

An Investigation into the Correlation Between Self-Esteem, Life Satisfaction, and Coach-Athlete Relationship among Football Players: A Comprehensive Study

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Abstract: This study investigated the interplay between coach-athlete relationships, self-esteem, and satisfaction with life among football players. A sample of 130 participants completed questionnaires assessing self-esteem, life satisfaction, and coach-athlete relationships. The instruments used for data collection included the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, the Coach-Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q), and the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS). Data were gathered through online questionnaires and analyzed using statistical methods such as t-tests, ANOVA, and Pearson Correlation, with SPSS Version 25 for analysis. The findings revealed a significant positive correlation between self-esteem and satisfaction with life, indicating that higher self-esteem is associated with greater life satisfaction. Additionally, self-esteem showed a significant positive correlation with coach-athlete relationships, suggesting that players with higher self-esteem tend to have better relationships with their coaches. However, no significant correlation was found between satisfaction with life and coach-athlete relationships. Furthermore, the study found no significant differences in the study variables based on years of experience or years of experience with a coach, except for satisfaction with life, which varied with years of experience.

Keywords: Coach-Athlete Relationship; Satisfaction with Life; Football Players Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale; Coach-Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q); Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS); Performance Success and Satisfaction.

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1. Introduction

Football is the world’s most popular ball game, with many participants and spectators involved. Simplicity in principal rules and essential equipment helps in the popularity of the sports so that it can be played almost anywhere from official football playing fields (pitches) to gymnasiums, streets, school playgrounds, parks, or beaches. Soccer is a well-known sport all over the world. The game of football develops a fair mind, teamwork, and competitive spirit in the players. It is considered one of the most disciplined sports in the world. Soccer is quite popular in all countries (2023). The official governing body of football is the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA). FIFA estimated that approximately 250 million football players and over 1.3 billion people will be “interested” in football by the turn of the 21st century [1]. The popular game’s modern history dates back more than 100 years, according to The Origins. When association football and rugby football split off to

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pursue different paths in 1863, the Football Association in England was established, serving as the sport's first governing body. However, the fact that people have enjoyed kicking a ball around for thousands of years still stands, and there is no justification for viewing it as an aberration of the more 'natural' form of playing a ball with the hands.

Contrarily, it was known from the beginning that foot control was a skill that required a great deal of skill and practise. Plus, there were times when there were no protection regulations in place and players had to utilise their knees and feet in rough tussles for the ball. The first known example of the game is an exercise from a Chinese military manual dating back to the second and third centuries BC [2]. Tsu' Chu was a Han Dynasty game where participants kicked a hair-and feather-covered leather ball into a small net held up by long bamboo canes through a 30-to 40 cm wide opening. One form of this exercise required the player to use his feet, chest, back, and shoulders while fending against his opponents' attacks instead of being free to aim at his target. The use of hands was prohibited [3]. Japanese Kemari is a different kind of game with Far Eastern roots. It was developed 500–600 years later and is being played today. This sport lacks the aspect of competition in Tsu' Chu, and no struggle for possession is involved. The participants had to pass the ball to one another while circling each other and attempting to keep it off the ground. a Greek "Episkyros" and the Roman "Harpastum" were livelier despite very few specific facts [4].

In the second match, which took place on a rectangular field with centre line and boundary lines, the smaller ball was used by both teams. Players utilised deception as they passed the ball amongst themselves in an effort to get it past the opponent's boundary lines. Even though the Romans introduced the game to Britain, the footplay was so insignificant that it barely mattered, yet the game remained popular for 700–800 years nonetheless [5]. Football as we know it now originated in Britain, however there is evidence of ball sports being played all across the globe in ancient times. From the seventh to the eighteenth century, players all throughout the British Isles enjoyed different regional and local variants of the game [6].

Athletic success is dependent on numerous elements. The cornerstone of coaching is building relationships, and while those relationships are mutually beneficial, coaches should make an effort to develop genuine connections with their players. A coach is someone who is both authoritative and friendly; this allows his or her athletes to look up to them and feel comfortable opening up to them. Striking a balance between rational thought, emotional intelligence, empathy, and logic is a difficult training task [7]. For the sake of the team's success and the athlete's personal development into a good, moral human being, a solid coach-athlete relationship is crucial. By consistently offering guidance, criticism, inspiration, options, self-regulation and self-monitoring support, and teaching, the coach-athlete relationship is foundational in determining the athlete's contentment, self-esteem, and performance.

