INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON COACHING EFFICACY EXPECTATIONS AMONG FOOTBALL COACHES

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ABSTRACT

Coaches' confidence in their coaching abilities has a great influence on athletes and the results from their activity. In an attempt to explain coaching efficacy some authors relate it to emotional intelligence. The aim of the present research is to study the interdependence between emotional intelligence and coaching efficacy among football coaches.

Methodology: The research was done among 50 football coaches aged between 23 and 45 years with different level of qualification.

In order to fulfill the aim, we used: 1) Background information; 2) Coaching Efficacy Scale (CES; Feltz et al., 1999); 3) Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS; Schutte et al., 1998).

Results: the results reveal that the leading subscales for the researched football coaches are „Technique efficacy" and „Motivation efficacy". We established significant correlations among the subscales of emotional intelligence and coaching efficacy. The results show a significant influence of emotional intelligence on coaching efficacy expectations. High Emotional Intelligence leads to increase in Technique efficacy.

Conclusions: Our results regarding coaching efficacy reveal a certain specificity in comparison with the data published by foreign authors but confirm the findings in literature about the role of emotional intelligence as a predictor of coaching efficacy.

Key words:Coaching Efficacy, Emotional Intelligence, Personal efficacy, football coaches

INTRODUCTION

Coaches' confidence in their coaching abilities has a great influence on athletes and the results from their activity. Personal efficacy expectations are regarded as one of the strongest and most influential psychological constructs leading to achievement of sports goals (D. Feltz, 1988, 1994). The efficient coaching activities require constant, persistent and professional competent management of the different parts of the education-training process. In order to be efficient leaders on the field, coaches should identify the areas where they have to develop their competences. As Gould points out (1987), coaches perform a number of roles to be efficient (they educate, motivate, define strategies, organize, build characters, etc.).

Feltz et al. (1994) presents a coaching efficacy model which "provides a basic framework for studying the relations between coaching efficacy expectations, coaching behavior, motivation and athletes' performance" (Iancheva, 2012). Thus, the authors developed a sports oriented conceptual framework which was logically formulated in Bandura's works (1997, 1986, 1997).

The authors define coaching efficacy as "the degree to which coaches believe they have the capacity to influence the training and performance of their competitors" (D. Fltz, M. Chase, S. Moritz & P. Sullivan, 1999). The concept of coaching efficacy includes four dimensions: game strategy, motivation, tech-

nique, character building. In accordance with Bandura's theory of Self-efficacy, the authors offer a model where coaching efficacy expectations are influenced by their past achievements and experience (coaching experience, preparation, previous wins/loses), perceived abilities of their players, perceived social support. Here the authors include four dimensions – game strategy, motivation, technique, and character building (Feltz et al., 1999).

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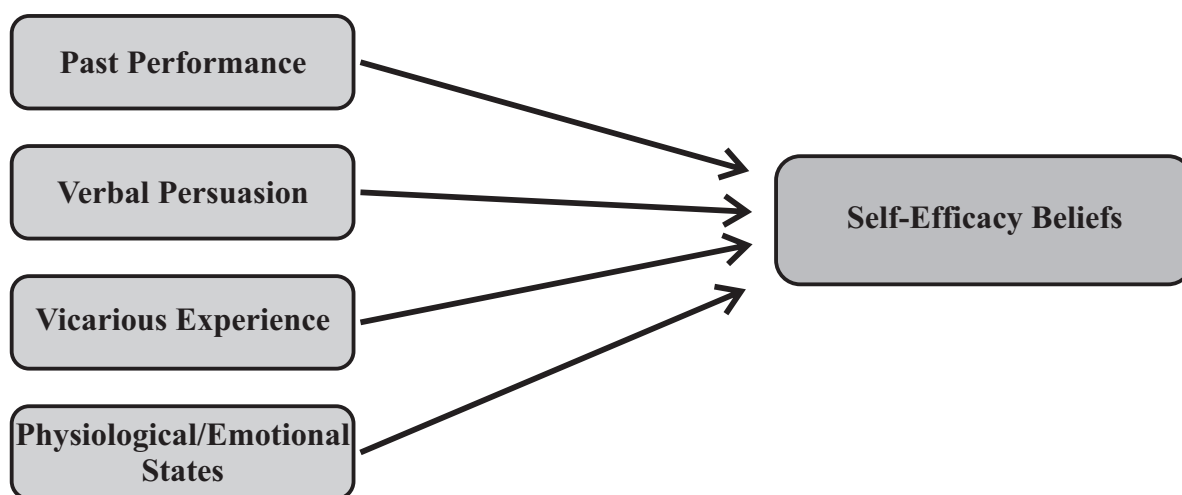

