in their sport, in this case swimming. The MTI
4 contains items such as “I believe in my ability to achieve my goals” and “I consistently
5 overcome adversity”. The Index is rated on a scale of 1 = *false, 100% of the time* to 7 = *true,*
6 *100% of the time.* Gucciardi et al. reported Cronbach’s alpha for the Mental Toughness Index
7 at .86. In the current study, Omega was .98.

8 ***Self-Rated Training Behaviours.*** As no measure presently exists that specifically
9 assesses self-regulated training behaviours in swimming, we selected 11 items from a larger
10 pool of regulated and non-regulated swimming training behaviours reported by Young and
11 Starkes (2006b). The 11 items were selected based on them being highly effective training
12 behaviours (see Young & Starkes, 2006b) and scored on a Likert scale ranging from 1
13 (*Strongly Agree*) to 9 (*Strongly Disagree*). Sample items include “I attend all training
14 practices” and “I am continuously active and engaged in warm-up” (see Table 1). In the
15 current study, Omega value reached .98.

16 ***Coach-Rated Training Behaviours.*** To obtain an informant rating of training
17 behaviours from the coach, we selected five items from the athletes self-regulated training
18 behaviours questionnaire upon which the coach could report. Out of the 11 items reported
19 above, these five items were selected based upon coaches rating them as the most effective
20 training habits (Young & Starkes, 2006b). We only used 5 items as we did not want to
21 overburden the coaches who were also completing 11 items from the Swimming Mental
22 Toughness Inventory for each swimmer. The wording of the items changed slightly from
23 above. That is, we used the stem, “Swimmer X (name)” followed by the five items e.g. “Is
24 continuously active and engaged with warm up” and “Always completes the prescribed swim

1 volume in warm-up". Items were scored from 1 (*Strongly Agree*) to 9 (*Strongly Disagree*)
2 (see Table 1). In the current study, Omega values reached .98.

3 **Procedure**

4 After obtaining University ethical approval, 12 swimming coaches and 208 swimmers
5 agreed to take part in the study. To obtain reliable informant data, we requested that all
6 coaches should have coached their athletes for a minimum of 1 year. Questionnaire packs,
7 consent and information sheets were hand delivered to the coach and their swimmers. The
8 coach completed the Swimming Mental Toughness Inventory and the 5-item Coach-Rated
9 Training Behaviour scale for each competitive swimmer they were coaching. The swimmer
10 completed the Sport Mental Toughness Questionnaire, Mental Toughness Index, and the 11-
11 item Self-Rated Training Behaviours Questionnaire at home, and returned them to their coach
12 in a sealed envelope. All questionnaires packs were collected by hand or posted by the
13 coaches within 10 weeks of being handed out.

14 **Results**

15 **Descriptive Statistics**

16 Means, standard deviations, and correlations for the variables measured in this study
17 are displayed in Table 2.

18 **Measurement Validation**

19 We used confirmatory factor analysis with Mplus version 7 (Muthén & Muthén,
20 2012) to test the factor structure of the 11-item Swimming Mental Toughness Inventory, the
21 11-item Self-Rated Training Behaviours Questionnaire, and the 5-item Coach-Rated Training
22 Behaviours Questionnaire. As we had a nested data structure (i.e., 12 coaches rated 208
23 swimmers), it is recommended that the Cluster command is used to control for nested data at
24 the coach level. We used recommendations from Hu and Bentler (1999), in that a model was
25 considered as having a good fit if the χ^2/df ratio was less than 2.00 the comparative fit index

1 (CFI) was greater than 0.90 but approached 0.95, the root mean square error of
 2 approximation (RMSEA) and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) were less
 3 than 0.08 but approached 0.05. CFA results for the 11-item Swimming Mental Toughness
 4 Inventory offered evidence of a satisfactory statistical fit, χ^2 (44 / 58.92 = 1.77; $p < .01$), CFI =
 5 = 0.92, RMSEA = 0.06, SRMR = 0.05, supporting concurrent validity for the measure
 6 (Beattie et al., 2017). CFA results for the 11-item Self-Rated Training Behaviours
 7 Questionnaire also displayed a statistically adequate fit, χ^2 (44 / 72.53 = 1.64; $p < .01$), CFI =
 8 0.91, RMSEA= 0.06, SRMR = 0.05. Regarding CFA results for the 5-item Coach-Rated
 9 Training Behaviours Questionnaire, fit statistics failed to reach recommended levels, χ^2 (5 /
 10 13.57 = 2.71; $p < .05$), CFI = 0.95, RMSEA= 0.09, SRMR = 0.03. Upon examination of the
 11 modification indices, factor loadings and item content, items 2 and 3 had high cross loadings.
 12 Therefore, we removed item 3 (see Table 1). This resulted in a good statistical fit, χ^2 (2 / 3.21
 13 = 1.60; $p = .20$) CFI = 0.99, RMSEA = 0.05, SRMR = 0.01.