2. Review of Literature

According to Jowett [20], an athlete and coach relationship is stated when their complementary behaviours, feelings of intimacy, and ideas of commitment are interconnected. A commitment exists between a coach and athlete when they want to build a strong, long-term partnership. Nevertheless, proximity has been defined as the emotional connection that forms between partners in a dyad and is characterised by gratitude, trust, and respect. Characteristics of a complementary dyad include openness, responsiveness, and willingness on both sides. The level of collaboration between the coach and the athlete is also shown by it. Interactions between coaches and their athletes are characterised by mutual respect, confidentiality, and trust.

They are both familiar with one another's communication styles, work best environments, and ways to play to their respective strengths in a competitive setting. They also know what to anticipate from one another (predictability) (The Coach-Athlete Relationship Is a Performance Factor Athlete Assessments, 2022). In order to better coach, lead, and assist their players, coaches and athletes frequently develop connections, alliances, or partnerships. When discussing what it takes to be successful in sports, many people have brought up the coach-athlete relationship, including athletes, media coaches, and sports management. According to research, the most crucial relationship factors that affect performance success and satisfaction are mutual trust, respect, belief, support, collaboration, communication, and understanding [8].

The connection between coach and player is fundamental to coaching. Coaches, then, need people skills to bond with their players. Polite and considerate discussion of life and sports is a hallmark of healthy relationships. Consistency, precision, dependability, and stability are the cornerstones of successful coach-athlete relationships. When these positive traits are present in a relationship, it benefits the coach and the player equally. Both the athlete's mental and physical health can benefit from a coach who actively engages them in their training by listening to their worries and goals, setting realistic expectations for training and exercise, and discussing how they can participate in athletic events [19].

Being confident and content with oneself is the essence of self-esteem, which is sometimes called respect for oneself. A healthy sense of self-worth is largely formed during adolescence. Motivating and supporting the growth of self-esteem can be done by both parents and instructors. How well-esteemed adolescent feels about themselves shows in their actions and attitudes at home and in the classroom. People's sense of self-worth has been the subject of extensive research. The goal of parents, educators,

coaches, and mentors is to help kids, staff, and athletes develop a healthy sense of self-worth. Achieving success, happiness, and contentment in life depend on it. An individual's self-esteem is their perception of their own value and how they feel about themselves. Their calibre is significant because our self-perception, which includes our beliefs, values, and attitudes, is with us at all times. A person's emotional, mental, and physical growth and success in nearly every facet of life hinge on their level of self-esteem. People who have a healthy sense of self-worth are more likely to push through difficult times, strive for great things, and believe in themselves [9].

In contrast, people with low self-esteem focus on improving their shortcomings, do just enough to complete a task, and give up when they fail. According to Gecas and Rosenberg, self-esteem is an individual's overall positive opinion. Competence and worth comprise two dimensions. The degree to which people view themselves as capable and effective is called the competence dimension (efficacy-based self-esteem) [3]. The worth dimension (worth-based self-esteem) measures how much people believe they are valuable. Self-esteem research typically assumes three conceptualizations; each conceptualization has been treated almost independently of the others. Self-esteem has first been studied as a result. Researchers adopting this perspective have concentrated on the mechanisms that promote or impede self-esteem. The tendency for people to act in ways that uphold or improve favourable appraisals of the self has also been studied as self-motivation. Last, researchers have considered self-esteem a self-protective buffer against negative events [10].

Confidence in one's own worth is known as self-esteem. Because it is a broad, innate, and openly accessible self-evaluation, global self-esteem has received the greatest attention. Since it reflects a person's social acceptability and cultural worth, psychologists think self-esteem is critical. As a result, there are a lot of incentives for people to work on and maintain strong self-esteem. Even though it changes over time and is influenced by how much approval one receives from others, the majority of people tend to have high levels of self-esteem. Although it has long been believed that self-esteem determines many aspects of life, there is conflicting evidence to support this. Self-esteem level affects just some psychopathologies, interpersonal interactions, and overall well-being. Self-esteem level is less important than self-esteem fragility or narcissism for some outcomes [11].