Figure 1. *Bandura's Theory of Self Efficacy, 1977.*

Feltz et al. (1994) clarified that coaching efficacy expectations were influenced by several sources which could increase or reduce coaches' confidence (Feltz et al., 1994).

The first factor is the degree of coaching experience and coaches' preparation for education-training and competitive activity. It is supposed that coaches with longer coaching experience in a particular sport have higher expectations for their work efficiency.

The second factor is based on the achieved results by the team and by the coach in particular. The proportion wins-loses has major significance for the positive team climate and coaches' confidence in the future success.

Social support is the third source of coaching efficacy. In the professional environment it is based on the support on behalf of the fans and organizational structures in the club. When coaches work with children and adoles-

cents, it is manifested in the support on behalf of the schools and parents as well.

These sources were expanded by Chase, Feltz, Hayashi, and Hepler (2005) to include player development, coaches development, knowledge/preparation, leadership skills, player support, and past experiences (Chase et al., 2005).

Table 1. *Conceptual Model of Coaching Efficacy, Feltz et al. 1999*

Sources of Coaching efficacy	Coaching efficacy dimensions	Outcomes
• Extent of coaching experience/preparation • Prior success (won-lost record) • Perceived skill of athletes • School/community	• Game strategy • Motivation • Technique • Character building	• Coaching behaviour • Player/team satisfaction • Player/team performance • Player/team efficacy

Feltz et el. (2008) developed Coaching Efficacy Scale – CES which is a continuation of their conceptual model. Consequently, the authors reduced it to 24 items measuring the four dimensions underlying in the base of the conceptual model (Coaching Confidence Questionnaire).

Conceptually, coaching efficacy is considered to be a cognitive mediator between sources and outcomes. The outcomes shown to be associated with coaching efficacy were coaching behavior, player/team satisfaction, player/team performance and player/team efficacy (Feltz et al., 1999).

Feltz et el. (1999) found out that coaches with higher coaching efficacy encouraged their players more, needed less time for demonstration and explanation of the exercises unlike those ones with lower coaching efficacy (Feltz et el., 1999). Research of Myers et al. (2005) supported these claims (Myers et al., 2005).

Sullivan and Kent (2003) demonstrated that coaches who were rated with high efficacy engaged in more teaching and instructional behaviors than coaches with low efficacy as well as provided more positive feedback to their athletes (Sullivan & Kent, 2003).

More specifically, research has recently identified efficacy sources to be influenced by gender (e.g., Short, Smiley, & Ross-Stewart, 2005), where males were reported to be more efficient than females. Malete and Feltz (2000) reported coaches who had participated in a specific coach education program to have significantly greater efficacy judgments compared to those who did not participated (Malete & Feltz, 2000). Lee, Malete, and Feltz (2002) suggested that certified coaches would experience greater coaching efficacy than those without certification (Lee, Malete & Feltz, 2002).

These coaching behaviors have already been established as beneficial to athletes as they promote mastery of skills through training, skills practice and recognizing, and rewarding good performances (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1980).

The sources of coaching efficacy, introduced in the conceptual model, influence both coaches' confidence and coaching efficacy, and have impact on the development of athletes' potential and reaching sports success.

Côté and Gilbert (2009) suggest that coach-

ing effectiveness is an interaction of a coach's knowledge, athletes' outcomes and coaching contexts (Côté and Gilbert 2009).

Horn (2002) formulated a working model of coaching effectiveness (Figure 2). In the center of the model he placed coaching behavior (box 5) and expectations, beliefs and coaches' goals (box 4).