14 **Mediating Effects of Self-Rated Training Behaviours on the Relationship between Self-**
 15 **Report MT and MTb (Swimming Mental Toughness Inventory²).**

16 We tested our hypotheses regarding the mediating effects of Coach and Athlete-Rated
 17 Training Behaviours upon the relationship between self-report MT (i.e., the Mental
 18 Toughness Index) upon coach rated MTb in competition using PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) with
 19 5,000 bootstrap samples. Lower and upper bound 95% confidence intervals (CI) that do not
 20 encompass zero indicate significance at the .05 level (see Table 3). To control for nested data
 21 at the coach level, all subsequent mediation analyses were conducted using the cluster
 22 command for coach. Finally, as MT has been shown to increase across the life span of an
 23 athlete and that male and female athletes mature at different rates (Connaughton, Hanton, &

² For ease of interpretation, where possible, we refer to MTb (Mentally Tough behaviour) in competition rather than the Swimming Mental Toughness Inventory.

1 Jones, 2010), we controlled for the possible influences of athlete gender, age, athlete
2 competitive experience in years and coaching experience in years.

3 **Self-rated training behaviours.** Model 1 examined the mediating role that Self-
4 Rated Training Behaviours has upon the relationship between self-rated MT (Mental
5 Toughness Index) and MTb in competition. The demographics explained 3% of the total
6 variance in coach assessed MTb and only the path between athlete experience and coach
7 rated MT behaviours was significant ($\beta = 0.08$; CI = .007 –0.15). After controlling for the
8 demographics, all paths in the model were significant and positive (although the direct path
9 between MTI and coach ratings of MTb was marginally significant; $p = .06$). Further, Self-
10 Rated Training Behaviours had a significant and positive indirect effect ($\beta = 0.12$; CI = 0.05
11 – 0.20). The Mental Toughness Index (and demographics) explained 37% of the variance in
12 Self-Rated Training Behaviours ($F(16, 189) = 6.91, p < .001$). Together, the Mental
13 Toughness Index and Self-Rated Training Behaviours (and demographics) explained 26% of
14 the variance in the outcome variable MTb ($F(17, 188) = 3.98, p < .001$).

15 **Coach-rated training behaviours.** Model 2 examined the mediating role that Coach-
16 Rated Training Behaviours has upon the relationship between self-rated MT (Mental
17 Toughness Index) and MTb in competition. The demographics explained 4% of the total
18 variance in coach assessed MTb and only the path between athlete experience and coach
19 rated MT behaviours was significant ($\beta = 0.08$; CI = .008 – 0.16). After controlling for the
20 demographics, all paths in the model were significant and positive. Further, Coach-Rated
21 Training Behaviours had a significant and positive indirect effect ($\beta = 0.07$; CI = 0.03 –
22 0.13). The Mental Toughness Index (and demographics) explained 29% of the variance in
23 Coach-Rated Training Behaviours ($F(16, 189) = 4.95, p < .001$). Together, the Mental
24 Toughness Index and Coach-Rated Training Behaviours (and demographics) explained 33%
25 of the variance in the outcome variable MTb ($F(17, 188) = 5.42, p < .001$; see Table 3).

1 **Polynomial Regression Analysis**

2 We used polynomial regression with response surface analysis (Shannock et al.,
3 2010), to examine what extent coach-athlete discrepancies in reported athlete training
4 behaviours predicted coach rated MTb in competition. This technique has more exploratory
5 potential than moderation analysis or difference scores (Shannock et al., 2010). According to
6 Fleenor, McCauley and Brutus (1996), discrepancies occur when a participant has a score on
7 a predictor variable that is half a standard deviation above or below the standardised score of
8 the other predictor variable. Using this recommendation, out of the 208 responses in the
9 current sample, 65 athletes rated their training behaviours higher than their coach did.
10 Seventy athletes rated their training behaviours lower than their coach did. Finally, 73 coach-
11 athlete responses were in general agreement regarding training behaviours.

