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2 **Congruence of efficacy beliefs on the coach-athlete relationship and athlete anxiety: Athlete**
3 **self-efficacy and coach estimation of athlete self-efficacy**

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Abstract

This study's purpose was to assess the extent to which congruence of athlete self-efficacy and Coach Estimation of Athlete Self-Efficacy (CEASE) is associated with coach-athlete relationship quality and athlete anxiety. Data were obtained from 71 British coach-athlete dyads from individual sports regarding athlete self-efficacy, CEASE, coach-athlete relationship quality, and athlete anxiety. Polynomial regression analyses were conducted to assess congruence, with significant interactions depicted in surface response graphs. Athlete self-efficacy was significant in predicting athlete perceptions of relationship quality and CEASE was significant in predicting coach perceptions of relationship quality, but neither directly predicted the other person's relationship perceptions. Congruence (of athlete self-efficacy and CEASE) was significant in predicting athlete, but not coach, perceptions of relationship quality. Athlete anxiety was not significantly predicted. Overall, results from the study suggest that the coach-athlete relationship is enhanced when coaches and athletes have congruent perceptions of efficacy, with more cooperative and effective interactions resulting from congruence at high and low efficacy.

Keywords: Congruence, Polynomial Regression, Closeness, Commitment, Complementarity

20 **Congruence of Athlete Self-Efficacy and Coach Estimation of Athlete Self-Efficacy on the**
21 **Coach-Athlete Relationship and Athlete Anxiety**

22 In 2019, Eliud Kipchoge broke the world record by setting a new marathon time of 1 hour
23 59 minutes and 40 seconds (New York Times, 2019). The record-breaking run involved a team of
24 coaches who had to make assessments of how likely potential athletes would be able to run a sub
25 two-hour marathon. Given many of the athletes likely had similar physical capabilities, the team
26 behind the run would have estimated potential athletes' self-efficacy to achieve the task. It is
27 plausible to suggest that their selection of Kipchoge would have been based on these estimations.
28 Kipchoge's coach, Patrick Sang, stated in an interview prior to the event that "[Kipchoge]
29 possesses an unwavering belief in himself unlike anyone I have ever met...I believe he will
30 become the first human to run a sub two-hour marathon" (INEOS, 2019). While Sang appears to
31 have accurately estimated Kipchoge's self-efficacy leading to his success, coaches' assessments
32 can vary in their accuracy. Mis-estimation of athletes' efficacy beliefs can have consequences
33 that can undermine the coach-athlete relationship and impact athlete anxiety and performance
34 (Jackson & Beauchamp, 2010a). Unfortunately, very little is known about the impact of
35 congruence of relational efficacy beliefs (Habeeb, 2020). As such, the purpose of this study was
36 to assess the extent to which congruence of athlete self-efficacy and Coach Estimation of Athlete
37 Self-Efficacy (CEASE) is predictive of coach-athlete relationship quality and athlete anxiety.

38 **Tripartite Framework of Relational Efficacy Beliefs**

39 Lent and Lopez's (2002) original tripartite framework describes the importance of three
40 types of efficacy beliefs that can emerge in the coach-athlete relationship. The first of these
41 beliefs is *self-efficacy* or confidence beliefs about self-capabilities to perform actions needed to
42 produce desired outcomes (Bandura, 1986). The second belief is *other-efficacy*, which is an
43 individual's beliefs about a relational partner's abilities relative to desired outcomes (e.g., I am
44 confident in my coach). The final belief is *relation inferred self-efficacy* (RISE), which is the
45 individual's appraisal of how his or her own capabilities are regarded by the relational partner

46 (e.g., I think my coach is confident in me; Lent & Lopez, 2002). Lent and Lopez posited that
47 these three efficacy beliefs about the self and the relational other have a substantial effect on both
48 individual and relationship functioning such as personal reliance, effort, and commitment among
49 partners. Researchers have shown an array of support for Lent and Lopez's (2002) theoretical
50 contentions in sport (cf. Habeeb, 2020). Jackson et al. (2010b) found, for example, that high
51 efficacy in one's coach or athlete (i.e., other-efficacy) predicts enhanced relationship perceptions
52 for both coach and athlete. Similarly, athletes who report higher levels of self- and other-efficacy
53 toward a teammate tend to experience higher levels of commitment and satisfaction with that
54 relationship (Jackson et al., 2007). Relational efficacy beliefs can also impact the relational
55 partner. For example, athletes' RISE negatively predicted coach commitment, while coach's
56 RISE positively predicted athlete commitment in a youth athlete sample (Jackson & Beauchamp,
57 2010b). In addition to relationship perceptions, the relational efficacy beliefs are associated with
58 athletes' individual and team performance outcomes (Beauchamp & Whinton, 2005; Habeeb et
59 al., 2019), indicating the importance of relational efficacy beliefs to athlete success.

60 **Estimation of Other's Self-Efficacy**

61 Since Lent and Lopez (2002) proposed the tripartite framework, the possibility of
62 extending the framework to include additional efficacy beliefs has been forwarded by sport
63 researchers. This has been based on Lent and Lopez's referral to their tripartite framework as a
64 "preliminary model" (p. 257) that could potentially be extended and refined. Of specific
65 importance, Jackson and Beauchamp (2010a) argued that a person will likely assess a relational
66 partner's self-efficacy, labelled *Estimation of the Other Person's Self-Efficacy (EOSE)*. EOSE
67 represents "the degree to which a person believes that his or her partner is confident in the
68 partner's *own* abilities" (Jackson & Beauchamp, 2010a; p. 189). A coach may estimate, as an
69 example, that "my athlete has no self-efficacy" and we use the term Coach Estimation of Athlete
70 Self-Efficacy (CEASE) to refer to the coach-to-athlete direction of perception. An athlete may
71 also estimate the coach's self-efficacy and we use the term Athlete Estimation of Coach Self-

72 Efficacy (AECSE) to refer to the athlete-to-coach direction. Interviews with both athlete-athlete
73 and coach-athlete dyads have revealed that these beliefs (i.e., EOSE) arise from both perceptions
74 of the partner and perceptions of the dyad through verbal/non-verbal communication, past
75 performances, and affective states (Jackson & Beauchamp, 2010a). Consequences, both
76 intrapersonal and interpersonal, were also described by these participants including changes in
77 anxiety, self-efficacy, motivation, relationship commitment and relationship longevity. Jackson
78 and Beauchamp's preliminary study highlights that EOSE is an important aspect within the larger
79 network of efficacy beliefs for coaches and athletes. Unfortunately, researchers to date have yet
80 to investigate EOSE further. In their recent reviews, Habeeb (2020) and Jackson et al. (2020)
81 argued for a specific need to assess EOSE (and specifically its congruence with athlete self-
82 efficacy) because such an investigation would inform coaches and athletes of how their beliefs
83 about one another's can impact the others' successes.

