THE INFLUENCE OF COACHING MODELS ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF MANAGERIAL SKILLS IN YOUNG ATHLETES

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Abstract

Skills are temporarily transferred through effective coaching models that contribute to managerial skills in young athletes, influencing areas of performance and conduct. The purpose of this research is to determine the effectiveness of strengthening various types of coaching models in increasing managerial skills, competence, confidence, affiliation, self-efficacy, team cohesiveness, and morality with young athletes. A cross-sectional design was employed, and measures were made on the sample at two different assessment points. The subjects involved 169 young athletes split into groups, the test group and the control group. Quantitative devices were utilized to measure efficiency, confidence, affiliation, self-efficacy, team cohesiveness, and positive and negative morality. Paired samples t-Tests and repeated measures ANOVA were performed using SPSS software for statistical analysis. It revealed maintenance of the levels of athlete's proficiency, confidence, and self-esteem. During the process, noted changes occurred in affiliation and team cohesiveness where the changes were more pronounced in the experimental group. Morality-related behaviors were the least changed out of all the behaviors. The increase in affiliation and the team cohesion for the experimental group remained significantly higher in the control group. The paper reflects on the effectiveness of specific changes to psychological and behavioral conditions to support improvements in athlete growth and training methods. Coaching models play an important role in increasing affiliation and team spirit among young athletes and at the same assessment preserving stability in proficiency and self-efficacy. It became evident that the intervention had a very small effect, if any, on moral reasoning behaviors.
Keywords: Athlete Development, Coaching Intervention, Coach-Athlete Relationship, Sports Training, Young Athletes

Introduction

The development of managerial skills in young athletes is one of the important concerns in sports education, as the individuals' learning process and personality shape not only their performance in sports but also other spheres of their lives. This includes managerial skills in leadership, decision-making, communication, and strategic thinking, which are vital in leadership and managerial positions in organizations as well as in sporting activity. It is the responsibility of the coaches to foster these skills using different coaching as well as coaching paradigms and techniques (Newman et al., 2023). The impact of coaching on skill acquisition is established through research pointing out that the best coaching leads training into the improvement of an athlete's abilities (Edison et al., 2021). Nevertheless, knowledge about the influences of various coaching styles on the enhancement of the managerial potential of young athletes is relatively limited. Over the last few years, the need to incorporate the element of managerial skill acquisition into the training of sports coaches has received increasing attention. This shift recognizes the fact that athletes, especially the young ones benefit more from a balance of both mental and physical aspects through preparation for leadership responsibilities in the teams and in other aspects of their lives (Stone et al., 2021). Adolescents facing challenges during adolescence can benefit from participating in sports programs led by coaches who use effective teaching methods and demonstrate positive leadership qualities. A recent study conducted in Curitiba, Brazil, involving 910 adolescents and 57 coaches from public schools, explored the impact of coaching methods on the development of young athletes. The use of small-sided games was associated with improved cognitive skills and goal setting. Athletes perceived coaches who exhibited democratic behavior, provided social support, and offered positive feedback as more effective in fostering personal and social skills, cognitive skills, goal setting, and initiative. Conversely, coaches displaying autocratic behavior were linked to lower levels of personal and social skills and goal setting. The study highlights the importance of coaches using a combination of small-sided games and supportive leadership to promote positive development in young athletes in team sports programs (Newman et al., 2023; de Albuquerque et al., 2021). Considering the changes in the role of coaching over time and the complexity of contemporary sports settings, it becomes crucial to gain a better understanding of how various models of coaching create the potential for the emergence of the above-mentioned skills.

Theoretical Framework of Coaching Models

Coaching models vary in their approach to guiding athletes. Traditional coaching emphasizes rigid instruction, while participative models involve athletes in decision-making. Transformability coaching focuses on motivation and self-discovery, while cooperative coaching combines coaching and mentoring for long-term personal development. Each model has its strengths and weaknesses, and the choice of model may depend on factors such as athlete needs and circumstances (Mastrorilli & Greco, 2020; Davis-Rae, 2023; Hebard et al., 2021).