12 Shanock et al. (2010) propose three types of questions can be answered via
13 polynomial regression. The first examines how agreement between the two predictor
14 variables relate to the outcome variable. The second examines how the degree of discrepancy
15 between the two predictor variables relate to the outcome variable. The third examines how
16 the direction of the discrepancy between the two predictor variables relate to the outcome
17 variable. At a simple regression level, results revealed a significant quadratic relationship
18 between the coach's ratings of athlete training behaviours and MTb (see top tier of Table 4).
19 Showing that at this level of analysis, the coach's perception of training predicted MTb in
20 competition in a non-linear fashion.

21 **Polynomial Regression Results**

22 As hypothesised, results revealed that coach-athlete perspectives of training
23 behaviours significantly predicted MTb ($b = 0.42$; $p = .03$). That is, when both the coach and
24 the athlete agreed that training behaviours were high, then MTb was high. When both parties
25 agreed that training behaviours were low, MTb was also rated low (see solid line from back

1 left corner to front right corner in Figure 1). Further the degree of the discrepancy (e.g., the
2 size of discrepancy) between the two predictor variables was not related to MTb, as the slope
3 from front left corner to back right corner is generally flat (see dashed line of Figure 1).
4 Subsequently, the direction of the discrepancy was also not related to MTb. That is, it did not
5 matter whether the athlete rated training higher (front left corner) or lower (back right corner)
6 than the coach. In total, training behaviours predicted 22.83% of the variance in coach rated
7 MTb (see Table 4).

8 **Discussion**

9 Due to a lack of research directly testing the relationship between self-assessments of
10 MT and meaningful behavioural outcomes (Anderson et al., 2007; Arthur et al., 2015;
11 Gucciardi et al., 2015; Hardy et al., 2014), part of the study's aim was to examine such
12 relationships. A further aim of the study was to examine whether self-regulated training
13 behaviours would have an indirect effect upon the relationship between self-report
14 assessments of MT and coach rated assessment of MTb in competition. The final purpose of
15 the study was to examine what (if any) discrepancies existed between coach and athlete
16 perceptions of self-regulated training behaviours, and whether these perceptions (discrepant
17 or not) predicted coach ratings of the athlete's MTb in competition.

18 Results supported our first hypothesis and previous research (Arthur et al., 2015;
19 Gucciardi et al., 2015) that a significant and positive relationship occurred between self-
20 report assessments of MT and coach rated MTb in competition (although it was marginal
21 when self-rated training behaviours was used on model 1). With regards to our second
22 hypothesis, previous research highlighted a possible link between MT and coach and athlete
23 perceptions of self-regulated training behaviours (Driska et al., 2012). Results supported this
24 link in that, a significant and positive relationship occurred between MT and coach and
25 athlete perceptions of self-regulated training behaviours. Finally, with regards to our third

1 hypothesis, results revealed a positive relationship between self-regulated training behaviours
2 (self and coach rated) with MTb in competition.

3 As noted in the introduction, the training environment is a major antecedent in
4 developing MT (Anthony, Gucciardi, & Gordon, 2016; Bull et al., 2005; Gucciardi et al.,
5 2009; Mahoney et al., 2014). Therefore, the second aim of the study was to examine the
6 mediating role that athlete and coach-rated self-regulated training behaviours had upon the
7 relationship between athlete self-report assessments of MT and coach rated assessment of
8 MTb in competition. Findings supported the fourth hypothesis that coach and athlete ratings
9 of self-regulated training behaviours mediated the relationship between self-report MT and
10 coach rated MTb. In other words, the direct positive relationship between MT and coach
11 rated MTb can partially be explained by how well the athlete trains (regardless of whether the
12 coach or athlete assessed self-regulated training behaviours).