84 Lent and Lopez (2002) acknowledged that relational efficacy beliefs across partners may
85 or may not accurately reflect one another's actual beliefs or abilities. A difference between
86 athlete self-efficacy and a coach's estimation of her athlete's self-efficacy (i.e., CEASE), as an
87 example, can occur because CEASE depends on accurately interpreting social cues from the
88 athlete (including explicit communication, such as verbal, and implicit communication, such as
89 body language). It can be difficult for some coaches and athletes to effectively interpret the
90 multifaceted information that exists within a relationship. This was supported by Jackson et al.'s
91 (2011) findings indicating that about 20% of coach-athlete relationships are associated with
92 discordance among athlete self-efficacy, other-efficacy and RISE. Based on Jackson and
93 Beauchamp's (2010a) investigation, it seems that CEASE may also be susceptible to being
94 discordant with the athlete's self-efficacy. Athletes specifically reported that when there was a
95 discrepancy between their own self-efficacy and their coaches' estimation of their self-efficacy
96 (CEASE) that they paid less attention to coach feedback, were less confident in their coach (low
97 other-efficacy), experienced higher levels of anxiety and felt less committed to the relationship.

98 Similarly, Jackson et al. (2007) found that athletes' RISE beliefs were not aligned to the
99 confidence their tennis partners actually had in them (i.e., the teammate's other-efficacy).
100 Unfortunately, a closer focus on the interaction of efficacy beliefs has not been investigated and
101 little is known about how differing levels of estimation (e.g., high athlete self-efficacy and low
102 CEASE) may be associated with personal and relational outcomes.

103 The need to better understand congruence, or meta-accuracy, between athlete and coach
104 efficacy perceptions was highlighted in two recent reviews regarding the tripartite network of
105 efficacy beliefs (Habeeb, 2020; Jackson et al., 2020). Meta-accuracy refers to the ability for a
106 partner to accurately assess another's actual beliefs (Kenny & DePaulo, 1993). Only two studies
107 have been conducted investigating meta-accuracy of EOSE and self-efficacy within coach-athlete
108 relationships. Both studies indicate mixed evidence for congruence of coach self-efficacy and
109 their athletes' estimation of their self-efficacy (AECSE). Short and Short (2004) compared male
110 coaches' self-efficacy with their male athletes' ratings of AECSE. They found that athletes
111 estimated their coach's self-efficacy in a similar way as coaches rated their own self-efficacy.
112 Conversely, Caron (2015) found that coaches and athletes did not rate coach efficacy similarly,
113 with most athletes reporting lower AECSE compared to their coach's self-efficacy. In other
114 words, athletes under-estimated their coach's self-efficacy. Under-estimation was most strongly
115 present in female coach-athlete pairs compared to male or mixed gender coach-athlete pairs. To
116 date, no study has investigated the congruence of athlete self-efficacy and CEASE, despite
117 evidence that coaches' beliefs about athletes can have more impact on athletes, compared to
118 athletes' beliefs about coaches, due to the coach-athlete hierarchy (Jackson et al., 2010; Mageau
119 & Vallerand, 2003). As such, the current study is focused on the extent to which congruence
120 between athlete self-efficacy and CEASE predicts two specific outcomes identified within
121 previous literature: coach-athlete relationship quality and athlete anxiety.

122 **Coach-Athlete Relationship Quality**

123 Researchers have found that efficacy perceptions predict levels of closeness, commitment

124 and complementarity within the coach-athlete relationship (Jackson & Beauchamp, 2010b;
125 Jackson et al., 2007) and for this reason the first outcome variable investigated in this study is
126 coach-athlete relationship quality. The 3 + 1C's conceptual model of coach-athlete interactions
127 (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003) is one model that suggests coaches and athletes are subject to
128 interconnected feelings, thoughts and behaviors. According to Jowett and Cockerill, the first three
129 constructs in this model capture key attributes of interconnectedness in the coach-athlete
130 relationship. *Closeness* pertains to the emotional connection of the relationship and the
131 experience of an affective bond between coach and athlete. Expressions such as trust, respect and
132 gratitude can indicate a more positive relationship. *Commitment* reflects the intention of the coach
133 or athlete to maintain their relationship over time. *Complementarity* refers to the interaction
134 between coach and athlete that is cooperative and effective. Behaviors such as being responsive
135 in training and being friendly and at ease indicate positive complementarity in the relationship.

136 The fourth construct in this model, *co-orientation*, contains two distinct perceptual levels
137 from which coaches and athletes are likely to view, consider, and assess the quality of the
138 relationship (Davis & Jowett, 2014; Jowett & Lavallee, 2007). These perceptual levels include
139 the direct perspective and the meta-perspective. The direct perspective reflects a relationship
140 member's personal thoughts and feelings for the other member (e.g., "I am committed to my
141 coach/athlete"). The meta-perspective reflects a relationship member's effort to perceive the
142 relationship from the other member's perspective (e.g., "My coach/athlete is committed [to
143 me]"). Co-orientation has been found to be an important determinant of the longevity of a coach-
144 athlete relationship (e.g., Jowett & Cockerill, 2003). Isoard-Gauthier et al. (2012) found, for
145 example, that athletes who reported low co-orientation with their coach experienced higher levels
146 of burnout which can lead to termination of both the relationship and the athlete's career in sport.
147 As aforementioned, researchers have found that when efficacy perceptions differ between a coach
148 and an athlete (i.e., low co-orientation) then athletes experience low other-efficacy in their coach,
149 increased anxiety, and decreased relationship satisfaction (Jackson & Beauchamp, 2010a;

150 Jackson et al., 2007; Jackson et al., 2011). These studies highlight the importance of maintaining
151 similar perceptions of both efficacy and relationship quality within the coach-athlete relationship.

152 **Athlete Anxiety**

153 The second outcome variable investigated in this study is anxiety. Findings from Jackson
154 and Beauchamp (2010a) indicated that athletes who reported discrepancy between their own self-
155 efficacy and CEASE reported feeling higher levels of anxiety. It has been well documented in the
156 literature that excessive levels of anxiety can be detrimental to sporting performance (e.g.,
157 Kellmann, 2010). High levels of anxiety can give rise to several physiological symptoms that
158 impact performance such as, palpitations, sweating and upset stomach (Smith et al., 2006).
159 Anxiety can be separated into three separate dimensions, *cognitive anxiety* (i.e., mental element
160 of anxiety), *somatic* (i.e., physiological element of anxiety; Jones et al., 1994) and *concentration*
161 *disruption* (effect that anxiety has upon concentration; Smith et al., 2006). Within the literature,
162 sources of anxiety have been attributed to the relationship that one has with a coach and the
163 numerous interactions which occur during training and competition (Davis & Jowett, 2014). As
164 aforementioned, Jackson and Beauchamp (2010a) indicted that discrepancies between CEASE
165 and athlete self-efficacy can lead to heightened levels of anxiety. Alongside findings from Davis
166 and Jowett, who found that athletes who reported poor relationships with their coaches
167 experienced greater feelings of negative emotions and higher levels of anxiety, it is plausible to
168 suggest that when a coach underestimates athlete self-efficacy, their athlete may experience
169 higher levels of anxiety. As such, an investigation of congruence between efficacy perceptions
170 and the association with athlete anxiety could contribute a greater understanding of how coaches
171 contribute to athlete anxiety.