Importance of Managerial Skill Development in Sports

Youth involved in competitive sports need to develop managerial skills to handle complex structures and prepare for future leadership roles (Yukhymenko-Lescroart, 2022). Skills such as leadership, strategic thinking, and communication are essential for individual and professional growth. Cultivating these skills through sports can prepare youths for careers in coaching, sports administration, and other managerial professions. Additionally, the decision-making, stress management, and leadership skills developed in sports can benefit personal and career development. Figure 1 demonstrates the impact of developing managerial skills in sports.
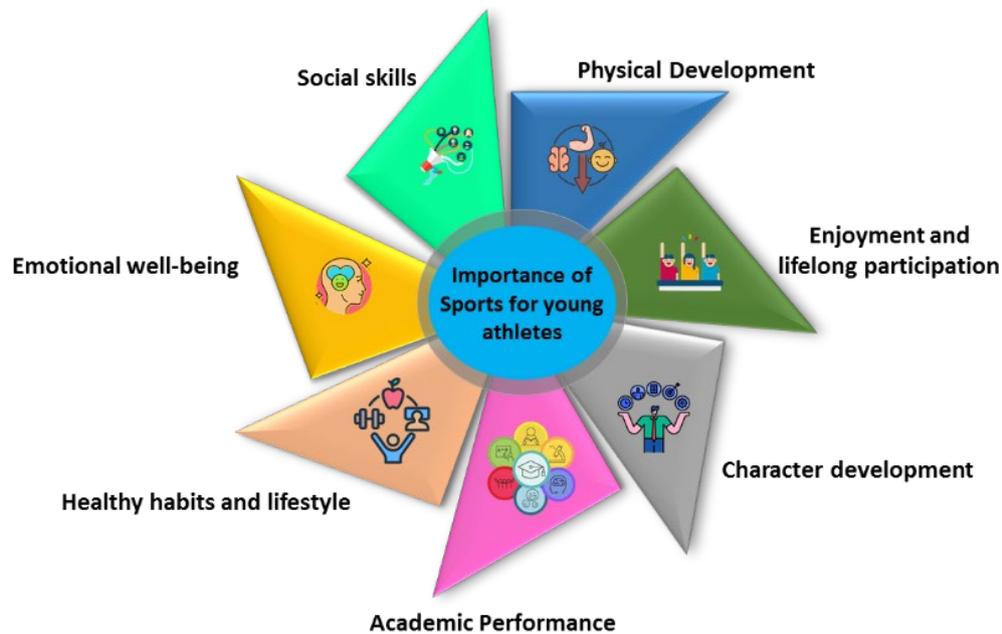
Figure 1 The Benefits of Developing Managerial Skills in Athletics

The objective of this study is to evaluate the impact of coaching models on young athletes' proficiency, assurance, affiliation, self-efficacy, team cohesion, and moral behaviors.

Literature Review

The influence of cultural and social limitations on juvenile sport and the development of skill environments was examined in the research (Vaughan et al., 2022). An individual competitive culture may have a detrimental impact on skill development, game performance and psychological health, as the study found. The results indicated that neoliberal and competitive individualistic cultural tendencies might affect high-performance sports organizations, resulting in socio-cognitive problems and impeding skill development, teamwork, perceptual learning, and performance at all levels. The social support of coaches was revealed to be a significant predictor of the direction of negative effects during competition in research (González-García et al., 2021) including 296 participants. Affects were affected differently by democratic and authoritarian coaching styles. A longitudinal method might disclose the multivariate experience of affect states, according to the study, which revealed that coach support from others was an adaptable teaching practice.

Preintervention, intervention, and assessment phases comprised the 15-month mental skills training program designed for top child athletes by the study (Dohme et al., 2020). For 11 young tennis players and their coaches, the program included interactive seminars. The program's substance and meaningfulness were shown to have increased when they had a good connection. Also, the program promoted a common vocabulary between athletes and coaches and improved players' comprehension of psychological traits and talents. Three components make up Newell's constraint-led model, which was presented in the publication (Dehghansai et al., 2020): individual, task, and environment. The model showed how several elements interact to impact athletes' developmental plans and gave coaches and practitioners a comprehensive strategy to address them. That context-specific method maximizes learning chances, improves athlete experience, and helps to identify underlying problems. 347 Korean-engaged college players were included in the study (Choi et al., 2020), which looked at the connections between athlete burnout, coach-athlete relationships, communication, and perceived coaching conduct. The findings demonstrated that communication was positively impacted by autonomy-supportive coaching and adversely impacted by controlling coaching.