Understanding the nuances of self-esteem might provide valuable information for treatment. A healthy sense of self-worth is fundamental to human flourishing and an essential quality in all aspect of life. When people have faith in themselves, they feel more secure and are less likely to engage in dangerous behaviours. An essential psychological need is a healthy sense of self-worth. Every major facet of our lives is impacted by our self-esteem. Our mental processes, feelings, wants, values, decisions, and aspirations are all significantly impacted. Almost every mental health issue has a root in low self-esteem. Low self-esteem is a result of psychological issues. We are in it together. There is evidence that indicates a correlation between self-confidence and traits like openness, curiosity, and seeking the truth [12].

3. Theories of self-esteem

3.1. Social Identity Theory

To shed light on the process by which individuals determine their social standing, social identity theory was developed. The idea states that three mental operations—social classification, social comparison, and social identification—are critical. According to social identity theory, people's membership in certain groups shapes who they are (for example, being a "student," "woman," "left-hander," or "Barcelona supporter"). The strength and depth of social identities differ. Social identification is the conceptual framework for the strength component (e.g., "I strongly identify with Europeans") [11]. Whereas, norms and collective traits (like a football team's colours) provide the basis of social identity, statements like "real men don't cry" serve to isolate individuals. A person's social identity affects both their emotions (like sadness after a team loss) and their behaviour (such protecting one's in-group or being prejudiced toward others). Before introducing the core ideas of social identity theory—ranging from social categorization to overcoming a negative social identity—this article delves into two major application domains, health and organisations. We will conclude by outlining an intervention that is based on social identity and aims to improve intergroup relations in the classroom [12].

3.2. Self-Discrepancy Theory

People get good emotions when they are close to self-guides. When self-guides stray from the truth, people experience negative emotions [13]. The type of self-guide that is utilised to compare allows for the differentiation of this effect. Individuals have the option to evaluate themselves in relation to a perfect self-guide that personifies their goals and dreams. On the other hand, they can compare themselves to an ought to self-guide, which represents their responsibilities or duties [14]. Mood swings from joy to sorrow result from comparing oneself to ideal self-guides: Sadness and sadness are outcomes of straying from ideal standards, whereas joy and happiness are outcomes of being close to ideal standards. Responses to analogies to ought to self-guide can be as varied as relief and agitation: Finding the right self-guides brings about a state of calm and contentment [15].

On the other hand, worry and shame set in when one is not following the right self-guides. A larger disparity has a more negative impact since the negative affect is inversely proportional to the disparity's magnitude.

3.3. Sociometer Theory

The "sociometer theory," a popular framework for understanding self-esteem, proposes that it serves as a gauge for the level of social approbation one receives from their peers and an early warning system for threats to one's sense of belonging. The sociometer theory of self-esteem was originally proposed by Baumeister and Tice [3]. The idea that social bonds are fundamental to human reproduction and survival was the central tenet of their research. So, they built something to help them maintain these relationships. It was necessary for the system to monitor responses to user actions [16]. Responses to a person's behaviour that were associated with social rejection required their whole attention. Any change in the individual's inclusion status or decrease in social acceptance will trigger a notification from this monitoring system. Put another way, if a relationship is going south, this status scanner will push you to fix it [17]. Also, it alerts you when you're about to do anything that can damage your connections with other people. What this means is that our brains have developed a mechanism that constantly looks for signals regarding the importance of a person's relationship to their indirect visual environment [18].

3.4. Self-Evaluation Maintenance Theory

Disputes between partners in a relationship are referred to in self-evaluation maintenance theory. In a relationship, both people try to keep their spirits up by constantly comparing themselves to one another. To view oneself is to engage in self-evaluation [21]. As one grows and progresses, they must constantly evaluate how their close relationships help or hurt them (someone with whom one has a close psychological relationship). People are more vulnerable to attacks from friends than from strangers [22]. Abraham Tesser proposed the self-evaluation maintenance concept in 1988. The foundational assumptions of the self-evaluation maintenance model are that people strive to keep or enhance their self-evaluation and that interpersonal interactions impact self-evaluation. A person's self-evaluation, which is connected to self-esteem, could rise when a close relative does well [23]. An example would be a sibling scoring the game-winning goal in a nail-biter. Confidence will grow as a result of the individual's willingness to share their achievements. A stronger psychological bond and greater achievement are the results of having more people share in the success. This is thought of as contemplation. High levels of proximity and performance are associated with increased self-evaluation during reflection [24]. Sharing in the success of another person's achievement, even if it has little to do with their self-definition, might benefit someone emotionally connected to them [25].