172 **Measuring Congruence of Meta-Perceptions**

173 The importance of assessing perceptions and behaviors in coaches and athletes and
174 ensuring those perceptions are similar (i.e., congruent) has been an integral aspect of many
175 relationship and leadership theories (e.g., Multidimensional Model of Leadership; Chelladurai,

176 2012). The contribution these theories can have to the literature, however, has been limited by the
177 mechanisms used to measure congruence. Co-orientation, as an example, is measured using
178 discrepancy scores of athlete responses and coach responses from the Coach-Athlete Relationship
179 Questionnaire (Jowett & Ntoumanis, 2004). That is, the athlete's response is subtracted from the
180 coach's response to represent the distance between the two responses. However, previous
181 literature highlights problems arising from using discrepancy scores to measure congruence (e.g.,
182 Edwards & Cable, 2009; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995). Discrepancy scores are typically
183 considered *directionless* due to treating positive and negatives scores the same, which does not
184 take into account if the coach score is higher or lower than the athlete score. The direction of
185 discrepancy is important because of the hierarchy between coach and athlete (Jackson et al.,
186 2010; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003). As such, interpretations of the data are limited because the
187 complexity of the relationship between the two variables (i.e., interactive effects) is not
188 represented.

189 Within organization literature, a key method used to evaluate congruence within
190 relationships is the use of polynomial regression and surface level plotting (Edwards & Perry,
191 1993) which provides numerical and visual representation of the relationship between two
192 variables. Arthur and Bastardo (2021) have recently suggested that researchers should apply
193 polynomial regression and associated surface modeling to test congruence in sport. Polynomial
194 regression allows researchers to examine the extent to which combinations of two predictor
195 variables (e.g., high athlete self-efficacy and low CEASE) relate to an outcome variable (e.g.,
196 relationship perceptions), particularly in the case when the discrepancy (difference) between the
197 two predictor variables is a central consideration. This approach is beneficial for a number of
198 reasons. First, direct effects of athlete self-efficacy and CEASE are still apparent without having
199 to refer to different analyses. Second, results provide estimates for the relationship between
200 athlete self-efficacy and CEASE as their own individual component and not as a product of the
201 original component. Finally, the polynomial regression allows for interpretation of congruence at

202 different levels. That is, congruence at low levels (i.e., low CEASE and low athlete self-efficacy),
203 congruence at high levels (i.e., high CEASE and high athlete self-efficacy) or incongruence (e.g.,
204 high CEASE and low athlete self-efficacy) are not necessarily equivalent and may be associated
205 with relationship perceptions differently. For example, low self-efficacy and high CEASE may
206 negatively predict relationship quality as a coach may think that an athlete is confident and,
207 therefore, provides less instructional feedback and support. This in turn may diminish an athlete's
208 perceived relationship quality. Polynomial regression allows for interpretation of how congruence
209 at different levels of efficacy uniquely impacts relationship quality and athlete anxiety.

210 Unfortunately, polynomial regression has been limited in its use within sport psychology
211 literature. One exception is Stein et al.'s (2012) study on the effect of congruence between
212 perceived and preferred coach feedback on the motivational climate. This study, however,
213 included only athlete perceptions. Outside of sport settings, Laird and De Los Reyes (2013) found
214 that, between the use of interaction, difference scores, and polynomial regression, only
215 polynomial regression analyses were able to determine that discrepancies between parent-
216 adolescent dyads predicted adolescents' psychopathology. Polynomial regression provides a
217 novel approach to determine how congruence of efficacy beliefs may impact the coach-athlete
218 relationship and athlete anxiety.

219 **Purpose and Hypotheses**

220 Drawing from the literature on relational efficacy beliefs (Lent & Lopez, 2002) and meta-
221 accuracy (Jowett & Lavalley, 2007), we hypothesized that congruence between athlete self-
222 efficacy and CEASE would predict both athlete and coach relationship perceptions (closeness,
223 commitment, complementarity), with congruence at higher levels of efficacy predicting greater
224 relationship quality relative to congruence at lower levels. We also hypothesized that
225 incongruence between athlete self-efficacy and CEASE would predict athlete anxiety.
226 Specifically, we expected to see lower levels of CEASE and higher levels of athlete self-efficacy
227 associated with increased athlete cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety and concentration disruption.

228 **Method**229 **Participants**

230 Seventy-one coach-athlete dyads, involved in their relationship for a minimum of one
231 season, participated in the current study. The mean duration of the relationships for these
232 participants was 4 years ($SD = 1.68$) and on average, these pairs spent 5.79 hours per week in
233 face-to-face contact time. Athletes reported participating in the individual sports of triathlon
234 (56.3%), gymnastics (12.7%), cycling (8.5%), swimming (7%), running (7%), tennis (4.2%), golf
235 (2.8%) and athletics (1.4%). The athletes (31 males, 40 females) had a mean age of 26.59 years
236 ($SD = 10.18$) and had been participating in their sport for a mean of 7.37 years ($SD = 5.28$). The
237 self-reported highest competitive level of athlete involvement was international (40%), national
238 (23.9%), university (2.8%), or age-group (2.4%; a category in cycling, swimming and triathlon
239 comprised of athletes competing internationally against others of a similar age; e.g., 20–30 year
240 old category). Coaches (43 males, 18 females) involved in the study prescribed the majority of
241 the athletes' training activities and had been coaching in their sport for a mean of 16.80 years (SD
242 $= 11.19$). The sample of 71 dyads included two coaches who provided responses for three athletes
243 and six coaches who provided responses for two athletes. Coaches who reported for more than
244 one athlete did not coach athletes at the same training sessions. Previous literature containing
245 effect sizes specific to CEASE do not exist (e.g., Fefer et al., 2018; Gjesdal et al., 2019;
246 Harman & Doherty, 2017; Human et al., 2016; Kaplan et al., 2020; Rodrigues et al., 2020;
247 Stein et al., 2012). This does not allow for conducting a power analysis to estimate a required
248 sample size. Instead, we aimed for 70 dyads because previous research utilizing dyad samples
249 to examine relational efficacy beliefs (i.e., self-efficacy, other-efficacy, RISE) has included
250 samples of 60–74 dyads (e.g., Jackson & Beauchamp, 2010b, Jackson et al., 2011, Habeeb et
251 al., 2019).¹

¹ While there is no clear consensus on how to conduct power analyses for polynomial regression, Chen et al. (2012) indicates you can conduct a traditional power analysis using the inputs from the polynomial regression.