Coach-athlete relationships and team communication acted as mediators in the link between autonomy-supportiveness and athlete fatigue, underscoring the significance of those elements. Football and the abilities that young athletes acquire were influenced by cultural, social, and historical elements of life, as examined in the research (Vaughan et al., 2021). The value-directedness of player-environment interaction and how it might impede growth in skills were highlighted by investigators. They offered an understanding of the language of expert motives, the indicators of expert intention, and the Irregular Pedagogy: Molding skilled intents concept.

Table 1 Research Findings on Coaching and Athlete Development

Authors	Study	Results	Implication
Vaughan et al., 2022	Vaughan et al. (2022) studied how cultural and social factors affect skill development in youth sports.	They found that a competitive culture can negatively impact skill development, game performance, and mental well-being	The study suggests that individualistic and competitive cultural norms in high-performance sports organizations may lead to social and cognitive issues, hindering skill development, teamwork, perception, and performance across all levels
González-García et al., 2021	Coaches' social support significantly influenced the impact of negative effects during competition in a study with 296 participants.	Democratic and authoritarian coaching styles had varying effects on emotions. A longitudinal approach could provide a more comprehensive understanding of athletes' emotional experiences	The outcome of the research suggested that democratic and authoritarian coaching styles had varying effects on athletes' emotions.
Dohme et al., 2020	The 15-month mental skills training program for top child athletes included preintervention, intervention, and assessment phases.	The program involved interactive seminars for 11 young tennis players and their coaches. A strong connection between participants enhanced the program's effectiveness, promoting a shared vocabulary and improving players' understanding of psychological traits and talents.	The coaching program resulted in increased confidence and improved team cohesion among the young athletes, contributing to their overall development and performance.

Authors	Study	Results	Implication
Dehghansai et al., 2020	Newell's constraint-led model consists of three components: individual, task, and environment. This model illustrates how these elements interact to influence athletes' development and provides coaches with a comprehensive strategy to address them.	By focusing on context-specific methods, this approach maximizes learning opportunities, enhances athlete experience, and facilitates the identification of underlying issues.	Newell's constraint-led model has been shown to enhance athletes' development by focusing on individual, task, and environmental factors. This comprehensive strategy provides coaches with effective methods to maximize learning opportunities and improve athlete experience.
Choi et al., 2020	The study included 347 Korean college athletes and examined the relationship between athlete burnout, coach-athlete relationships, communication, and perceived coaching conduct.	Results showed that autonomy-supportive coaching positively influenced communication, while controlling coaching had a negative impact. Coach-athlete relationships and team communication mediated the relationship between autonomy-supportiveness and athlete fatigue.	Autonomy-supportive coaching was linked to improved communication, while controlling coaching was associated with a detrimental effect. Furthermore, the study found that coach-athlete relationships and team communication played a mediating role in the impact of autonomy-supportiveness on athlete fatigue.

The previous studies have provided insights into the impact of coaching on athlete development and performance. The findings suggest that cultural and social factors, coaching styles, interactive training programs, and coaching models play significant roles in influencing athletes' skill development, emotional experiences, and overall well-being. The synthesis of these key findings emphasizes the importance of considering context-specific coaching methods, promoting positive coach-athlete relationships, and creating supportive environments to enhance athletes' development and performance in youth sports.

Research Methods

This study examines how sports can benefit young people from low-income backgrounds socially. A group of low-income residents and youth athletic coaches collaborated to promote the use of sports to enhance youth development. They provided training for high school sports coaches, placed students on teams, and offered professional development sessions. The study involved implementing a coach training course for young coaches, resulting in positive outcomes such as improved connections between coaches and players, feedback from players, and opportunities for players to solve problems and be involved in team selections. Participants reported gaining life skills like confidence, perseverance, motivation, and responsibility.