3.5. Sports and self-esteem

The physical abilities, skills, and physiques one gets when playing sports help to increase one's sense of self. Individuals develop a sense of positive self-worth when acknowledged for their sporting achievements by family, friends, coaches, and society [26]. On the other hand, if we believe our bodies are inadequate or improper for the physical activities we engage in, this negatively impacts our self-worth and body image, further lowering our self-esteem. It is frequently believed that our intentions and skills should not be appraised but rather our competitive success [27]. Intensive sporting events, competition preparation, and other training and counselling sessions isolate the person since they make them feel separated from society and their family. Therefore, these negative factors must be controlled to develop positive self-esteem [28].

3.6. Satisfaction with life

Satisfaction is a Latin word that means to do or do enough. To be satisfied with your life means to be satisfied or to accept your life's living conditions or the fulfilment of desires and needs in one's life. Basically, life satisfaction is a subjective assessment of the quality of life your life. Because it is essentially an assessment, assessments of life satisfaction they have a large cognitive component [29]. Life satisfaction is a key indicator of mental health and is positively related to positive personal, psychological, behavioural, social, relational, and internal outcomes. Everyone's life focuses on finding happiness in it [30]. Everybody wants to be happy throughout their lives. Nobody wants to feel unhappy with their lives. The overall evaluation is made by contrasting one's goals with their accomplishments. Every person will have life objectives. Through various missions, he/she/they work to accomplish his goal. He/she/they hope to complete his mission successfully, leading to a happy existence [31]. An individual's level of life satisfaction will vary depending on their psychological and environmental circumstances. Instead, of evaluating one's current feelings or reactions to situations, one must evaluate their entire life to determine their level of life satisfaction [32]. The individual sets the evaluation standards on their own. The criteria for examination will vary depending on the person. The standards for one person may not be appropriate for others.

4. Objectives of the study

- To examine whether gender differences influence the study variables.
- To examine whether years of sports experiences of the athlete influence the study variables.
- To examine whether years of experience with a coach influence the study variables.
- To examine the relationship among the study variables.

4.1. Statement of the problem

This study aimed to find the relationship between self-esteem, satisfaction with life, and coach-athlete relationships among footballers.

4.2. Hypothesis

- H1: There is no gender difference among study variables
- H2: There is no significant difference among study variables based on the years of game experiences
- H3: There is no significant difference among study variables based on the years of experience with the coach
- H4: There will be no relationship among study variables

4.3. Delimitation

The present study includes the following delimitations.

- This was confined specifically to the southern states of India; it may have represented the data of people residing in that area alone and may not represent the whole footballer residing in India.
- Due to time restrictions, past researchers were not analyzed while choosing the sample size. So, that sample size was roughly estimated and chosen according to the researcher's convenience.
- It was unable to explore the effect of different demographic factors in the study, as the sample group size is unequal.
- The study was focused on a specific age group, such as young adults or adults.
- Data was collected using a specific research instrument, such as a questionnaire.

4.4. Limitation

Despite the efforts, there are several shortcomings in the current study.