252 **Measures**

253 *Self-efficacy and CEASE.* Athlete self-efficacy was measured using a 15-item
254 questionnaire developed by Jackson et al. (2011) for use with individual sport athletes. In this
255 unidimensional measure, athletes were asked to rate their confidence in their ability relative to
256 each item on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*no confidence at all*) to 5 (*complete confidence*).
257 Example items included, “to what extent are YOU confident to perform all technical tasks” and
258 “to what extent are YOU confident to stay mentally strong during competition.” The coefficient
259 alpha for data obtained with this measure in the present study was .86.

260 CEASE data were obtained by asking the coaches to estimate their athletes’ self-efficacy
261 by responding to the same 15 efficacy items used to obtain athlete self-efficacy data. In line with
262 previous studies assessing multiple types of efficacy beliefs simultaneously (e.g., Jackson et al.,
263 2011; Habeeb et al., 2017, 2019), CEASE measurement with the 15 items was afforded by
264 adjusting the stem statement. Specifically, coaches were asked to estimate the athlete’s
265 confidence in their ability relative to each item on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*no*
266 *confidence at all*) to 5 (*complete confidence*). Example items included, “to what extent is YOUR
267 ATHLETE confident to perform all technical tasks” and “to what extent is YOUR ATHLETE
268 confident to stay mentally strong during competition.” The coefficient alpha for data obtained
269 with this measure in the present study was .90.

270 *Relationship perceptions.* Athletes’ and coaches’ perceptions of relational
271 interconnectedness were measured using The Coach-Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-
272 Q; Jowett & Ntoumanis, 2004). Coaches and athletes were asked to respond to statements about
273 their thoughts “during training and competition” on an 11-item scale which assessed three
274 dimensions of interconnectedness. CART-Q items include statements that assess the dimensions
275 of closeness (3 items; e.g., “I like my coach/athlete”), commitment (4 items; e.g., “I feel

Following Chen et al., our power estimations (conducted post hoc) using this method returned effect sizes ranging from .34 to .58 resulting in an observed power of .95. Post-hoc power analyses for anxiety indicated effect sizes ranging from .17 to .18, resulting in an observed power of .82.

276 committed to my coach/athlete”) and complementarity (4 items; e.g., “When I am coached by my
277 coach/When I coach my athlete, I am ready to do my best”). Responses were provided on Likert-
278 type response scales ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The coefficient
279 alphas for data obtained on the subscales in the present study ranged from .77–.79 for the athletes
280 and .77–.78 for the coaches.

281 ***Athlete Anxiety.*** Athlete trait anxiety was measured using the Sport Anxiety Scale-2
282 (SAS-2; Smith et al., 2006). Athlete participants recorded their responses on a 15-item scale
283 which assessed the three dimensions of anxiety. SAS-2 items include statements that assess
284 dimensions of cognitive anxiety (5 items; e.g., “I worry that I will let others down”), somatic
285 anxiety (5 items; e.g., “my muscles feel shaky”), and concentration disruption (5 items; e.g., “I
286 lose focus”). Participants recorded their responses to items on a 5-point Likert-type scale
287 anchored by 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*very much*). The coefficient alphas for data obtained on the
288 subscales in Smith et al. (2006) ranged from .84–.89 and in the present study from .87–.89.

289 **Procedures**

290 After receipt of Institutional Review Board (IRB) clearance, invitations to participate in
291 this study were extended to coaches and athletes via email or in person at training sessions.
292 Dyads volunteering to participate in the study underwent informed consent procedures and, when
293 appropriate, parental consent for athletes under 18 years of age ($n = 3$). Questionnaire packs were
294 distributed to athletes and coaches via two delivery methods. Paper copies were distributed and
295 completed at training sessions ($n = 94$) and electronic copies were distributed and completed via
296 email ($n = 48$). Both methods involved the questionnaire pack being returned directly to the
297 researcher upon completion. Coaches who responded to multiple athletes in the study completed
298 a separate questionnaire for each individual athlete.

299 **Analyses**

300 Data were prepared using IBM SPSS 26 statistics and occurred in five phases. The first
301 stage involved checking the data for homoscedasticity and normality of residuals assumptions.

302 The second phase involved preliminary analyses generating coefficient alpha statistics for the
303 measures, and calculation of univariate descriptive statistics and bivariate intercorrelations (with
304 interpretation of correlations as .10 for small, .30 for moderate, .50 for large; Taylor, 1990). The
305 third phase involved inferential comparisons of means of coach and athlete scores on relationship
306 closeness, commitment and complementarity using three independent samples t-tests (with
307 interpretation of Cohen's d values as 0.20 for small, 0.50 for moderate, 0.80 for large; Fritz et al.,
308 2012). Bonferroni correction procedures were employed to manage risk of type-1 error inflation
309 in the family of comparisons ($\alpha_{\text{altered}} = .02$). Calculations for any similarities within the data
310 also occurred in the third phase, using suggestions from Grawitch and Munz (2004), for
311 determining significant levels of similarity in the data.

312 *Polynomial Regression Analyses*

313 The fourth and fifth phase of analyses involved, respectively, polynomial regression
314 analyses and the plotting of response surface depictions of interactions as described subsequently.
315 Nine polynomial regression analyses were conducted to examine the main effects of athlete self-
316 efficacy and CEASE and the presence of congruence between athlete self-efficacy and CEASE
317 (i.e., the interaction) on the three coach relationship perceptions (i.e., closeness, commitment and
318 complementarity), the three athlete relationship perceptions (i.e., closeness, commitment and
319 complementarity), and three dimensions of athlete anxiety (i.e., somatic, cognitive and
320 concentration disruption). The polynomial regression equation used in our analyses was $Y = b_0 +$
321 $b_1SE + b_2CEASE + b_3SE^2 + b_4(SE*CEASE) + b_5CEASE^2 + e$ where Y represents relationship
322 constructs (e.g., the 3C's) and SE and CEASE represent athlete self-efficacy and CEASE,
323 respectively. These analyses were conducted on scale-centered scores of athlete self-efficacy and
324 CEASE (Edwards & Cable, 2009).