The Horn model is based on three assumptions. The first is that antecedent factors (i.e., sociocultural context, organizational climate, and coaches' personal characteristics) influence coaches' behaviors indirectly through coaches' expectancies, beliefs, and goals. Felt et el. (2008) indicate coaching self-efficacy is including in box 3.

Second, coaches' behaviors directly influence athletes' evaluations of their coaches' behaviors and team performance. The effectiveness of coaches' behaviors is influenced by situational factors and athletes' individual differences.
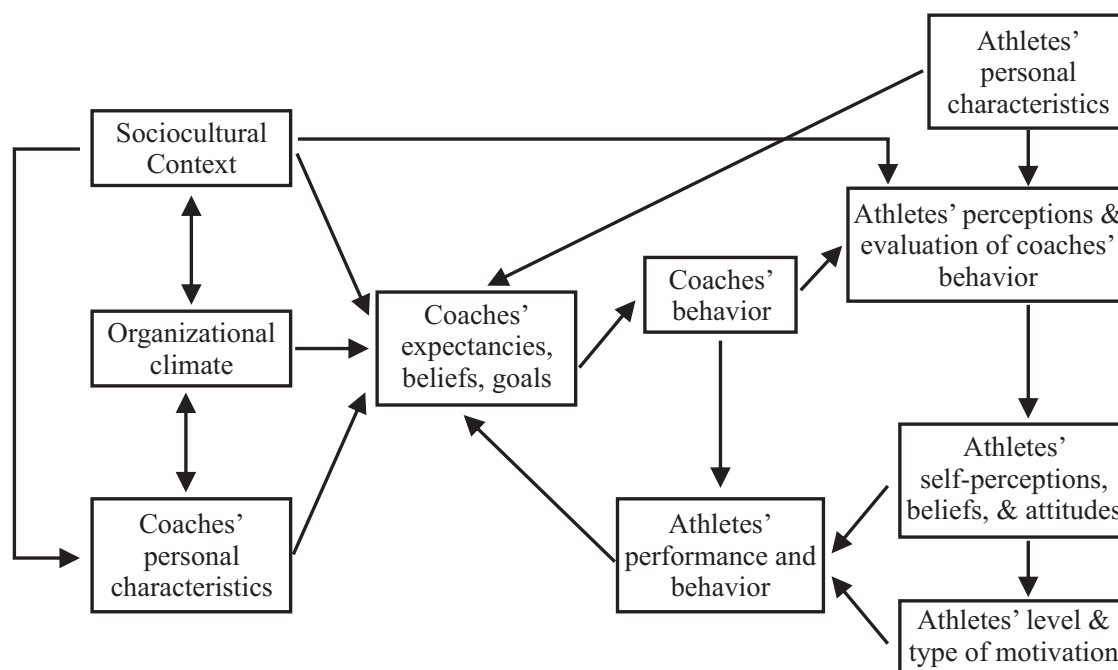
Figure 2. *A working model of coaching effectiveness (Horn, 2002, 2008).*

In an attempt to explain coaching efficacy some authors relate it to emotional intelligence. Thelwell and colleagues (2008) studied the relation between emotional intelligence and coaching efficacy expectations. The authors used Emotional Intelligence Scale and the Coaching Efficacy Scale. The results from research among 99 coaches reported a significant relation between two of the variables – the motivation efficacy was related to regulation of emotions and social skills, a character-building efficacy was associated with optimism (Thelwell et el., 2008).

Hwang and coll. (2013) did research with 323 head coaches of high school's basketball team and used Horn's working model of coaching effectiveness. The aim of the research was to reveal the relation between emotional intelligence (EI), coaching efficacy (CE), and leadership style (LS) of the coaches by testing the mediation of CE in the relation between EI and LS. The authors reported that Emotional intelligence of the coaches was shown to directly predict leadership style and coaching efficacy (Hwang et el., 2013).