- The sample size in the study may be limited, which could affect the generalizability of the findings. If the sample size is too small, it may not represent the larger population of sportspersons, and the results may not be reliable [33].
- Self-esteem, coach-athlete relationships, and satisfaction with life are often measured using self-report measures, which can be subject to bias. Participants may be more likely to report positive attitudes and behaviours, which could inflate the relationship between Self-esteem coach-athlete relationships and satisfaction with life [34].
- A cross-sectional design may limit the ability to establish causality between Self-esteem coach-athlete relationships and satisfaction with life. A longitudinal design that follows participants over time may be more appropriate to establish the temporal relationship between these variables [35].
- The study focuses only on sports performance, and the results may not be generalizable to other domains, such as academic achievement performance. The relationship between Self-esteem, coach-athlete relationship, and satisfaction with life may differ across different domains [36].
- Significance of the Study
- The study may add to the existing knowledge of coaches and athletes by pointing out the impact of the coach-athlete relationship and its influence on self-esteem and satisfaction with life.
- The study may help the coaches change their commitment, closeness, and complementarity in sports, improving the athletes' self-esteem [37].
- The study's results may add to the knowledge of the coach-athlete relationship's role in developing footballers' performance.
- It will help budding researchers discover the influence of the coach-athlete relationship on self-esteem and satisfaction with life.

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- The study may help the coaches change their commitment, closeness, and complementarity in sports, improving the athletes' self-esteem.
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- It will help budding researchers discover the influence of the coach-athlete relationship on self-esteem and satisfaction with life.

5. Methodology

This particular paper follows the methodology used for this study. This investigation was motivated to find the relationship between Coach-Athlete Relationship, self-esteem, and Satisfaction with Life among Football Players. The research has been performed by a convenient sampling method. This specific paper describes subject selection, variables selection, tools used, administration of tests, collection of data as well as statistical techniques adapted for data analysis.

5.1. Selection of Subjects

A convenient sampling method was used to choose 130 football players.

5.2. Selection of Variables

After reading all the relevant materials and consultation with guides and experts, the following variables were chosen for the study.

- Self-esteem
- Satisfaction with life
- Coach-Athlete Relationship

5.3. Tools Used for the Study

Maximum care was taken in the selection of tools for this study. The researcher referred to related studies and had a comprehensive discussion with her guide as well as experts in this area of sports psychology before making the final decision while fixing the most appropriate tool for this study, which are follows (Table 1):

Table 1: Variables and tools used for the study

No.	Variable	Tools
1	Self-Esteem	Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale
2	Satisfaction with Life	Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS)
3	Coach-Athlete Relationship	Coach-Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q)

6. Description of Tools

6.1. Demographic Questionnaire

From the respondents, the researcher collected primary pieces of information like age, educational qualification, income, type of family, hometown, game, achievement, experience, etc,

6.2. Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

Back in 1965, Morris Rosenberg came up with the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. There are ten statements total on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, five positive and five negative. For each statement, there are four options for responses, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." A system of blended ratings is used for scoring. A low self-esteem response would be "strongly agree" or "agree" on things 2, 5, 6, 8, 9, and "disagree" or "strongly disagree" on items 1, 3, 4, 7, and 10. For questions 3, 7, and 9, a score of two or three correct answers counts as one item. For questions 4 and 5, a single correct answer counts as one item; for questions 1, 8, and 10, each item counts as an individual score; and for questions 2 and 6, a combined correct answer of one or two out of two counts as one item. You can score the scale by adding up the points from each 4-point item after you've reverse-scored the ones with negative wording. Both the internal consistency and the minimum repeatability coefficient of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale were highly regarded in terms of reliability.

6.3. Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

For the purpose of gauging respondents' contentment with their life in general, the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) was developed. There is no measurement of happiness with life domains like health or finances on the scale, and subjects are free to combine and prioritise these areas as they deem appropriate. Provided normative data and high convergent validity with other measures of subjective well-being make this scale a promising tool in the toolbox. Life satisfaction as measured by the SWLS shows some degree of constancy across time (.54 for 4 years, for example). However, it has also shown sufficient sensitivity to be applicable in detecting shifts in life satisfaction as a result of therapeutic interventions. The scale also shows discriminant validity when compared to other measures of emotional well-being. Because it measures a person's self-aware evaluation of their life according to their own standards, the SWLS is a good supplement to measures that look at mental health

or emotional stability. A 5-item measure that assesses overall subjective evaluations of life satisfaction (not a measure of either positive or negative affect).

6.4. Coach-Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q)

The 11-item Coach-Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q), adopted from Jowett and Ntoumanis, was utilized to evaluate the coach-athlete relationship across three dimensions: (i) commitment (3 items), (ii) closeness (4 items), and (iii) complementarity (4 items). Sample items include, “I feel close to my coach” (commitment), “I trust my coach” (closeness), and “When my coach coaches me, I feel at ease” (complementarity). The scale ranges from 1 (Not-at-all) to 7 (Extremely). Evidence supporting the reliability and construct validity of the CART-Q has been established.