325 Finally, response surface plots were created to depict significant interactions between
326 athlete self-efficacy and CEASE in the prediction of each of the nine dependent variables. These
327 three-dimensional response surface plots were obtained using unstandardized coefficients

328 obtained in the polynomial regressions as recommended by Edwards and Cable (2009). Athlete
329 self-efficacy and CEASE were plotted relative to the two horizontal axes while the dependent
330 variable was plotted relative to the vertical axis. In these plots, the horizontal plane of the graph
331 comprises of two diagonal lines used for reference in determining the shape and direction of
332 congruence and incongruence on a dependent variable. The congruence (i.e., solid) line signifies
333 at what points on the graph that athlete self-efficacy and CEASE perceptions are equal. The
334 incongruence (i.e., dashed) line signifies at what points on the graph athlete self-efficacy and
335 CEASE perceptions differ. Within the graphical plots three conditions specify the presence
336 (Condition 1) and shape (Conditions 2 and 3) of the graph, which indicates the relationship
337 between the independent variables. When all conditions are fully satisfied (i.e., perfect
338 congruence) the graphical depiction of the relationship will show a perfect inverted U-shaped 3D
339 graph.

340 Condition 1 is derived from beta values obtained in the regression analyses and use the
341 following equations: incongruence curvature line = $(b_3 - b_4 + b_5)$, slope = $(b_1 - b_2)$, while the
342 congruence line is derived from curvature = $(b_3 + b_4 + b_5)$, slope = $(b_1 + b_2)$. In this condition, the
343 value of the incongruence line will be negative. This negative curve indicates a decrease in the
344 dependent variable scores when athlete self-efficacy and CEASE perceptions are significantly
345 different. Condition 1 must be satisfied to show support for congruence. Failure to support this
346 first condition indicates there is no support for the congruence hypothesis. In Condition 2, the
347 peak of the graph along the congruence (i.e., solid) line will be maximized at all points when
348 athlete self-efficacy and CEASE perceptions are equal (Edwards & Cable, 2009). When this
349 condition is satisfied, the graphical plot illustrates that when efficacy perceptions are congruent,
350 relationship quality will be at the highest. This condition does not have to be satisfied to support
351 congruence but illustrates the shape of the curve. In Condition 3, the surface along the
352 congruence (i.e., solid) line should be flat meaning that the level of the dependent variable is the
353 same regardless of efficacy perceptions scores. Condition 3 also describes the shape of the

354 relationship and does not have to be satisfied to infer congruence. When plotted on a graph, each
355 corner of the figure reflects a different combination of athlete self-efficacy and CEASE. As
356 Shanock et al. (2010) explained, the right corner illustrates when CEASE ratings are low and
357 athlete self-efficacy ratings are high, and the left corner illustrates when CEASE ratings are high,
358 and athlete self-efficacy ratings are low. The front corner of the graph illustrates low athlete self-
359 efficacy and low CEASE while the back corner illustrates high athlete self-efficacy and high
360 CEASE (i.e., congruence). When interpreting results from the figures, we used the lower third of
361 the scale to describe low efficacy ratings (ratings from -3 to -5) and the upper third of the scale to
362 describe high efficacy ratings (ratings from 3 to 5).

363 Results

364 No violations of the homoscedasticity and normality of residuals assumptions were
365 observed. Correlations and descriptive statistics among study variables are displayed in Table 1.
366 Inspection of this table reveals that the correlation between athlete self-efficacy and CEASE was
367 positive and moderate ($r = .46, p = .004$). As expected, correlations between athlete self-efficacy
368 and all dependent variables were positive ($r = .26 - .67$), with the exception of athlete anxiety
369 dimensions ($r_{somatic} = -.21, r_{cognitive} = -.37, r_{concentration\ disruption} = -.40$). The correlations between
370 CEASE and all dependent variables were positive ($r = .02 - .71$).

371 Inferential comparisons of efficacy perceptions between coach and athlete responses
372 revealed that athletes reported significantly higher levels of self-efficacy ($M = 4.21$) compared to
373 their coaches' estimation of their self-efficacy ($M = 4.01; t(140) = 2.46, p = .015, d = 0.04$).
374 Inferential comparisons of responses on relationship quality variables revealed that athletes
375 perceived significantly higher levels of relational closeness ($M = 4.39$) compared to their coaches
376 ($M = 4.07; t(140) = 2.71, p = .008, d = 0.04$). Non-significant differences were observed across
377 athletes' and coaches' levels of commitment ($t(140) = 0.35, p = .725, d = 0.006$), and
378 complementarity ($t(140) = 1.57, p = .119, d = 0.03$).

379 **Athlete Relationship Perceptions.** Assessment of the similarity among coach

380 relationship perceptions among the sample of coaches with multiple athletes indicated there was
381 not a significant amount of within-coach variance in the sample of 18 coaches for the athlete
382 relationship perceptions ($F = 0.68 - 1.14, p = .342 - .685$; Grawitch & Munz, 2004). Polynomial
383 regression results and incongruence effects for athlete relationship perceptions are displayed in
384 Table 2. The main effects of athlete self-efficacy in the prediction of athlete relational perceptions
385 were all significant ($B_{\text{closeness}} = 3.60, B_{\text{commitment}} = 3.30, B_{\text{complementarity}} = 2.90; p < .001$). The main
386 effects of CEASE in the prediction of athlete relational perceptions were all non-significant
387 ($B_{\text{closeness}} = -0.47, B_{\text{commitment}} = -0.30, B_{\text{complementarity}} = -0.43; p = .46-.57$). This indicates athlete
388 perceptions of closeness, commitment, and complementarity were predicted by athlete self-
389 efficacy, but not CEASE. Inspection of Table 2 reveals congruence of athlete self-efficacy and
390 CEASE predicted athletes' relationship perceptions. Specifically, the curvature along the
391 incongruence line between athlete self-efficacy and CEASE was negative and significant for
392 athlete perceptions of closeness (incongruence curvature = $-0.21., p = .045$) and athlete
393 perceptions of commitment (incongruence curvature = $-0.44., p = .009$), providing support
394 for Condition 1 of the congruence analyses. Conditions 2 and 3 were not satisfied for athlete
395 perceptions of closeness and commitment, indicating *perfect* congruence was not present.
396 The incongruence line between athlete self-efficacy and CEASE was negative trending
397 towards significance for athlete perceptions of complementarity (incongruence curvature = -
398 $0.04, p = .052$).

399 Figure 1 presents the 3D depiction of the congruence between athlete self-efficacy and
400 CEASE in the prediction of athlete perceptions of closeness (Panel A), commitment (Panel B),
401 and complementarity (Panel C). As depicted in Panel A and Panel B, athlete perceptions of
402 closeness and commitment were strongest when athlete self-efficacy and CEASE were both at the
403 highest point on the graph (i.e., there is congruence at higher levels of efficacy). Athlete
404 perceptions of closeness and commitment were weakest when athlete self-efficacy and CEASE
405 are both at the lowest point on the graph (i.e., congruence at lower levels of efficacy). As

406 depicted in Panel C, athlete perceptions of complementarity were strongest when athlete self-
407 efficacy and CEASE are congruent regardless of the level of efficacy. *Weaker athlete perceptions*
408 of complementarity arise when incongruence is present, with the weakest perceptions of
409 complementarity occurring when athlete self-efficacy is low, and CEASE is high.