The significance and role of Emotional

intelligence has been subject of research of many authors over the years. Emotional intelligence is related to major aspects of life such as building productive personal relationships and achieving professional success. It affects cognitive processes and is a factor for achieving greater personal success (Romanelii, Cain & Smith, 2006). People with higher emotional intelligence create more positive interpersonal relationships and are perceived by the others as pro-sociable, less hostile and conflict-seeking (Brackett, Rivers & Salovey, 2011). Their better social competencies and relationships facilitate the development of their intellectual and cognitive abilities (Ford & Smith, 2007). People with higher emotional intelligence find it easier to arrange their thoughts according to their importance, to regulate their behavior and to create a suitable life style to achieve the goals they have set (Brackett, Rivers & Salovey, 2011).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) created the first conceptual model for emotional intelligence as a predictor for the successful functioning of humans in society.

The authors conceptualized emotional intelligence as „the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

In sports context, during a training or competition, athletes can experience positive and negative emotions (Hanin, 1997; Jones, 2003). In reviewing emotions and their impact on sports performance, Botterill and Brown (2002) contended that athletes should critically reflect on their own emotional experiences (Botterill & Brown 2002). Hanin (2000) suggested participants needed to develop skills in order to recognise and manage their emotions. It could be argued that the evidence presented above closely aligns with the construct of emotional intelligence (Hanin, 2000). Totterdell and Leach (2001) found that emotional regulation could lead to optimal performance states (Totterdell & Leach, 2001).

The study of the place and influence of emotional intelligence in sports context attracts a lot of psychologists. Their research is aimed mostly at competitors (Lane & Lowther, 2005; Meyer & Fletcher, 2007; Zizzi, Deaner, & Hirshhorn, 2003). Its influence on coaches' work and efficacy has been less researched.

Athletic coaches are also leaders of their teams just as business leaders. Therefore, just as EI has been shown to be an effective variable in the business setting (Humphrey, 2002; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005), it is reasonable to consider EI as a key variable in effective coaching.

Gould et al. (2002) surveyed Olympic-level coaches for coaching effectiveness and identified that, in Olympic competition, being in control of one's own emotional state and masking certain emotions from athletes were just some aspects of a coach's effective performance (Gould et al. 2002). Hanson and Gould (1988) reported that being aware of their athletes' anxiety levels was a matter of great concern for coaches (Hanson & Gould, 1988).

Over the years there have been several conceptual models for emotional intelligence. Bar-On (2006) pointed out that this fact led to contradictions in the search for the right approach towards determining and measuring Emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2006).

Mayer and Salovey (1997) developed the ability conception of EI, which has four branches (Fig. 5): perception/appraisal, emotional facilitation of thinking, understanding/analyzing emotion, and regulation (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2002) em-

phasized EI as a cognitive-emotional ability within an ability framework that ought to be measured by a maximum performance test (MSCEIT), which consisted of performance tasks requiring responses that were evaluated against predetermined scoring criteria (i.e. expert or consensus scoring) (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002).

The other conception of EI uses the trait framework, which argues that this construct is not related to intelligence (i.e. cognitive ability) as traditionally defined, but rather that it is based on personality and behavioral dispositions. Trait approaches to emotional intelligence emanate from emotional behavioral dispositions and encompass self-perceptions in accord to experiences (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

Within trait emotional intelligence, participants reflect on emotional experiences across different situations and report their subjective perceptions. That is, the trait EI measures individuals' perceptions of their typical emotional ability such as regulating, identifying/appraising, and utilizing emotions in a specific situation (Petrides & Furnham, 2001, 2003).

Furnham and Petrides (2003) suggest that participants high in trait emotional intelligence believe that they are in touch with their own emotions and through regulating these emotions, well being is promoted (Petrides & Furnham, 2003).

Examples of self-report measures of trait emotional intelligence include the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS: Schutte et al., 1998); Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIque: Petrides & Furnham, 2003) and Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short-Form (TEIque-SF: Petrides & Furnham, 2006).

Our research is based on trait emotional intelligence and the developed by Schutte et al. (1998) Emotional Intelligence Scale, which was created on the base of 6-factor model of Lane et al. (2007).

The 6-factor model is factorised into appraisal of others emotions, appraisal of own, regulation, social skills, utilisation of emotions and optimism.