6.5. Collection of Data.

The researcher used an online mode to distribute the questionnaire to the 100 chosen subjects. The subjects were made fully aware of the primary purpose of this study. The researcher explained to the subjects how to administer the survey. To make sure that every query was answered, careful consideration was given. Each subject’s total score was calculated after looking at how each topic was answered and applying the scoring procedure.

6.6. Statistical Technique

After obtaining data from the subjects, it was tabulated and analyzed with Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient technique to find the relationships between self-esteem, satisfaction with life, and Coach-Athlete Relationship. Data was analyzed using a statistical package for social science (SPSS).

7. Result

Various socio-demographic factors, including gender, years of experience, and years of experience with a coach, characterize the sample population. The gender distribution in the sample shows that 59 participants, representing 45.4% of the total sample, are female, while 71 participants, making up 53.1% of the sample, are male. This indicates a slight predominance of male participants in the study. In terms of overall experience, the data reveals that a significant portion of the participants, 58 individuals (44.6%), have between 1 to 5 years of experience. Another 44 participants (33.84%) have 5 to 10 years of experience, while 28 individuals (21.53%) have 10 to 15 years of experience. This distribution suggests that the sample includes a diverse range of experience levels, with a larger proportion having less than 10 years of experience. Table 2 shows the basic characteristics of the sample in terms of socio-demographics.

Table 2: Characteristics of the sample

Socio- demographics	Group	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	59	45.4
	Male	71	53.1
Years of experience	1 to 5 years	58	44.6
	5 to 10 years	44	33.84
	10 to 15 years	28	21.53
Years of Experience with coach	1 to 5 years	85	65.38
	5 to 10 years	33	25.38
	10 to 15 years	12	9.23

When examining the participants’ years of experience with a coach, the majority, 85 individuals (65.38%), have 1 to 5 years of experience working with their coach. This is followed by 33 participants (25.38%) with 5 to 10 years of experience with a coach and 12 participants (9.23%) with 10 to 15 years of experience. This indicates that most participants have relatively short-term coaching relationships, with a smaller group having more extensive experience with their coach.

Table 3: Descriptive statistical analysis of all the study variables by gender

Variables	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t
Self Esteem	Female	59	28.78	3.69S1	1.017
	Male	71	28.11	3.751	1.018
Satisfaction with Life	Female	59	43.07	6.311	-1.952
	Male	71	45.48	7.542	-1.984

Coach-Athlete Relationship	Female	59	59.90	14.506	.822
	Male	71	57.59	17.004	.835

Table 3 details the descriptive statistics and results of the independent sample t-test to determine gender differences among all the study variables. Results indicate that there was no significant gender difference among study variables. Thus, H1 is accepted.

Table 4: Differences in the study variables by Years of Experience

Variable	1		2		3		F
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	
Self Esteem	28.83	3.817	28.43	3.675	27.54	3.585	1.139
Satisfaction with life	40.38	6.081	45.45	5.223	51.00	6.061	32.78
Coach-Athlete Relationship	60.34	14.98	58.61	15.96	55.14	17.58	1.011

M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation

Table 4 shows the result of the One-way analysis of variance conducted to examine the group differences by years of game experiences among the study variables. The result indicates no significant differences for almost all of the study variables, except satisfaction with life. (F = 32.789). Thus, H2 is rejected

Table 5: Differences in the study variables by Years of Experience with Coach

Variable	1		2		3		F
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	
Self Esteem	28.40	3.846	28.85	3.438	27.33	3.676	.727
Satisfaction with life	41.99	6.048	48.12	6.637	51.08	6.802	18.922
Coach-Athlete Relationship	59.76	14.946	56.73	17.823	55.92	55.92	.624

M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation

Table 5 shows the result of the One-way analysis of variance conducted to examine the group differences by years of experience among the study variables. The result indicates no significant differences for almost all study variables except satisfaction with life (F = 18.922). Thus, H3 is rejected.