410 **Coach Relationship Perceptions.** Assessment of the similarity among coach relationship
411 perceptions among the sample of coaches with multiple athletes indicated there was a significant
412 amount of within-coach variance in the sample of 18 coaches. Given Kenny et al. (2002) suggests
413 using a more liberal p-value to determine significance (e.g., $p = .20$), caution is warranted when
414 interpreting the results for coach closeness ($F = 1.64, p = .130$), coach commitment ($F = 1.91, p =$
415 $.130$), and coach complementarity ($F = 4.85, p < .001$; Grawitch & Munz, 2004). Polynomial
416 regression results and incongruence effects for coach relationship perceptions are displayed in
417 Table 2. Main effects for athlete self-efficacy in the prediction of coach relational perceptions in
418 each of the regression analyses were all non-significant ($B_{\text{closeness}} = 0.66, B_{\text{commitment}} = -0.87,$
419 $B_{\text{complementarity}} = 0.32; p = .17-.64$). Main effects for CEASE in the prediction of coaches'
420 relational perceptions in each of the regression analyses were significant for commitment ($B =$
421 $0.88, p = .004$) and complementarity ($B = 1.20, p = .001$), but not closeness ($B = 0.98, p = .079$).
422 This indicates perceptions of commitment and complementarity were predicted by CEASE but
423 not athlete self-efficacy. Inspection of Table 2 reveals congruence of athlete self-efficacy and
424 CEASE did not predict coaches' relationship perceptions. Specifically, the curvature along the
425 incongruence line between athlete self-efficacy and CEASE was positive and non-significant for
426 coach perceptions of commitment (incongruence curvature = $.20, p = .613$), complementarity
427 (incongruence curvature = $-.28, p = .409$) and athlete perceptions of closeness (incongruence
428 curvature = $.75, p = .593$). Because all congruence lines were non-significant (i.e., Condition 1
429 was not satisfied), no support for congruence of efficacy beliefs in predicting coach relationship
430 perceptions was found. Graphical depictions of these non-significant interactions are not
431 presented.

432 **Athlete Anxiety.** Polynomial regression results and incongruence effects for athlete
433 anxiety are displayed in Table 2. Main effects for athlete self-efficacy in the prediction of athlete
434 trait anxiety in each of the regression analyses were all non-significant ($B_{\text{cognitive}} = 1.27$, $B_{\text{somatic}} =$
435 1.89 , $B_{\text{concentration disruption}} = -.46$; $p = .11-.17$). Main effects for CEASE in the prediction of athlete
436 trait anxiety in each of the regression analyses were all non-significant ($B_{\text{cognitive}} = -.60$, $B_{\text{somatic}} =$
437 $.90$, $B_{\text{worry}} = -.60$, $B_{\text{concentration disruption}} = .79$; $p = .12-.16$). This indicates that athlete anxiety
438 subscales were not predicted by athlete self-efficacy or CEASE. Inspection of Table 2 reveals for
439 all anxiety subscales the curvature along the incongruence line between efficacy perceptions is
440 negative and non-significant (somatic incongruence curvature = $-.15$, $p = .302$; cognitive
441 incongruence curvature = -2.31 , $p = .630$). The curvature along the incongruence line between
442 efficacy perceptions and concentration disruption was positive and non-significant (incongruence
443 curvature = $.01$, $p = .854$). Because all congruence lines were non-significant (i.e., Condition 1
444 was not satisfied), no support for congruence of efficacy beliefs in the prediction of athlete
445 anxiety was found. Graphical depictions of these non-significant interactions are not presented.

446 **Discussion**

447 The purpose of this study was to assess the extent to which congruence of athlete self-
448 efficacy and Coach Estimation of Athlete Self-Efficacy (CEASE) is predictive of coach-athlete
449 relationship quality and athlete anxiety. Main effects revealed that CEASE significantly predicted
450 coach perceptions of relationship quality while athlete self-efficacy predicted athlete perceptions
451 of relationship quality. Congruence between athlete self-efficacy and CEASE positively predicted
452 athletes' perceptions of relationship quality, partially supporting the first hypothesis. None of the
453 efficacy beliefs, or their congruence, predicted athlete anxiety, in contrast to the second
454 hypothesis. These findings, in line with Lent and Lopez (2002) and Jackson and Beauchamp
455 (2010a), support the extension of the tripartite network of efficacy beliefs and that athlete
456 perceptions of the coach-athlete relationship are associated with congruence of efficacy beliefs
457 between coach and athlete. The theoretical and applied implications of these findings are

458 discussed subsequently.

459 In relation to our first hypothesis, results provide partial support for congruence between
460 athlete self-efficacy and CEASE in the prediction of athletes' perceptions of closeness,
461 commitment and complementarity. Congruence of efficacy perceptions was most prominent in
462 the prediction of an athlete's perception of complementarity. The strongest perception of athlete
463 complementarity occurred when athlete self-efficacy and CEASE were the same, regardless of if
464 the level of efficacy perceptions were high or low. Suggesting that when coaches' CEASE
465 perceptions are more congruent with an athlete's efficacy perception, cooperative and effective
466 interactions can occur, leading to enhanced interpersonal and intrapersonal consequences for the
467 athlete (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003). Further, Jackson et al. (2010) found that personal self-efficacy
468 and other-efficacy, and partner's other-efficacy and RISE predicted complementarity within
469 coach-athlete dyads. Taken together, it seems that complementarity within the coach-athlete
470 relationship depends upon the [interaction](#) (e.g., high self-efficacy and low CEASE) of one's own
471 and another's efficacy perceptions.

472 Results also provided an understanding of how CEASE perceptions that are not the same
473 as athlete self-efficacy are associated with relationship perceptions. Athlete perceptions of
474 closeness and commitment were stronger at high levels of congruence compared to low levels.
475 This was somewhat unsurprising as previous literature has demonstrated that higher efficacy
476 perceptions can enhance perceptions of the coach-athlete relationship (e.g., Jackson &
477 Beauchamp, 2010b; Jackson et al., 2007; Jackson et al., 2009). Of further importance is that the
478 lowest level of relationship perceptions occurred when CEASE is lower than athlete self-efficacy.
479 However, these results are somewhat contradictory with results from Jackson et al. (2007) and
480 Jackson and Beauchamp (2010b) who found that when athletes felt their coach was confident in
481 their ability (i.e., high RISE), this was related to lowered commitment on the part of both dyad
482 members. Our results indicate that when coaches believe an athlete has lower levels of self-
483 efficacy than an athlete reports, relationship commitment is at its lowest. Accordingly, it is

484 possible that when an athlete detects a lower CEASE appraisal, this in turn diminishes athlete
485 self-efficacy leading to diminished perceptions of the relationship.