The aim of the present research is to study the interdependence between emotional intelligence and coaching efficacy among football coaches.

METHODOLOGY
Participants

The research was done among 50 football coaches aged between 23 and 45 years with different level of qualification - license UEFA „A" (1-coach), UEFA „B" (28 coaches), UEFA "B"- GK (17 coaches), national license „C" (4 coaches). The mean age of the researched individuals is 33.8 (SD=5.82). For the purposes of the research the coaches were divided into groups as follows: *depending on their sports experience as football players:* 0-5 years (10 coaches); 6-10 years (18 coaches); 11-16 years (17 coaches); over 17 years (5 coaches); *coaching experience*: 0-2 years (11 coaches; 3-6 years (20 coaches); 7-10 years (16 coaches); over 10 years (3 coaches); *age group they are working at the moment* - with 10-14-year-old football players (16 coaches), 15-18-year-old (18 coaches), male (13 coaches), and 3 coaches are not working at the moment.

Measures

In order to fulfill the aim of the research we used:

Background information. To obtain appropriate demographic data, a background information questionnaire was developed to ascertain details such as age, gender, the sport

coached in, the number of years that they have been coaching, and the current level of their coaching.

Coaching Efficacy Scale (CES; Feltz et al., 1999). The CES, although totaling 24 items (where items are rated on a 10-point scale anchored by 0 = not at all confident to 9 = extremely confident), is made up from four factors, where the four subscale scores, as well as total scale scores, can be employed. Each question is preceded with the statement 'How confident are you in your ability to,' which is followed by a subscale specific item. The CES is made up of six factors: Motivation efficacy has seven items (e.g., maintain your confidence), Game strategy has seven items (e.g., make critical decisions during competition), Character building efficacy contains four items (e.g., promote good sportsmanship), and Teaching technique efficacy has six items (e.g., demonstrate the skills of your sport).

Emotional Intelligence Scale *(EIS; Schutte et al., 1998)*. The EIS, although totaling 33 items (where items are rated on a 5-point scale anchored by 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree), is made up of six factors (Lane, Thelwell, Gill, & Weston, 2007) - appraisal of own emotions, appraisal of others' emotions, optimism, regulation, social skills and utilization of emotions. The scale shows very good psycho-metric characteristics in Bulgarian conditions.

The subscale „Appraisal of other's emotions" assesses the ability to appraise the emotional states experienced by others which is clearly an important concept for team athletes, coaches.

„Appraisal of one's own emotions" is central subcomponent of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

The subscale „Regulation of own emotions" assesses strategies that may be used to alter emotional states including reflection and re-evaluation of emotions in important situations, perceptions of emotional stability, and utilization of strategies such as imagery and seeking support from others.

Social skills are characterized by the ability to change the emotions of other people by general strategies such as being complimentary of and helping others, showing empathy towards others, and organizing social events.

The subscale „Utilization of emotion" is concerned with awareness of the influence of emotions on a range of different performance outcomes.

„Optimism is characterized by positive beliefs regarding the future toward general outcomes.