Further research is needed to assess the impact of this training on young athletes. An experimental study is proposed to evaluate the benefits of this coaching approach on participants and trainers, focusing on improvements in skills, confidence, teamwork, and ethics.

Procedures

Athletes completed questionnaires twice during the study to assess various factors such as proficiency, assurance, affiliation, self-efficacy, team cohesion, and morality in sports. Trainers underwent a coach training course three months before their initial meeting with young athletes. This timeline allowed for team selection, athlete enrollment in the study, and parental consent. Participants also had the opportunity to familiarize themselves with their teams and coaches during this period. A second data collection session occurred three months after the first, shortly after the season ended. Athletes completed questionnaires in a controlled setting, with trainers absent to avoid influencing responses. Study helpers and the principal investigator supervised the data collection process.

Analysis

The standard deviations (SD) and means (M) of the research parameters, along with the Pearson correlation coefficients between them at two assessments, were calculated. Data were checked for outliers, missing data, and various constraints. Young athletes who did not complete the toolbox in both assessments or failed to answer more than 10% of the questions had their data removed. Outlier scores were adjusted for four individuals. Changes in proficiency, assurance, affiliation, self-efficacy, team cohesion, and morality were analyzed using repeated measures ANOVA and Paired Samples t-Test in SPSS 27.0.

Measures

Proficiency: Young athletes rated their teammates' athletic abilities on a Likert scale for technical skills, strategic, and physical abilities. The average score for each athlete's skills was calculated. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were 0.94 and 0.95 for assessments 1 and 2.

Assurance: The Modified Competing State Anxiety Questionnaire - 2 measured self-assurance with a 4-point Likert scale. The mean score was calculated. Reliability coefficients were 0.95 and 0.96 for assessments 1 and 2.

Affiliation: The Coach-Athlete Relations Assessment (CART-Q) measured commitment to the coach. The reliability coefficients were 0.94 and 0.93 for assessments 1 and 2.

Morality: The Beneficial and Immoral Behavior in Athletics Scale measured beneficial and immoral behaviors. The reliability coefficients were 0.85 and 0.80 for beneficial behaviors and 0.94 and 0.92 for immoral behaviors.

Self-Efficacy: The Self-Efficacy Scale measured confidence in athletic tasks. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were 0.97 and 0.98 for assessments 1 and 2.

Team Cohesion: The Team Cohesion Questionnaires (TCQ) measured team cohesion. The reliability coefficients were 0.92 and 0.94 for assessments 1 and 2.

Participants: 169 high school athletes aged 14 to 18 from 23 teams in low-income neighborhoods participated. They were divided into an experimental group (n = 97) and a control group (n = 72). The experimental group received coach training. Participants in the control group were matched in age, gender, and educational background. The experimental group consisted of athletes only, while the control group included athletes from other sports teams.

Research Results and Discussion

Out of 169 individuals initially recruited, 135 were eligible for the study. 5 were excluded for incomplete survey responses, and 29 for completing only one survey point. The age range and mean age remained consistent. A significant correlation was found between excluded cases and their trainers. Differences were observed in assurance, proficiency, and immoral behaviors at

different assessment points. 60% of the sample were male with a mean age of 14.8. The experimental group had 92 athletes, and the control group had 43. The number of male and female coaches in each group did not significantly differ.

Initial Assessment

Table 1 presents statistical information for the proficiency, assurance, affiliation, self-efficacy, team cohesion, and morality measurements at both assessment 1 and 2. Athletes often reported low ratings for immoral behaviors, high scores for assurance and affiliation to the coach, and intermediate scores for competency and social conduct (Table 2). Athletes' feelings of their trustworthiness and connections to their coach were strongly associated ($r = .30$, $p = .002$), and colleagues' assessments of their abilities were substantially correlated ($r = .34$, $p = .02$) with immoral behaviors at assessment 1. Self-Efficacy was significantly correlated with Proficiency ($r = .37$, $p = .01$) and Morality ($r = .29$, $p = .05$) at assessment 1. Team Cohesion showed a notable correlation with Affiliation ($r = .46$, $p = .001$) and Assurance ($r = .39$, $p = .003$) at assessment 1. The proficiency, assurance, affiliation, self-efficacy, team cohesion, and morality facets did not exhibit any further significant associations. PYD values at Assessment 1 and 2 overall values as shown in Figure 2.

