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SELF-EFFICACY IN SPORT COACHING: EMPIRICAL REVIEW LITERATURE

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ABSTRACT

The study of individual and group behavior within the sporting context has been a varied and helpful attempt. In studying behavior, the sport context allows for a somewhat structured and controlled setting without the need of a laboratory. In attempts to explain and predict phenomena in sport, a popular area of research for the study of both athletes and coaches has been focused on various personal attributes. One attribute that has been found in many settings to influence behavior is self-efficacy. It will be helpful to understand for coaches the importance of sport coaching and self-efficacy in sport. This empirical review literature argue self-efficacy theory, measurement of self-efficacy, research on athletes, teams and coaches and collective efficacy research on sport.

Keywords: Self-efficacy, Sport Coaching, Teams and Athletes

INTRODUCTION

The self-efficacy construct is one of the most influential psychological constructs thought to affect achievement strivings in sport (Feltz, 1988). Gould and his colleagues found that self-efficacy and team efficacy were chief among that factors that US Olympic athletes reported to influence their performance at the Nagano Olympic Games (Gould, Greenleaf, Lauer, & Chung, 1999). Bandura (1977, 1986, and 1997) defined self-efficacy as the belief one has in being able to execute a specific task successfully in order to obtain a certain outcome. Since the first publication of the self-efficacy concept (Bandura, 1977), there have been over 60 research articles published on self-efficacy related specifically to sport performance (Moritz, Feltz, Mack, & Fahrbach, in press).

The purpose of this article is to review related empirical Literature on the subject of self-efficacy players, coaches and teams performance. As a coach, sport coaching has greater influence on sport organization, there are many studies done on related topics. Therefore, this empirical review literature helps to focuses on overview of self efficacy concept and its measurement, a review of relevant research on athletes, athletic teams, and coaches.

REVIEW LITERATURE

In this paper empirical review literature will be organized under six sections: a) Defining self efficacy b) Self-efficacy theory, c) Collective efficacy research on sport, d) Collective efficacy research on teams, e) Self-efficacy research on coaches, and f) measurement of self-efficacy.

Defining Self-Efficacy

The first step in Rodger's concept analysis model is to identify and define the concept of interest. The concept of interest is self-efficacy. The history of self efficacy begins within Bandura's (1977) social learning theory that was renamed social cognitive theory in 1986. One of Bandura's major concepts in his theory is self-efficacy. According to theory and research (Bandura, 1995), self-efficacy makes a difference in how people feel, think, behave, and motivate themselves. In terms of feeling, a low sense of self-efficacy is associated with stress, depression, anxiety, and helplessness. Such individuals also have low self-esteem and become pessimistic about their accomplishments and personal development.

In terms of thinking, a strong sense of efficacy facilitates cognitive processes and performance in a variety of settings, including quality of decision-making and academic achievement. When it comes to behaving, self-efficacy can influence people's choice of activities. Self-efficacy levels can increase or hamper motivation. People with high self-efficacy approach difficult tasks as challenges and do not try to avoid them. "People's self-efficacy beliefs determine their level of motivation, as reflected in how much effort they will exert in an endeavor and how long they will persevere in the face of obstacles" (Bandura, 1989, p. 1176).

Self-Efficacy Theory

Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory was developed within the framework of social cognitive theory. Although, originally, the theory was proposed to account for the different results achieved by diverse methods used in clinical psychology for the treatment of anxiety, it has since been expanded and applied to other domains of psychosocial functioning including health and exercise behavior (McAuley, 1992; McAuley & Mihalko 1998; O'Leary, 1985), and sport and motor performance (Feltz, 1988). Self-efficacy beliefs are not judgments about one's skills, objectively speaking, but rather about one's judgments of what one can accomplish with those skills (Bandura, 1986). In other words, self-efficacy judgments are about what one thinks one can do, not what one has. These judgments are a product of a complex process of self-appraisal and self-persuasion that relies on cognitive processing of diverse sources of efficacy information (Bandura, 1990). Bandura (1977, 1986) categorized these sources as past performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological states. Others have added separate categories for emotional states and imagine experiences (Maddux, 1995; Schunk, 1995).