Table 6: Correlation among study variables

Variable	1		2		3		F
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	
Self Esteem	28.40	3.846	28.85	3.438	27.33	3.676	.727
Satisfaction with life	41.99	6.048	48.12	6.637	51.08	6.802	18.922
Coach-Athlete Relationship	59.76	14.946	56.73	17.823	55.92	55.92	.624

**p < 0.01; *p < 0.05

Pearson correlation analysis was performed to understand the relationship between Self-esteem, Satisfaction with life, and Coach-Athlete Relationship and its dimensions, i.e., Commitment, Closeness, and Complementarity (Table 6). The results in Table 5 indicate a significant positive correlation between self-esteem and satisfaction with life (r = .512). This means that individuals with high self-esteem are more likely to be satisfied with life. Results indicate that self-esteem significantly correlates with the coach-athlete relationship (r = .178). Among the dimensions of coach athlete relationship, self-esteem is correlated to commitment (r = .185*), but not with closeness and complementarity. The results in Table 3 indicate no significant correlation between satisfaction with life and Coach-Athlete relationship. Thus, H4 is rejected.

8. Discussion

Finding out how football players' self-esteem, life satisfaction, and coach-athlete relationships relate to one another was the primary goal of this research. Additionally, there is a strong correlation between self-esteem and the coach-athlete relationship,

according to the results. While proximity and complementarity are elements of coach-athlete interactions that are correlated with self-esteem, commitment is not. There was no statistically significant association between life satisfaction and the Coach-Athlete dynamic. Athletes' performance and health are both greatly enhanced by coaching, according to the available research. The coach and the athlete are the two parties involved in coaching. These two people create a two-way partnership with a lot of strength and enable its members to accomplish their personal and relationship objectives. The relationship between coaches and athletes is one of the most important factors in successful coaching outcomes. It is common to think of coaching as the environment in which coaches work to improve an athlete's performance and well-being significantly. The quality of the bond between coaches and athletes is a major contributor to good coaching outcomes [20].

The study's first objective was to examine whether gender differences influence the study variables. The hypothesis that was formulated predicted that there is no gender difference among study variables. This study's results indicate no significant gender difference among study variables. This proves the hypothesis correct. To back up these findings, Jowett's [19] analysis demonstrated that age, gender, coaching gender, and athletes' prior experience with the activity had no significant moderating influence. Based on the findings, it appears that women's coaching experiences are shaped by societal norms and that preconceived notions about their athletic talents can hinder this connection. The study also shows that women athletes can have better experiences in performance sports if the coach-athlete interaction is more democratic, customised, and positive. Women who compete at a high level often feel that their coach has an excessively controlling influence on their lives.

The second objective is to examine whether years of game of athlete experiences influence the study variables. The formulated hypothesis predicted no significant difference among study variables based on the years of game experience. The result indicates no significant differences for almost all of the study variables, except satisfaction with life. Previous studies support this result. Varca et al. [38] revealed that sports participation during adolescence significantly affected adult life satisfaction for men and conducted a study on the investigation of life satisfaction and psychological health of university students according to their sports participation experiences; the results of the analysis were examined in terms of life satisfaction, and it was determined that the scores of the students who stated that they participated in sports at the primary school level were significantly higher.

These results go counter to what Yu and Song found in their study [41]; that is, that motivation mediated the relationship between self-efficacy and sports involvement and had a favourable effect on participation. Participation in athletic activities, however, did not modulate the relationship between self-efficacy and happiness. Participation in athletic activities, which in turn increased life satisfaction, was strongly and favourably impacted by self-efficacy.

The third objective is to examine whether years of experience with a coach influence the study variables. The formulated hypothesis predicted no significant difference among study variables based on the years of experience with the coach. The result indicates no significant differences for almost all of the study variables, except satisfaction with life. Previous studies supported that shows a significant relation between the experience of a coach and satisfaction with life. According to Vella et al. [39], the findings show that the coach-athlete relationship and transformational leadership behaviour among coaches are moderately positively correlated with developmental experiences. Coaches practising in youth sports can create positive developmental outcomes from team success and team failure by taking advantage of naturally occurring teachable moments.