13 Concerning our final hypothesis, results revealed that coach rated MTb in competition
14 was best accounted for when there was congruence between the viewpoint of the coach and
15 the athlete's perceptions of self-regulated training behaviours (see front right corner to back
16 left corner in Figure 1). It could be suggested that coach rated assessment of athletes MTb
17 would be best predicted by coach ratings of athletes self-regulated training behaviours (single
18 source data), but this was not the case. These results also concur with the viewpoint that a
19 high level of self-peer agreement is normally demonstrated when behaviours are directly
20 observable and are almost trait like (Hayes & Dunning, 1997). However, one interesting
21 question remains as to why almost two thirds of the sample disagreed on the level of self-
22 regulated training behaviours that the athlete demonstrated. Perhaps these coach-athlete
23 dyads lacked emphatic accuracy and had poor meta-perceptions in the coach-athlete
24 relationship (Lorimer & Jowett, 2009).

1 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to examine coach-athlete
2 discrepancies in relation to perceived training behaviours upon coach assessment of athlete
3 MTb. However, previous research has examined the relationship between coach and athlete's
4 perceptions of athletes self-reported MT (Cowden, Anshel, & Fuller, 2014). In this study, 16
5 elite tennis players and their respective head and assistant coaches completed the Sports
6 Mental Toughness' Questionnaire (SMTQ; Sheard, Golby, & van Wersch, 2009). The
7 athletes rated themselves and the coaches rated their athletes. There was some agreement
8 between the athletes and coaches on what the most important items reflecting MT in tennis
9 are and there was general agreement on the tennis player's skill level. However, athletes
10 generally rated their MT higher than their coach did and athlete MT did not correlate with
11 their coach's ratings of MT. The authors noted that it is perhaps not clear whether the coaches
12 could accurately appraise the athlete's self-perceptions of MT. In the current study there was
13 a significant correlation ($r = .22$) between the coach and the athlete's perceptions of training
14 behaviours. There was also general agreement regarding the ratings of training behaviours
15 with the coach rating the athlete training behaviours with a mean of 6.81 (SD = 1.45) and the
16 athlete rating training behaviours with a mean of 7.03 (SD = 1.05). Hence, congruence
17 between a coach and the athlete's levels of MT may be best predicted when assessing overt
18 behaviours rather than covert perceptions of MT.

19 The present results show how important self-regulated training behaviours are as a
20 source of self-report MT and coach reported MTb in competition. According to Rothman,
21 Baldwin and Hertel (2007), for training to become a habit, an individual must go through four
22 behavioural change processes, initial response (e.g., enrolling in training), continued response
23 (e.g., continued effort in training), maintenance (e.g., sustained effort to continue behaviour),
24 and habit, (e.g., self-perpetuating pattern of behaviour). However, in the present study, the
25 causal nature of the relationship between self-regulated training behaviours and MT is

1 unclear. It would perhaps seem that this relationship is reciprocal. That is, as athletes start
2 training from a young age, then their training environment (e.g., simulated competitions,
3 overcoming challenging environments, leadership, parental influence etc.) is a likely
4 antecedent of MT (e.g., Bull et al., 2005, Connaughton et al., 2008, Connaughton et al., 2010,
5 Gucciardi et al., 2009, Thelwell et al., 2010). However, as athletes start to compete under
6 more difficult environments, the MT that they have developed from a younger age, may help
7 them to deal with challenging training and performance environments at a later stage (Bell et
8 al., 2013; Driska et al., 2012).

9 In the present study, the assessment of MTb in competition and self-regulated training
10 behaviours were designed to encompass a wide array of positive and adaptive behaviours.
11 However, what constitutes adaptive from maladaptive MTb is not as clear. For example,
12 Driska et al. (2012) noted that coaches reported that athletes high in MT were characterised
13 as “pushing themselves into pain zones where most swimmers would not go” (p. 196). The
14 outcome of this behaviour clearly could go in two opposite directions i.e. injury or enhanced
15 performance. Researchers have also suggested that athletes with high levels of MT may
16 appraise risky situations as ‘less risky’ which may lead an athlete returning too soon from
17 injury (Levy, Polman, Clough, Marchant, & Earle, 2006). However, research has yet to fully
18 tackle the ‘grey’ area that exists between adaptive and maladaptive MT behaviours which
19 seems a potentially fruitful avenue for further research.