Statistical methods

When processing the initial data from the research we used statistical package SPSS 21 and made variation, correlation, comparative and regression analyses.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The analysis of the obtained results (Table 2) shows that, as a whole, the values along the different subscales of the coaching efficacy are close. The higher results were reported for the subscales „Technique efficacy" (M=7,986) and „Motivation efficacy" (7,864), i.e. the researched coaches feel the most confident in their abilities to provide the necessary instructions, to build technical skills and to motivate their players, to influence their condition and to stimulate their activity and to maintain their confidence (Figure 3). This fact is interesting and could be explained from the view of the circumstance that in most cases after failures, in interviews and public appearances, coaches often explain the poor results with lack or insufficient motivation.
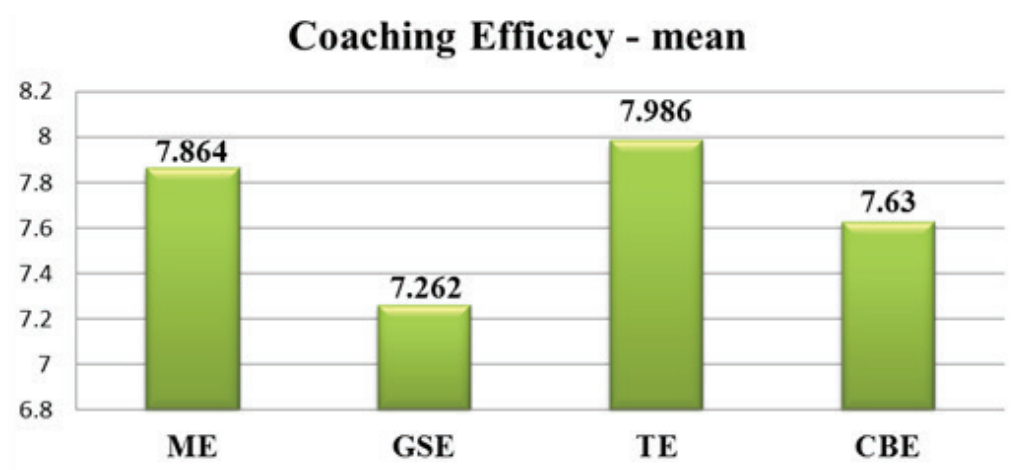
Figure 3. *Coaching Efficacy – mean*

Legend: *ME - motivation efficacy; GSE - game strategy efficacy; TE - technique efficacy; CBE - character building efficacy.*

The above-mentioned subscales are followed by the subscale „Character building efficacy" (M=7,630) – coaches' belief in their ability to influence the positive attitude and to build certain personal qualities. The lowest values were reported for efficacy expectations regarding Game strategy (M=7,262). This subscale reflects coaches' skills to make critical decisions during competition, to lead their team towards successful results.

Table 2. *Results from the comparative analysis of the results depending on the players' age*

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Motivation efficacy	10-14 ages	16	7,813	,8846	,502	,683
	15-18 ages	18	7,922	,8961		
	19+ ages	13	7,723	,9212		
	Not coaching[*]	3	8,400	,9539		
	Total	50	7,864	,8877		
Game strategy efficacy	10-14 ages	16	6,862	,9660	**3,869**	**,015**
	15-18 ages	18	7,500	,7332		
	19+ ages	13	7,154	,8069		
	Not coaching[*]	3	8,433	,2517		
	Total	50	7,262	,8912		
Technique efficacy	10-14 ages	16	7,938	1,0385	,799	,501
	15-18 ages	18	8,128	,6369		
	19+ ages	13	7,746	,9061		
	Not coaching[*]	3	8,433	,5508		
	Total	50	7,986	,8485		
Character building efficacy	10-14 ages	16	7,538	,9946	,801	,500
	15-18 ages	18	7,633	1,0649		
	19+ ages	13	7,531	1,2148		
	Not coaching[*]	3	8,533	,2517		
	Total	50	7,630	1,0562		
Appraise other emotions	10-14 ages	16	3,531	,8146	1,531	,219
	15-18 ages	18	3,889	,5960		
	19+ ages	13	3,600	,6570		
	Not coaching[*]	3	4,267	,5132		
	Total	50	3,722	,6979		

Appraise own emotions	10-14 ages	16	3,538	,8041		
	15-18 ages	18	4,050	,6271		
	19+ ages	13	3,854	,5607	**2,973**	**,041**
	Not coaching*	3	4,600	,3464		
	Total	50	3,868	,7049		
Regulation of own emotions	10-14 ages	16	3,556	,7257		
	15-18 ages	18	4,072	,7127	2,414	,079
	19+ ages	13	3,923	,5960		
	Not coaching*	3	4,467	,6110		
	Total	50	3,892	,7134		
Social skill	10-14 ages	16	3,763	,7728		
	15-18 ages	18	4,022	,7425		
	19+ ages	13	3,908	,5678	,865	,466
	Not coaching*	3	4,400	,4000		
	Total	50	3,932	,6968		
Utilization of emotions	10-14 ages	16	3,700	,7421		
	15-18 ages	18	4,056	,5469		
	19+ ages	13	3,885	,6479	1,570	,209
	Not coaching*	3	4,433	,3786		
	Total	50	3,920	,6481		
Optimism	10-14 ages	16	3,644	,8025		
	15-18 ages	18	3,872	,7036		
	19+ ages	13	3,892	,6958	,899	,449
	Not coaching*	3	4,367	,9292		
	Total	50	3,834	,7438		

Coaches, who are not coaching at the moment

The data from our research reveal statistically significant differences depending on age group the coaches are working with (Table 3) as regards game strategy. The higher values were reported for the coaches working with the age group 15-18-year-old. The lowest values were reported for the coaches working with the age group 10-14-year-old.