Performance accomplishments have proved to be the most influential source of efficacy information because they are based on one's own mastery experiences (Bandura, 1997). One's mastery experiences affect self-efficacy beliefs through the cognitive processing of such information. If one has repeatedly viewed these experiences as successes, self-efficacy beliefs will increase; if these experiences were viewed as failures, self-efficacy beliefs will decrease. Furthermore, the self-monitoring or focus on successes should provide more encouragement and enhance self-efficacy more than the self-monitoring of one's failures. One must be careful, however, not to become complacent by one's success. Bandura (1997) suggests that letdowns after easy successes and intensifications after failure are common sequences in competitive struggles. The continued setting of challenging goals and the positive reactions to substandard performances help to elevate the intensity and level of motivation.

The influence of past performance experiences on self-efficacy beliefs also depends on the perceived difficulty of the performance, the effort expended, the amount of guidance received, the temporal pattern of success and failure, and the individual's conception of a particular "ability" as a skill that can be acquired versus an inherent aptitude (Bandura, 1986; Lirgg, George, Chase, & Ferguson, 1996). Bandura has argued that performance accomplishments on difficult tasks, tasks attempted without external assistance, and tasks accomplished with only occasional failures carry greater efficacy value than tasks that are easily accomplished, tasks accomplished with external help, or tasks in which repeated failures are experienced with little sign of progress.

Collective Efficacy Research in Sport

To date, only a few studies have been conducted for the specific purpose of studying the relationship between collective efficacy and performance in sport. In the most extensive study, Feltz and Lirgg (1998) followed six intercollegiate male ice hockey teams across the season. Individual and collective efficacy was assessed before each game; team performance statistics from each game were also obtained. Results were in agreement with Bandura's (1997) suggestion that collective efficacy, rather than aggregated self efficacy, should hold more predictive power in relation to team performance for highly interdependent teams, as collective efficacy emerged as the stronger predictor of team performance. In addition, when wins and losses were analyzed across a season, collective efficacy was affected by performance outcome but not self-efficacy. Team efficacy increased after a win and decreased after a loss.

Spink (1990) was primarily interested in the relationship between team cohesion and collective efficacy. He recruited volleyball players playing in a volleyball tournament for either elite teams or recreational teams. They were asked to complete the Group Environment Questionnaire (Widemeyer, Brawley, & Carron, 1985), a cohesion measure, as well as responding to questions devised to measure collective efficacy. Individuals were asked what placing they expected for their teams and also how confident they were in those placing. Elite and recreational teams were similarly confident in their ratings. Results showed that, for elite teams only, high collective efficacy teams scored higher on Individual Attractions to the Group- Task and the shared social interests of the team than did low efficacy teams. No differences between high and low collective efficacy groups were found among the recreational players. Spink also found that high collective efficacy teams placed higher than did low collective efficacy teams. Spink argued that the difference in the finding between elite and recreational teams could have been a result of greater the emphasis on winning by the elite teams. He suggested that group goals may moderate the relationship between collective efficacy and team cohesion.

Paskevich (1995) also examined the collective efficacy and cohesion relationship tip performance in volleyball teams. His collective efficacy scales were more elaborate than that of Spink's 1990), including eight scales, and efficacy values were measured over the course of a season. Results showed that perceived collective efficacy and cohesion increased over the course of the season and that collective efficacy mediated the relationship between task-oriented cohesion and team performance at early season but not later season. There was also evidence for the independent effects of collective efficacy and cohesion on performance. The mediation effect supports Bandura's (1986, 1997) contention that collective efficacy acts as a mediator between cohesion and performance. However, as Paskevich noted, the independent

effects of these variables on performance at different points in the season suggests that a more complex relationship was operating.

Collective Efficacy Research on Teams

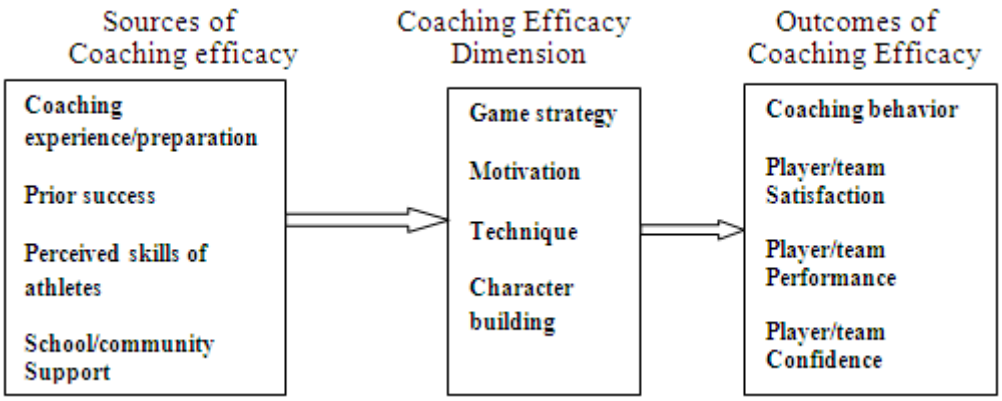
Bandura (1995) considers perceptions of a team's capability to perform a task to encompass the coordination and interaction influences operating within a team, some authors consider these resources to measure to separate factors of collective efficacy perceptions (Mischel & Northcraft, 1997; Paskevich, 1995; Zaccaro et al., 1995). Mischel and Northcraft, for instance, define *collective task efficacy* as "members' beliefs that their group has the task-related knowledge, skill, and abilities (KSAs) to successfully perform a specific task," and *collective interdependence efficacy* as "members' beliefs that their group has the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) to interact effectively in performing a specific task." (p. 184). These separate dimensions are also hypothesized to be influenced by different moderators. Perceived task complexity is proposed to moderate collective task efficacy; whereas, perceived task interdependence is proposed to moderate collective interdependence efficacy.