Table 2 PYD values at Assessment 1 and 2

| Positive Youth Development (PYD)	Assessment 1 (SD)			Assessment 2 (SD)		
	control	Experimentation	Overall	control	Experimental	Overall
Proficiency	3.54 (0.93)	3.40 (0.74)	3.40 (0.70)	3.40 (0.08)	3.59 (0.60)	3.57 (0.85)
Assurance	3.69 (0.58)	3.29 (0.59)	3.43 (0.59)	3.73 (0.53)	3.36 (0.72)	3.48 (0.69)
Affiliation	6.07 (0.80)	5.97 (0.94)	5.04 (0.80)	5.82 (1.27)	5.90 (0.96)	5.94 (0.07)
Self-Efficacy	3.67 (0.76)	3.59 (0.67)	3.63 (0.65)	3.75 (0.72)	3.67 (0.82)	3.60 (0.77)
Team Cohesion	5.12 (0.97)	5.90 (0.92)	5.90 (0.77)	5.07 (0.92)	5.02 (0.87)	5.05 (0.88)
Morality - Beneficial	3.53 (0.94)	3.63 (0.68)	3.50 (0.85)	3.57 (0.90)	3.52 (0.82)	3.54 (0.88)
Morality - Immoral	1.80 (0.60)	1.80 (0.44)	1.86 (0.50)	2.26 (0.05)	1.88 (0.60)	1.97 (0.84)
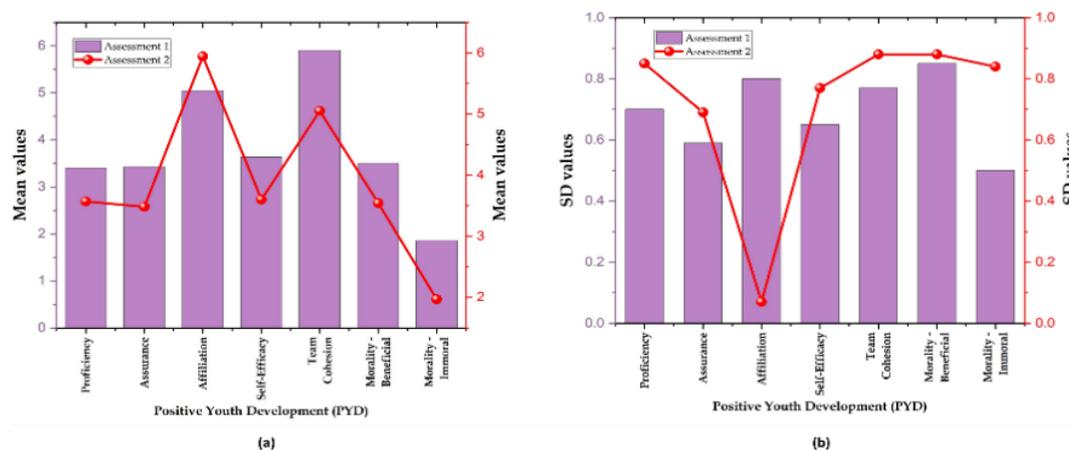
Figure 2 PYD overall scores at Assessment 1 and 2

Paired Samples t-Test (PST) Analysis
Proficiency: The study used the PST to assess athletes' proficiency levels before and after the activity. Results showed no significant change in proficiency ratings between assessments 1 and 2 (p = .47). There were also minimal differences in proficiency ratings between the experimental and control groups (p = .76), indicating no significant impact of the intervention on proficiency enhancement.
Assurance: The PST was used to examine changes in athletes' self-assurance from assessment 1 to assessment 2. The study found no significant shifts in assurance scores (p = .32) and no difference between the experimental and control groups (p = .09), suggesting stable self-efficacy levels.
Affiliation: The PST revealed a significant decrease in athletes' affiliation with their coaches from assessment 1 to assessment 2 (p = .01). The experimental group showed a stronger affiliation with their coach compared to the control group (p < .001), indicating a positive impact of the coaching intervention on athlete-coach relationships.
Self-Efficacy: The PST results indicated no significant changes in athletes' self-efficacy beliefs between assessments 1 and 2 (p = .50). There were also no notable differences in self-efficacy levels between the experimental and control groups (p = .15), supporting hypothesis two.
Team Cohesion: The PST showed an improvement in team cohesion from assessment 1 to assessment 2 (p = .002), with the experimental group exhibiting higher team cohesion than the control group (p = .004). This suggests that the coaching intervention positively influenced team unity and teamwork.
Morality: The PST did not reveal significant changes in athletes' moral behavior between assessments 1 and 2 for both beneficial and immoral behaviors (p = .67 and p = .26, respectively). There were no significant differences in moral behavior between the experimental and control groups (p > 0.05), indicating that the study did not impact athletes' engagement in moral or immoral behaviors.
Table 3 displays the results of the PST analyzing changes in proficiency, assurance, affiliation, self-efficacy, team cohesion, and morality between Assessments 1 and 2.

