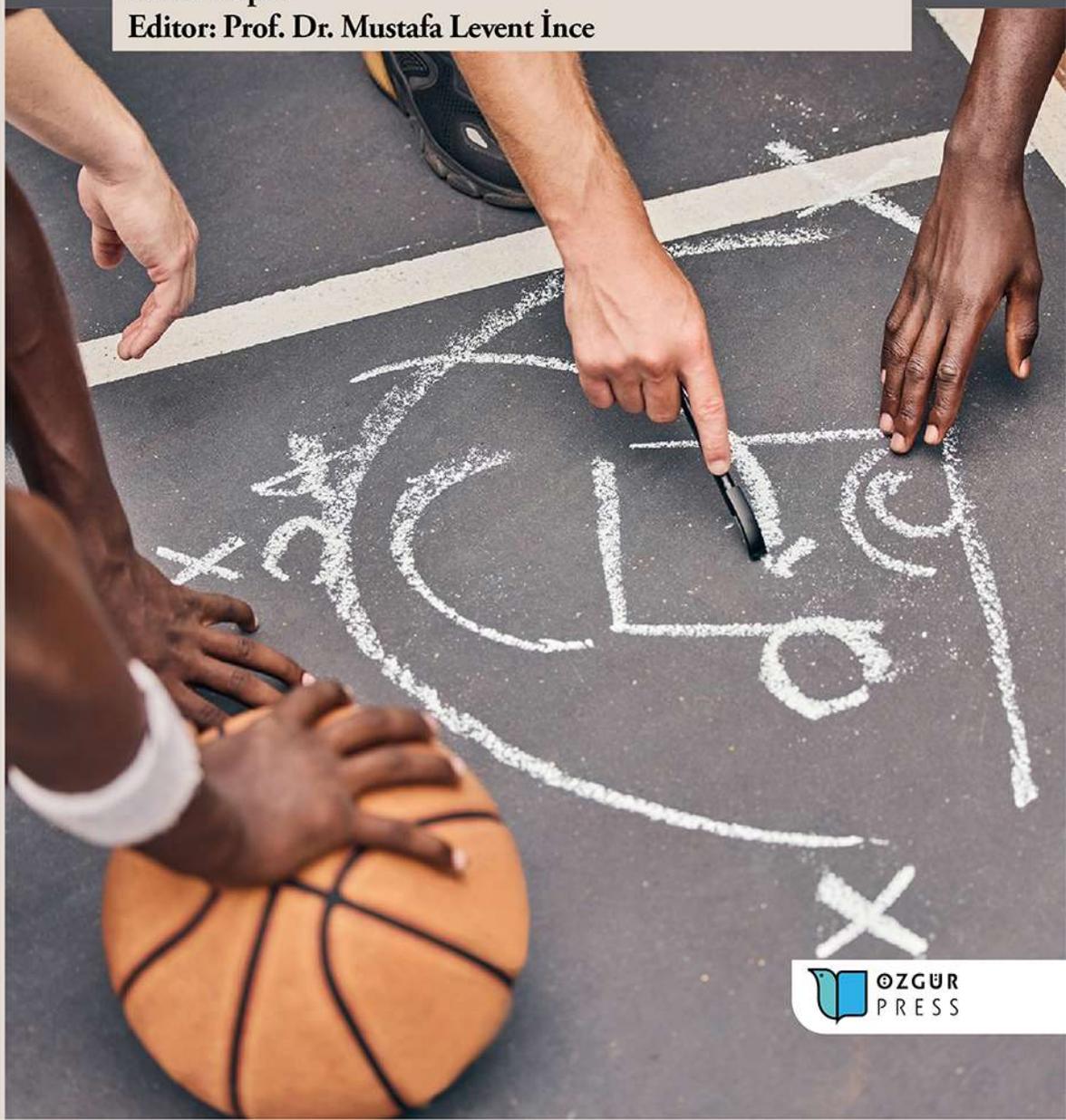


Comparison of Practice Activities, Coaching Behaviors, and Athletes' Psychosocial Outcomes in Two Youth Basketball Contexts

Ahmet Yapar

Editor: Prof. Dr. Mustafa Levent İnce



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Ahmet Yapar • Editor: Prof. Dr. Mustafa Levent İnce

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To

*My parents, Selma & İbrahim YAPAR and my wife Özlem YAPAR
for their endless love and support*

This book is derived from Dr. Ahmet YAPAR's PhD dissertation entitled "Comparison of Practice Activities, Coaching Behaviors and Athletes' Psychosocial Outcomes in Two Youth Basketball Contexts", prepared under supervision of Prof. Dr. Mustafa Levent İnce.

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Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

Organized activities provide many distinct and diverse learning opportunities for children and youth that aid in physical, psychological, social, and civic development (Bloom & Sosniak, 1985; Larson & Verma, 1999; Whiting, 1980). Sports have also been recognized as one of the most effective and intensively participated organized activity among children and youth (De Knop, 1996). Several studies have corroborated that a properly structured youth sport program is an ideal setting for sports participation to improve their physical health, learn important life skills, and learn motor skills that can determine lifelong recreational sport participants and future elite athletes (Fraser-Thomas, Côté & Deakin, 2005).