486 Results also showed that CEASE was the only significant predictor of coaches'
487 relationship perceptions providing evidence to support CEASE may influence interactions
488 between coach and athlete through coach perceptions. Interestingly, Jackson et al. (2009) found
489 that some coaches reported that RISE had no effect on their personal functioning but did
490 influence their communication towards athletes. CEASE may be particularly relevant in
491 explaining why coaches communicate differently with their various athletes. A coach may base
492 her communication on her estimation of the athlete's self-efficacy (i.e., CEASE), rather than her
493 belief of how her athlete views her own self-efficacy (i.e., RISE). Because the current framework
494 of efficacy beliefs does not presently incorporate EOSE, the framework may not capture
495 relational processes to the full extent (Troyer & Younts, 1997). This gap is important based on
496 the knowledge provided from the current study indicating that CEASE is associated with coach
497 perceptions of the relationship.

498 In relation to Hypothesis 2, incongruence between athlete self-efficacy and CEASE did
499 not predict athlete anxiety. Given that current literature has highlighted that negative rapport
500 between coach and athlete can significantly increase athlete anxiety (Baker et al., 2000), it was
501 surprising that incongruence between athlete self-efficacy and CEASE perceptions did not predict
502 athlete anxiety. Kenow and Williams (1999) found that within coach-athlete dyads, athletes who
503 felt more compatible with their coach experienced lower negative cognitive/attentional and
504 somatic effects from their coach's behavior during game situations. Baker et al. (2000) also noted
505 that behaviors that the coach demonstrates relative to competition can be influential in reducing
506 athlete anxiety. As such, the effect of incongruence between athlete self-efficacy and CEASE
507 may be more apparent during competition. However, as data collection for the current study took
508 place during training, anxiety may be lower in training sessions and therefore the lack of
509 variability in anxiety in the current sample may have been difficult to predict.

510 Of particular importance, the results from polynomial regression analyses allowed for the
511 relationship between athlete self-efficacy and CEASE to be examined in a novel way, not
512 typically used within the sport psychology literature. Previous research regarding coach-athlete
513 relationship meta-accuracy has typically utilized discrepancy scores (e.g., Jowett & Lavallee,
514 2007). Discrepancy scores have been criticized for not being able to accurately represent the
515 complexity of interactions between independent variables. By using a curvilinear regression
516 model, results from this study provide a way to view different combinations of efficacy score
517 levels (i.e., high athlete self-efficacy and low CEASE compared to low athlete self-efficacy
518 and high CEASE) and the subsequent result that this may have upon dependent variables
519 (i.e., relationship perceptions) that interaction terms and discrepancy scores do not provide.
520 Because our results do not show *perfect congruence*, the use of an interaction would not have
521 precisely depicted the relationship between athlete self-efficacy and CEASE. Considering
522 previous literature has reported that athletes and coaches do not rate each other's efficacy
523 perceptions similarly (e.g., Jackson et al., 2011), we would not expect our results to show perfect
524 congruence. Our results highlight how different levels of discrepancies between efficacy beliefs
525 are associated with an athlete's perception of the relationship, with high CEASE appraisal
526 enhancing an athlete's relationship perception over a low CEASE appraisal. As such, the study
527 provides initial evidence to support how polynomial regression analyses can be used within sport
528 psychology between dyadic relationships to capture the complex interaction between efficacy
529 perceptions.

530 Our study highlights several practical implications for coaches and athletes. Coach-athlete
531 relationships can be improved by getting coaches and athletes concordant regarding athlete self-
532 efficacy. The more a coach's CEASE belief aligns to an athlete's self-efficacy, the better the
533 coach-athlete relationship will be. Given that the results from this study indicated that, on
534 average, coaches tend to underestimate athletes' self-efficacy beliefs and that the lowest level of
535 relationship perceptions occur when CEASE is lower than athlete self-efficacy, it is important

536 that coaches are more aware of and aligned to an athlete's self-efficacy beliefs. Strategies to align
537 coach-athlete perceptions include increasing coach-athlete communication about athletes'
538 psychological states. This may help provide a way in which athletes can communicate self-
539 efficacy perceptions and concerns they have regarding their competency (Jackson et al., 2009).
540 Better communications should, in turn, improve coaches' abilities to better estimate their athletes'
541 self-efficacy. Furthermore, in a practical setting, it can be difficult for some coaches and athletes
542 to effectively perceive the multifaceted information that exists within a relationship (Lent &
543 Lopez, 2002). In such instances, coaches may also wish to implement efficacy enhancing
544 strategies such as verbal persuasion and vicarious experiences aimed at increasing athlete self-
545 efficacy (Bandura, 1986). Through actively supporting athlete self-efficacy, CEASE appraisals
546 may increase due to the coach believing that the athlete will be experiencing higher self-efficacy
547 beliefs. By increasing congruence between athlete self-efficacy and CEASE, and improving
548 athlete self-efficacy, athletes may experience greater levels of satisfaction, commitment to the
549 relationship and performance as a result (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003).

550 Despite the empirical contributions highlighted, it is important to consider the study's
551 limitations. Participants selected the coach or athlete partner they wanted to complete the study
552 with and therefore an element of positive bias may have been present in this selection of
553 participants because athletes and/or coaches are more likely to approach a partner they feel more
554 comfortable with. As such, the current sample may not have accurately represented the full
555 spectrum of coach-athlete dyads because there was a lack of dyads reporting lower
556 relationship quality and/or low efficacy perceptions. However, coaches' CEASE perceptions
557 were significantly lower than athlete self-efficacy indicating that the sample did include coach-
558 athlete dyads who were not perfectly congruent with one another on all aspects. One further
559 limitation was the use of two coaches who provided responses for three athletes and six coaches
560 who provided responses for two athletes. This could potentially introduce non-independence in
561 the data, as coaches with multiple athletes may have rated their athletes very similarly. We

562 ensured that coaches who reported for more than one athlete did not coach those athletes at the
563 same training sessions to reduce the potential impact in the results. Finally, given the study's
564 design it is not possible to make causal claims. Although our research was guided by theory, it is
565 plausible to suggest that when an individual feels close to their partner (i.e., reports high levels of
566 coach-athlete relationship perceptions), they may experience heightened levels of self-efficacy
567 and therefore the observed relationships may work in the opposite direction (Bandura, 1986;
568 Jackson et al., 2010).

569 This study provides the foundation for future research to investigate the congruence
570 between efficacy perceptions within dyadic settings, despite study limitations. Given that
571 congruence of athlete self-efficacy and CEASE predicted athletes' perceptions of the coach-
572 athlete relationship, it would be important to determine factors that can affect congruence within
573 both team and individual sports. Specifically, the effect that leadership identity has on aligning
574 efficacy perceptions within both dyadic relationships and team sports would be interesting to
575 determine. Evidence suggests that identity leadership behaviors are important antecedents of
576 team/collective confidence and have indicated that this was primarily achieved by building
577 athletes' identification with their team (Fransen et al., 2016). This is important considering that
578 Lent and Lopez (2002) suggested the possibility that collective efficacy is the sum of self-
579 efficacy and other-efficacy. As such, it would be interesting to determine if certain leadership
580 behaviors are associated with improved congruence of efficacy perceptions.