A related concept to collective efficacy, group "potency," has been defined as the shared belief of a group that it can be effective (Guzzo, Yost, Campbell, & Shea, 1993). However, group potency suggests generalized beliefs whereas collective efficacy is task-specific (Mulvey & Klein, 1998). While collective efficacy is typically a measure of individuals, those individuals are, by necessity, influenced by other group members. Collective efficacy, then, may have both individual and group level components (Kenny & LaVoie, 1985; Zaccaro, Zazanis, Diana, & Greathouse, 1994).

Because Bandura (1997) places the construct of collective efficacy at the group level, the averaging of individual data for use as group means can be arguable. For example, Gibson, Randel, and Early (1996) use the term "group efficacy" to denote a group's consensus about that group's abilities. Group efficacy, in this sense, would be comprised of one rating, agreed upon by all members of the group. The drawback to this method is that social persuasion by a few leaders within the group may lead to a forced consensus that is not representative of most of the group's members (Bandura, 1997). However, Rousseau (1985) suggests that perceptions at the level of the individual can be aggregated to a higher level construct and the mean used to represent this collective interpretation when the two variables are functionally equivalent. This condition is met when perceptual consensus has been demonstrated (James, 1982; Kozlowski & Hattrup, 1992). Perceptual consensus exists when group members perceive the team or their abilities within the team to function in the same way. Within-group differences in collective efficacy may be the result of self-efficacy beliefs, personalities of the individuals in the group, or different perceptions or exposure to group stimuli within the group (Watson & Chemers, 1998).

Self-Efficacy Research on Coaches

In addition to the paucity of research on collective efficacy in sport, few studies have investigated the role that coaches play in building neither the efficacy beliefs of their athletes and teams nor the efficacy beliefs of coaches themselves to carry out their roles. Another line of research is the examination of the efficacy beliefs of coaches in their own coaching. As Bandura (1997) suggests, the development of resilient self-efficacy in athletes is heavily influenced by the managerial efficacy of coaches.



Source: Bandera's conceptual model of coaching efficacy (1997)

Figure1. Bandera's conceptual model of coaching efficacy

Their concept of coaching efficacy comprised four dimensions: motivation, technique, game strategy, and character building efficacy. Motivation efficacy was defined as the confidence coaches have in their ability to affect the psychological skills and motivational states of their athletes. Technique efficacy was defined as the belief coaches have in their instructional/diagnostic skills. Game strategy efficacy was defined as the confidence coaches have in their ability to coach during competition and lead their team to a successful performance. Lastly, character-building efficacy involved the confidence coaches have in their ability to influence a positive attitude towards sport in their athletes.

In line with Bandura's concept of self-efficacy, Feltz et al. (1999) proposed that the four dimensions of coaching efficacy are influenced by one's past performance and experience (e.g., coaching experience, coaching preparation, previous won-lost record), the perceived ability of one's athletes, and perceived social support . They also proposed, in turn, that coaching efficacy has an influence on one's coaching behavior, player satisfaction of the coach, the performance of one's athletes, and player efficacy levels.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper is to review empirical literature on self efficacy and sport coaching performance. Bandura (1989) stated that People's self-efficacy beliefs determine their level of motivation, as reflected in how much effort they will exert in an endeavor and how long they will persevere in the face of obstacles. There are many studies exploring self-efficacy. No matter what categories of self-efficacy are used in different sport studies. Therefore, almost all of them are recognize understanding the concept of self-efficacy during sport coaching.

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