The results do not reveal significant statistical differences in the factors qualification (acquired license), coaching experience and competitive experience – a fact which differs from the findings in literature.

The obtained results from the research of emotional intelligence show that football coaches value the highest their social skills (M=3,932), followed by utilization of emotion (M=3,920). The lowest values received the subscale „Appraisal of other's emotions". The researched coaches find it more difficult to get oriented and assess others' emotions which could impede their sports-competitive activities.

The comparative analysis made depending on the age group the coaches are working with reveals significant differences as regards the subscale „Appraisal of one's own emotions", which is viewed by some authors (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) as central subcomponent of emotional intelligence (Table 2). The values of this index are similar to the ones of game strategy. The highest values were reported for the coaches without a team at the moment, followed by the ones working with football players aged between 15 and 18 years.

There are no statistical significant differences depending on the acquired license, the coaching and competitive experience.

The obtained results from the correlation analysis made reveal certain dependences between the researched parameters of Coaching efficacy and Emotional Intelligence (Figure 4).
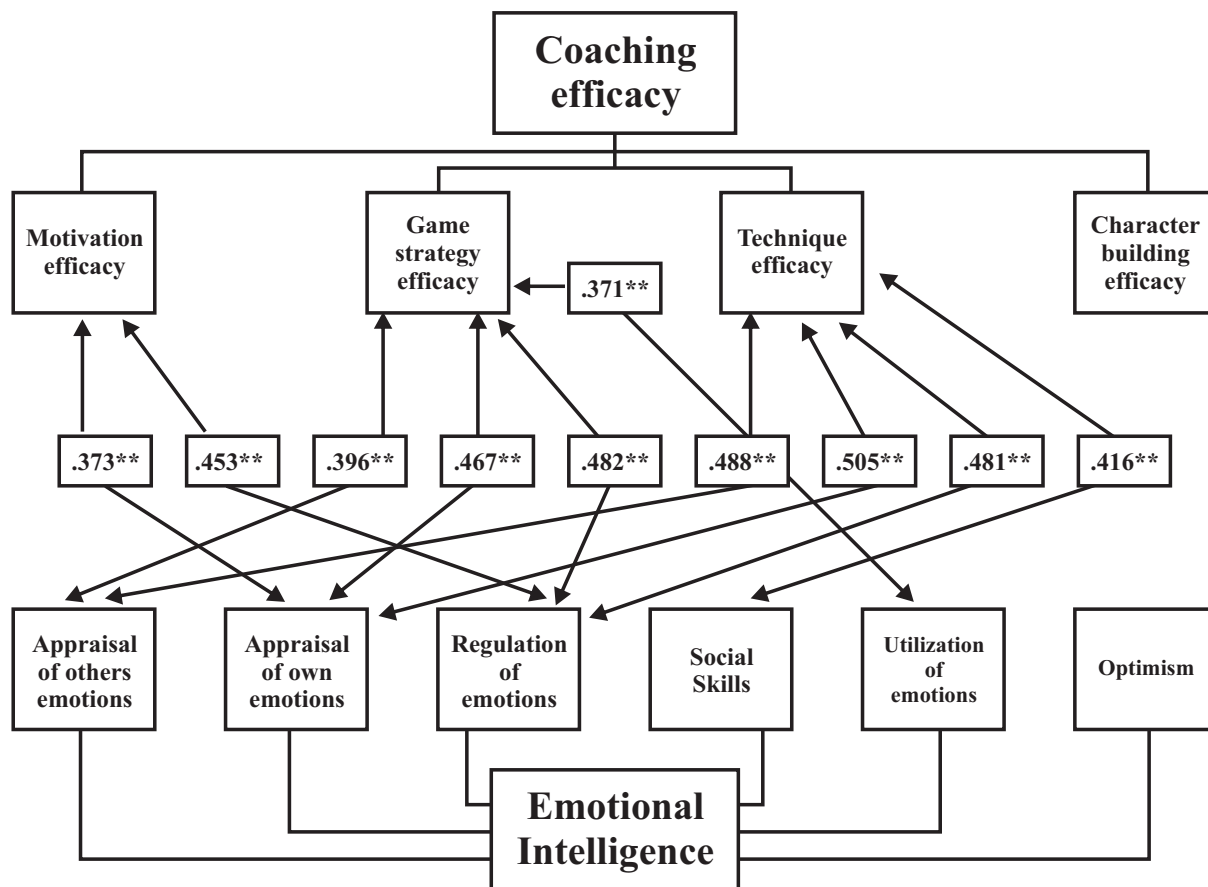
Figure 4. *Correlations between Coaching Efficacy and Emotional Intelligence*