Table 3 PST Results

Factor	Control	t-value	p-value	d-value
Proficiency	Assessment 1 vs Assessment 2	0.72	.47	0.07
	Experimental vs Control	0.30	.76	0.03
Assurance	Assessment 1 vs Assessment 2	1.01	.32	0.09
	Experimental vs Control	1.72	.09	0.16
Affiliation	Assessment 1 vs Assessment 2	2.74	.01	0.25
	Experimental vs Control	3.45	< .001	0.31
Self-Efficacy	Assessment 1 vs Assessment 2	0.68	.50	0.06
	Experimental vs Control	1.45	.15	0.13
Team Cohesion	Assessment 1 vs Assessment 2	3.12	.002	0.28
	Experimental vs Control	2.97	.004	0.27
Morality	Beneficial Behaviors Assessment 1 vs Assessment 2	0.43	.67	0.03
	Immoral Behaviors Assessment 1 vs Assessment 2	1.14	.26	0.10
	Beneficial Behaviors Experimental vs Control	1.12	.27	0.10
	Immoral Behaviors Experimental vs Control	0.94	.35	0.08

RM-ANOVA analysis

Proficiency: The judgments of athletes' performance by their teammates did not significantly vary over assessment, nor did they differ according to the experimentation and reference circumstances [assessment: p = .52, F (1,110) = 0.48, ηp^2 = .004; Group: p = .88, F (1,110) = 0.05, ηp^2 = .02; assessment x group: p = .19, F (1,110) = 1.96, ηp^2 = .02].

Assurance: Both the assessment x Group interaction [p = .55, F (1,110) = .36, gp2 = .002] and the assurance over assessment [p = .45, F (1,110) = 1.03, ηp^2 = .004] did not show any significant changes. In both the experimental and controlling situations, there wasn't a substantial disparity in assurance [p < .001, F (1,110) = 14.83, ηp^2 = .12]. Particularly, during the trial, the controlling group's evaluations of assurance were greater.

Affiliation: A substantial assessment impact was seen [p = .05, F (1,110) = 4.60, ηp^2 = .05], along with a significant assessment x group interaction [p = .03, F (1,110) = 6.65, ηp^2 = .06]. No significant group effect was observed [p = .90, F (1,110) = 0.03, ηp^2 = .00]. Compared to the experiment group, which consistently perceived a connection with the coach, controlling group members experienced a considerably poorer relationship over assessment, according to these data.

Morality: assessment: p = .50, F (1,110) = 0.33, ηp^2 = .003; Group: p = .89, F (1,110) = 0.05, ηp^2 = .00; assessment x Group: p = .27, F (1,110) = 1.37, ηp^2 = .02] showed no significant variations in prosaically behaviors across assessment or between experimental in nature and control circumstances. Antisocial behaviors showed a significant assessment impact [p = .006, F (1,110) = 8.93, ηp^2 = .08], no significant group effect [p = .14, F (1,110) = 2.40, ηp^2 = .02], and a significant assessment x group interaction [p = .07, F (1,110) = 4.09, ηp^2 = .04].