581 This study generally supports the importance of CEASE as a meta-perception to be
582 included within relational efficacy beliefs. Results indicated that coaches consistently rated
583 CEASE lower than actual athlete self-efficacy and that CEASE is an important predictor of coach
584 relationship perceptions. Results also provide support for congruence between athlete self-
585 efficacy and CEASE to be a predictor of athlete feelings of closeness, commitment and, most
586 prominently, complementarity. The takeaway message is that effective interactions arise when
587 coaches and athletes are concordant regarding perceptions of athlete self-efficacy.

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Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics and Zero-order Correlations for All Variables*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Correlations											
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1. Athlete Self-Efficacy	4.21	.46												
2. Coaches Estimation of Athletes Self-efficacy	4.01	.55	.46**											
3. Athlete Closeness	4.39	.68	.67**	.38**										
4. Athlete Commitment	4.64	.55	.56**	.39**	.78**									
5. Athlete Complementarity	4.52	.57	.52**	.24*	.64**	.56**								
6. Coach Closeness	4.07	.77	.39**	.63**	.41**	.33**	.22*							
7. Coach Commitment	4.61	.46	.26*	.66**	.36**	.40**	.16	.56**						
8. Coach Complementarity	4.37	.57	.38**	.71**	.44**	.43**	.23*	.65**	.62**					
9. Anxiety Somatic	2.15	.94	-.21	.24*	-.04	-.02	-.18	.27*	.24*	.10				
10. Anxiety Worry	2.59	.99	-.37**	.10	-.08	-.16	-.21	-.04	.05	-.04	.62**			
11. Anxiety Concentration Disruption	1.64	.69	-.40**	.02	-.34**	-.24*	-.32**	.06	.05	.15	.66**	.46**		

Note. N = 71; * indicates significance at $p < 0.05$; ** indicates significance at $p < 0.01$.

Table 2. *Polynomial Regression Results for Perceptions of the Coach-Athlete Relationship and Athlete Anxiety*

	Athlete Relationship Quality			Coach Relationship Quality			Athlete Anxiety		
	Closeness	Commit.	Complement.	Closeness	Commit.	Complement.	Somatic	Cognitive	Con. Disrupt.
Athlete SE	3.56***	3.30***	2.89***	0.66	-0.87	0.32	1.89	1.27	-0.46
CEASE	-0.47	-0.30	-0.43	0.98	0.88***	1.20***	0.90	-0.60	0.79
Athlete SE ²	-0.70**	-0.80***	-0.35	-0.05	0.11	0.03	-0.93	-1.17	-0.04
Athlete SE x CEASE	-0.18	0.04	0.64	-0.21	-0.32	-0.24	0.28	1.01	-0.16
CEASE ²	0.31***	0.12	0.55***	0.03	0.33	0.01	-0.29	-0.13	-0.10
Incongruence line									
slope (b ₁ - b ₂)	4.02	3.60	3.32	-0.32	-1.74	-0.78	0.99	1.87	-1.25
Curvature (b ₃ - b ₄ + b ₅)	-0.21*	-0.73*	0.84	0.20	0.75	0.28	-1.50	-2.31	0.01
Congruence line									
slope (b ₁ + b ₂)	3.10	3.00	2.55	1.64	0.01	1.41	2.79	0.07	0.32
Curvature (b ₃ + b ₄ + b ₅)	-0.56	-0.65	-0.44	-0.22	0.11	-0.20	-0.94	-0.29	-0.30

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; SE = Self-Efficacy; CEASE = Coach Estimation of Athlete Self-Efficacy; Commit; = Commitment. Complement. = Complementarity; Con. Disrupt. = Concentration Disruption.

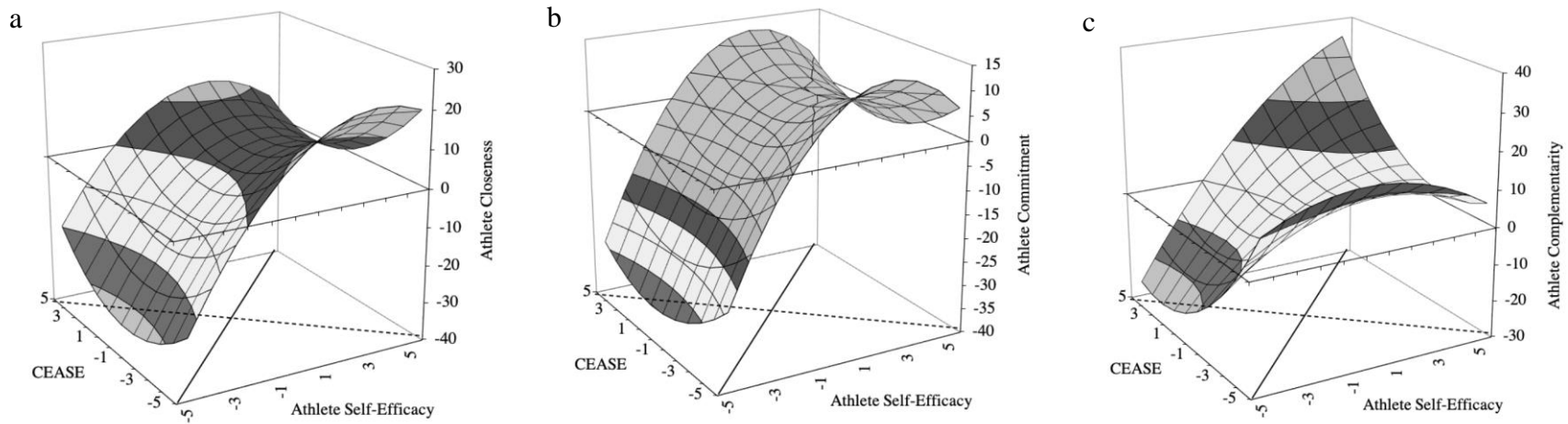


Figure 1. Surface Response Plot of Interaction between Athlete Self-Efficacy and CEASE on Athlete Relationship Perceptions. *Note.* Figure represents predicted values based upon unstandardized regression coefficients. CEASE represents coach estimation of athlete self-efficacy. Predictors are centered on the midpoint of the scale. The line of congruence (solid line) reflects cases where values of athlete self-efficacy and CEASE perfectly match, at all levels of the scale. The line of incongruence (dashed line) represents cases where values of athlete self-efficacy are the opposites of values of CEASE.