On the other hand, Jowett's [19] analysis showed that, particularly among athletes with established relationships, players' opinions of their relationship with the coach were positively correlated with their perceptions of their physical selves. Research has also shown that athletes' perceptions of similarity in their relationship with their coach are a crucial mediator for both the newly and somewhat formed relationship. These findings deepen our understanding of how athletes see their physical selves in the context of their relationships with coaches and other athletes.

The fourth and final objective is to examine the relationship between self-esteem, satisfaction with life, and coach-athlete relationships among footballers. The formulated hypothesis predicted that there would be no relationship among study variables; the results indicate a significant positive correlation between Self-esteem and satisfaction with life. This means that individuals with high self-esteem are more likely to be satisfied with life. Results also indicate that self-esteem has a significant positive correlation with coach-athlete relationships. Among the dimensions of the coach-athlete relationship, self-esteem correlates to commitment but not closeness and complementarity. The results indicate no significant correlation between satisfaction with life and Coach-Athlete relationship. Thus, the hypothesis is rejected.

One of the key measures of psychological health is high self-esteem, and refers to the general well-being. As a dynamic structure, It impacts more than just how we interact with those around us; It is also determined by how we engage with and relate to the people we value most. In addition to the coach-athlete relationship affecting self-esteem, the coach-athlete relationship also influences self-esteem. Athletes view their coaches as being the most significant people in sporting environments. From this perspective, it is clear that a coach's positive interactions and connections with their players can boost the athletes' self-esteem, improving their relationships with their coaches. Regardless of the perspective, the coach-athlete relationship and self-esteem are mutually supportive. Clarifying the relationships between these structures calls for more thorough research, particularly qualitative research.

The other research findings showed that commitment to the coach and closeness to them were associated with life satisfaction. One of the key elements that can impact an athlete's satisfaction is the coach-athlete relationship. Additionally, there was a positive relationship between self-esteem and life satisfaction. Studies indicating the relationship between self-esteem and life satisfaction parallel the findings.

The current study aims to determine the relationship between coach-athlete relationship, self-esteem and satisfaction with life among footballers. Moreover, this study investigates the relationship between self-esteem and the coach-athlete relationship, i.e., closeness, commitment, and complementarity. Additionally, the study explores the impact of the area of residence, highest achievement and years of experience, years of experience with the coach on Self-esteem, Coach-Athlete Relationship and Satisfaction with Life.

The study's primary objective was to examine the relationship with study variables among footballers. There were four hypotheses in this study. The first hypothesis states there is no significant gender difference in Self-esteem, Coach-Athlete Relationship, and Satisfaction with Life. The second hypothesis is there is no significant difference among Self-esteem, Coach-Athlete Relationship, and Satisfaction with Life based on years of game experiences. The third hypothesis is there is no significant difference among Self-esteem, Coach-Athlete Relationship, and Satisfaction with Life based on the years of experience with the coach. The final hypothesis is that there will be no relationship between Self-esteem, Coach-Athlete Relationship, and Satisfaction with Life.

9. Conclusion

The study findings revealed significant positive correlations between football players' self-esteem, life satisfaction, and the coach-athlete relationship. Specifically, higher levels of self-esteem were associated with greater satisfaction with life and a stronger coach-athlete relationship. However, the study did not find a significant correlation between life satisfaction and the coach-athlete relationship. Interestingly, the coach-athlete relationship emerged as a strong predictor of self-esteem, suggesting that a positive and supportive relationship between coaches and athletes can significantly enhance the athletes' self-esteem. This finding underscores the importance of the coach-athlete dynamic in fostering an athlete's psychological well-being. Additionally, self-esteem was a good predictor of life satisfaction, indicating that higher-esteem athletes tend to have a more positive outlook on life and report higher satisfaction levels. This highlights the central role of self-esteem in influencing not only the athletes' performance and relationships but also their overall life satisfaction. In summary, the study suggests that enhancing the coach-athlete relationship can substantially impact athletes' self-esteem, positively influencing their satisfaction with life. These findings emphasize the need for coaches to cultivate strong, supportive relationships with their athletes as part of their broader coaching strategy, thereby promoting athletic success and the overall well-being of their players. Future research could further explore these dynamics and examine interventions to strengthen the coach-athlete relationship to enhance self-esteem and life satisfaction among athletes.

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