Self-Efficacy: There were no changes in the perceptions of self-efficacy either across the assessment or between the experimentations and the control circumstances. The interaction of assessment x group was not significant, p = .30, F (1,110) = 0.70, ηp^2 = .007]; there was no statistically significant multivariate interaction between the two predictors: gender [p > 0.06, F (1,110) = 3] and self-efficacy [p = .25, F (1,110) = 0.47, ηp^2 = .013]. Self-efficacy in the experimental group demonstrated a notable rise across the assessment [p = .05, F (1,110) = 5.24, ηp^2 = .048].

Team Cohesion: As for the participants' team cohesion, the results showed that it had a significant influence over assessment [p = .07, F (1,110) = 3.89, ηp^2 = .036]. There was found significant assessment by group interaction [p = .009, F (1,110) = 7.23, ηp^2 = .c2, p = [0.064], proving the mean of team cohesion was increasing in the experimental group but constant in the control group. On the same note, the group effect by itself was not significant [p = .20, F (1,110) = 1.22, ηp^2 = .013].

Table 4 displays the statistical significance and effect magnitude for each factor's influence, along with the F-values, p-values, and ηp^2 (Partial).

Table 4 Analysis of Variance Results for Factors

Factor	Effect	F-value	p-value	ηp^2 (Partial)
Proficiency	Assessment	0.48	.52	.004
	Group	0.05	.88	.002
	Assessment x Group	1.96	.19	.02
Assurance	Assessment	1.03	.45	.004
	Group	14.83	< .001	.12
	Assessment x Group	0.36	.55	.002
Affiliation	Assessment	4.60	.05	.05
	Group	0.03	.90	.00
	Assessment x Group	6.65	.03	.06

Factor	Effect	F-value	p-value	ηp^2 (Partial)
Morality	Assessment (Beneficial)	0.33	.50	.003
	Group (Beneficial)	0.05	.89	.00
	Assessment x Group (Beneficial)	1.37	.27	.02
	Assessment (Antisocial)	8.93	.006	.08
	Group (Antisocial)	2.40	.14	.02
	Assessment x Group (Antisocial)	4.09	.07	.04
Self-Efficacy	Assessment	0.70	.30	.007
	Group	1.00	.32	.009
	Assessment x Group	0.47	.25	.013
	Within Experimental Group	5.24	.05	.048
Team Cohesion	Assessment	3.89	.07	.036
	Group	1.22	.20	.013
	Assessment x Group	7.23	.009	.062

These findings showed that the incidence of immoral behaviors increased in both groups, but the control group's members reported a bigger more than the experimentation groups (Table 4). The study results provide insights into how coaching models impact young athletes' regulatory abilities. Affiliation and team cohesion scores increased, but not as much as skill, assurance, and self-efficacy. Skill, assurance, and self-efficacy showed excellent improvement, especially in the experimental group. Proficiency and assurance remained stable, indicating coaching interventions supported athletes' skills and confidence. Self-efficacy levels stayed relatively unchanged, suggesting athletes' perceived capabilities in sports-related tasks did not significantly change. However, the increase in affiliation and team cohesion highlights the effectiveness of coaching in rebuilding relationships and teamwork among athletes. More contact with coaches led to improved relationships and teamwork, essential for coach-athlete dynamics. Enhanced team cohesiveness demonstrated better coordination and teamwork, crucial for achieving team goals. The study suggests that coaching interventions can enhance team cohesion and affiliation, laying the foundation for more effective coaching strategies for young athletes' development.

Conclusion

This study proves that effective intervention can play a massive role in defining the specific facets of athletes, specifically, their affiliation and team cohesiveness. The experimental group was observed to exhibit enhanced relations with coaches and cohesiveness of the team compared to the control group. However, other components like proficiency, assurance, and self-efficacy did not show much improvement during the study, thus suggesting that, they could be least prone to short-term interferences or perhaps would require other streams of sensitization to measure improvements. Other moral and immoral behaviors were intact meaning the intervention was not significantly responsible for altering athletes' moral behaviors. Finally, the results of the study show that the selected approach enhances a better coach-athlete relationship and improves team integration, emphasizing the need for future research in proposing strategies that can impact other psychological and behaviorally defined aspects of athlete development. The findings of this study will be useful for coaches and those involved in athletic training in their effort to find ways of enhancing the behavior of the athletes focusing on certain aspects.

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