There are significant correlations between Motivation efficacy and Appraisal of own emotions, Regulation of emotions; between Game strategy efficacy and Appraisal of other emotions, Appraisal of own emotions, Regulation of emotions, Utilization of emotions, between Technique efficacy and Appraisal of other emotions, Appraisal of own emotions, Regulation of emotions, Social Skills. The subscales Character building efficacy and Optimism remain isolated.

One of the tasks of our research was to study the influence of emotional intelligence on coaching efficacy. In order to assess this influence, we used step regression analysis. The results show (Table 3) that the high Emotional Intelligence [Appraise other emotions (β=.488***), Appraise own emotions (β=.505***), Social skills (β=.416***), Utilization of emotions (β=.447***) and Optimism (β=.334**)] stimulates Technique efficacy and leads to its increase. The Regulation of emotions stimulates Game strategy efficacy (β=.482***).

Table 3. *Results from the Regression analysis*

		t	Sig.	ΔR^2
Appraise other emotions predict: Technique efficacy	.488	3.872	.000	.238
Appraise own emotions predict: Technique efficacy	.505	4.049	.000	.255
Regulation of emotions predict: Game strategy efficacy	.482	3.814	.000	.233
Social skills predict: Technique efficacy	.416	3.173	.003	.175
Utilization of emotions predict: Technique efficacy	.447	3.458	.001	.199
Optimism predict: Technique efficacy	.334	2.459	.018	.112

DISCUSSION

The researched coaches have the greatest efficacy expectations as regards management of motivation and building technical skills in their competitors. This is an interesting finding and can be supported by the fact that in most cases coaches explain in their press releases the poor results and failure with lack of motivation or insufficient one.

The lowest coaching efficacy expectations can be observed regarding game strategy. It is interesting that in sport such as football where the game strategy and decision taking in constantly changing situations is of vital importance for the final results, coaches feel the lowest confidence particularly in this index. The reason for that could be linked to the coaches being conscious of the importance of this index and their inability on this base to cope with the requirements related to the management of game strategy. The data from our research reveal significant reserves for optimization of coaches' preparation and hence, for better results.

As a whole, the results obtained from the research of Bulgarian coaches' confidence reveal certain specificity in comparison with the data provided by foreign authors.

The data do not show statistically significant differences in the factors: qualification (acquired license), coaching experience and competitive experience – a fact which differs from the data found in literature.

Our results confirm the data in the literature about the role of emotional intelligence as predictor of coaching efficacy (Hwang, Feltz & Lee (2013). In this sense, we can assume that coaches who regulate their emotions and are aware of their players' emotions would be more successful in their activities both during preparation and during competitions. Emotional competence, the ability to identify their and their athletes' emotional states can affect positively their motivation and confidence.

We should certainly point out some limitations of our research. The research was done only among football coaches which means that the results cannot be generally applied to all coaches.

Future research with a greater number of coaches from different kinds of sports could cast more light on this issue which is very important for the theory and practice.

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