20 One anonymous reviewer also suggested that the self-regulated training behaviours
21 questionnaire used in the current study also contains elements of MTb. This may lead to a
22 conceptual overlap with MTb in competition (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff,
23 2016). That is, the attributes and themes developed in the MTb in competition questionnaire
24 are based upon observable adaptive behaviours of athletes in stressful environments based
25 upon a given definition of MT (see Hardy et al., 2014). The attributes and themes developed

1 in the self-regulated training behaviours questionnaire are based upon observable adaptive
2 self-regulated behaviours displayed by athletes “whose training behaviours allow them to get
3 the most out of their training” (Young & Starkes, 2006a; p. 56). One could easily argue that
4 both questionnaires contain elements of MTb, and perhaps they do. However, one could also
5 argue that many sport psychology questionnaires also assess elements of MTb. The
6 difference here is that athletes who train well (self-regulated training), are not always the
7 athletes who perform well (MTb in competition).

8 At an applied level, results show support that self-regulated training behaviours are a
9 strong source of variance in self-reported MT assessments and coach rated MTb in
10 competition. The strength of such relationships however depends on the perspective used.
11 Nevertheless, training behaviours (self or coach rated) and self-report MT predicted between
12 26% and 33% of coach rated MTb. Future research would do well to discover exactly what
13 type of training behaviours best influences MT and MT behaviour. For example, athletes who
14 have well developed training strategies (Woodman, Zourbanos, Hardy, Beattie, & McQuillan,
15 2010) and emotional regulation skills e.g. cognitive reappraisal strategies (Christou-Champi,
16 Farrow, & Webb, 2015; Mutz, Clough, & Papageorgiou, 2017), will be able to use such
17 strategies in competition and hence perform better under pressure as indicated from coach
18 ratings of MTb. Further, Bell et al. (2013) found that when used in a transformational
19 manner, repeated exposure to punishment-conditioned stimuli in the training environment
20 increased coach-rated MTb in competition and competitive performance statistics in a sample
21 of elite young cricketers.

22 A strength of the study lies in our use of dual assessments of self-regulated training
23 behaviours and an observational assessment of MTb in competition. Using multiple
24 perspective in this case avoids an overreliance upon single source cross-sectional data sets. In
25 fact, the use of informant observational data has become more popular in recent years when

1 examining the usefulness of self-report personality and MT constructs (Anderson et al., 2007;
2 Arthur et al., 2015; Beattie et al., 2017; Gucciardi et al., 2015; Hardy et al., 2014). However,
3 limitations in the current study is that the coach completed a smaller number of training
4 behaviour items (4) compared to the athlete (11). We would have liked to have an equal
5 number of items in both perspectives, but this would likely have put an extra burden on the
6 coach (completing 22 items for each swimmer they coached may have deterred some coaches
7 from completing the study). Further, although the outcome variable MTb in competition
8 assessed how an athlete generally competes across time, the cross-sectional nature of the data
9 prevents us from inferring causality. Future research would have to follow many athletes
10 across perhaps many years to assess the reciprocal relationship between MT, training
11 behaviours and MTb in competition.

12 In summary, there is a vast amount of research examining possible antecedents of
13 MT. However, research is still in its infancy with regards to assessing and developing
14 informant reports of MTb. The current study has shown that self-regulated training
15 behaviours seems to be a strong antecedent in both assessments of self-report MT and
16 informant ratings of MTb and indeed has an indirect effect upon this relationship. Regardless
17 of perspective, at its worst, self-regulated training behaviours and self-assessed levels of MT
18 explained 26% of the variance in informant ratings of athlete MTb. Future research may want
19 to explore exactly what type of training behaviours are more beneficial in developing MT and
20 coach rated MTb and how exactly does the coach-athlete relationship moderate such effects.

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Table 1

Item and Mean Scores for the Self-Regulated Training Behaviours Questionnaire

| Self-regulated training behaviour items | Athlete Mean (SD) | Coach Mean (SD) |
|--|----------------------|--------------------|
| 1- I attend all training practices.* ^r | 7.71 (1.20) | |
| 2- I am continuously active and engaged in warm-up.* ^r | 7.92 (1.32) | 7.30 (1.62) |
| 3- I always complete the prescribed swim volume in warm-up.* ^{r a} | 5.87 (2.25) | 7.35 (1.67) |
| 4- I often fail to complete the prescribed swim volume because I miss repetitions or get out early.* | 6.59 (2.22) | 6.79 (1.87) |
| 5- Sometimes I am unable to recall my pace times.* | 6.74 (1.79) | |
| 6- I am often unfocussed in dry-land training. | 7.37 (2.09) | 6.45 (1.94) |
| 7- I always achieve the prescribed pace times. ^r | 6.92 (2.17) | 6.75 (1.53) |
| 8- I am always one of the last to make it on to the pool deck. | 6.88 (2.03) | |
| 9- I always challenge myself during kick sets. ^r | 6.45 (2.51) | |
| 10- I often fail to attend to the technical aspects of the stroke during stroke sets. | 7.51 (1.39) | |
| 11- I am often reminded by my coach to be more into my training. | 7.48 (1.91) | |

Note. *Items used in coach training behaviours informant-rating CTB

^r Denoted items that were reversed so that large values equate good training behaviours

^a Item removed from the coach rated self-regulated training behaviours

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Variables of Interest

| | Mean (SD) | CRTB | SRTB | MTI |
|------|-------------|-------------------|---------|---------|
| CRTB | 6.81 (1.45) | | | |
| SRTB | 7.03 (1.05) | 0.22** | | |
| MTI | 5.59 (0.95) | 0.13 ^a | 0.56** | |
| SMTI | 4.83 (0.74) | 0.36*** | 0.33*** | 0.30*** |

CRTB; Coach rated training behaviours; SRTB; Self-rated training behaviours; MTI = Mental Toughness Index;
SMTI = Coach rated mentally tough behaviour.

^a = 0.06; *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < .001

Table 3

The Mediating Effects of Training Behaviours (Self and Coach Rated) upon the Relationship Between Self-Report MT and Coach Rated MT Behaviour

| <u>Mental Toughness (MT)</u> | <u>Predictor (MTI) to mediator SRTB</u> | | <u>Mediator (SRTB) to SMTI (Y)</u> | | <u>Direct effect MTI to SMTI (Y)</u> | | <u>Indirect effect</u> | | <u>95% CI</u> | |
|------------------------------|---|------|------------------------------------|------|--------------------------------------|------|------------------------|------|---------------|------|
| | B | SE | B | SE | B | SE | B | SE | LL | UL |
| MTI | 0.62*** | 0.07 | 0.19*** | 0.06 | 0.12 ^a | 0.06 | 0.12 | 0.04 | 0.05 | 0.20 |
| MTI | <u>Predictor (MTI) to mediator (CRTB)</u> | | <u>Mediator (CRTB) to SMTI (Y)</u> | | <u>Direct effect MTI to SMTI (Y)</u> | | <u>Indirect effect</u> | | | |
| | 0.34** | 0.10 | 0.20*** | 0.04 | 0.17*** | 0.05 | 0.07 | 0.02 | 0.03 | 0.12 |

Note. B = unstandardized regression coefficients; MTI = Mental toughness index; SE = Standard error; SRTB = Self-rated training behaviours; CRTB = Coach rated training behaviours; SMTI = Coach rated mentally tough behaviour; LL = lower limit of 95% confidence interval; UL = upper limit of 95% confidence interval. ^a = .06; *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < .001.

Table 4

Simple Regression and Surface Fitting Procedure Coefficients of Coach-Athlete Rated Training Behaviours upon Coach Rated MTb

| Variable | MT behaviour | |
|---------------------------------|--------------|---------------|
| | <i>b</i> | (<i>se</i>) |
| Constant | 3.99 | (0.18)*** |
| Athlete ratings of training | 0.29 | (0.16) |
| Coach ratings of training | 0.12 | (0.07) |
| Athlete ratings x Coach ratings | -0.04 | (0.03) |
| Athlete ratings squared | -0.01 | (0.04) |
| Coach ratings squared | 0.04 | (0.02)* |
| R^2 | 0.23*** | |
| <i>Surface tests</i> | | |
| a_1 | 0.42 | (0.19)* |
| a_2 | -0.01 | (0.05) |
| a_3 | 0.17 | (0.16) |
| a_4 | 0.07 | (0.05) |

Note. a_1 = Slope along $x = y$; a_2 = Curvature on $x = y$; a_3 Slope along $x = -y$; a_4 = Curvature on $x = -y$

Figure 1. Coach and Athlete Ratings of Training Predicting Coach rated MT Behaviour.

MT behaviour as predicted by coach and athlete rating of training behaviours