Organized sport activities comprise complex interactions among coaches, athletes, and the sporting environment. There are several models developed to explain sports in a way that aids in developing expert performance and sustaining recreational participation. Athlete development models help researchers to understand complexity of sports contexts. Studies that based on one of the athlete development model help researchers to approach a problem with appropriate perspective.

One of the more commonly preferred sport participation models is the Developmental Model of Sport Participation (DMSP) (Côté, 1999; Côté, Baker, & Abernethy, 2007). The DMSP has been accepted as the most prominent athlete development model in the academic literature (Bruner, Erickson, McFadden, & Côté, 2009; Bruner, Erickson, Wilson, & Côté, 2010; Côté & Vierimaa, 2014). The DMSP is composed of three

trajectories that identify ways of sport participation and each trajectory has clear indicators that are consistent with child and youth development theories. Trajectories suggested by DMSP explain different pathways for athlete development. The trajectories are: recreational participation, elite performance, and early specialization. Each trajectory is composed of stages relating to sporting context, and each context should be composed of appropriate practice activities and specific coaching styles to be effective for optimum development.

Coaches play important roles in the development of the athletes. The roles of coaches in all sports are to help athlete acquire the skills that are fit for their holistic developmental needs (e.g., physical, psychological, social) and that are necessary to perform successfully in play or competition (Jones, 2006)

Therefore, coaches design their practices and teaching-learning activities to meet the developmental needs of athletes. These activities lies at the heart of coaching, and this teaching-learning process should be considered as a pedagogical process (Ford, Williams, & Williams, 2013). Practice activities and coaching behaviors should be consistent with the ages of athletes and their development level to maximize the acquisition of sport-specific skills, performance, and the likelihood of future participation.

In the area of sport pedagogy, several studies were conducted using systematic observation methodology to analyze practice activities (Deakin, Starkes, & Allard, 1998; (Ford, Williams, 2013; Ford, Yates, & Williams, 2010; Jones, 2006; Low, Williams, McRobert, & Ford, 2013) and coaching behaviors during practice (Cushion & Jones, 2001; Lacy & Darst, 1985; Potrac, Jones, & Armour, 2002). These studies aimed to empirically extend the understanding of skill learning, types of practice activities, and coaching behaviors that work best for developing elite athletes (Farrow, Baker, & MacMahon, 2013; Williams & Hodges, 2005). General findings point out recommendations for coaches as to what they should do in their coaching contexts (e.g., type of feedback and/or, type of instruction). These studies generally examined elite-level high performance practices and described elite-level coaching behaviors. However, there is insufficient knowledge about youth basketball context practice activities and coaching behaviors. The number of studies conducted regarding in youth basketball school and club team contexts are very low in coaching science literature.

However, other studies have concluded that coaching practices should still be guided by traditional standards of the sport (Cushion, Armour, & Jones, 2003; Williams & Hodges, 2005). In traditional standards of

coaching, coaches replicates other coaches' practices without regarding their participants' ages or, skill levels. This incongruence between coaching practices and coaching science has been identified in research that investigated the design and implementation of practice sessions and the teaching-learning process of sport specific skills and tactics (Ford et al, 2010; Low et al, 2013). Hence, the analysis of coaching behaviors and practice activities in different youth sports contexts might provide valuable information to understand, evaluate, and improve the quality of youth sports. Additionally, the analysis may help elucidate real coaching situations and make positive contributions to the quality of coach education programs.

Participating in organized sport activities prevents youth from a variety of undesired behaviors and habits. For example, Eccles and Barber's (1999) study indicated that youth sport participants reported higher levels of enjoyment, higher levels of grade points in school, and lower consumption of alcohol, when compared to non-sport participants. In addition to these findings, a positive relationship between sport participation and increased moral reasoning was found by Lemyre, Robert, and Ommundsen (2002). Participation in organized sport has also been linked to higher rates of experiences requiring initiative and experiences related to the regulation of emotion than other structured activities in which youth participate (Larson, Hansen, & Moneta, 2006)

Organized activities are also considered as ideal settings for promoting positive youth development (PYD). Properly structured, organized programs are seen as ideal contexts to teach and foster positive outcomes (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005). PYD through sports is seen as a framework and has gained the attention of researchers over past 20 years. The PYD approach advocates that all children should be considered as having the potential and resources to be developed in a positive manner rather than as burdens on society (Damon, 2004a). In more detail, the goals of the PYD approach are understand, educate, and engage children in productive activities rather than correct, cure, or threaten them for maladaptive tendencies. Petitpas, Cornelius, Van Raalte, and Jones (2005) described the ideal context to foster PYD. According to their research PYD is enhanced when (1) the child practices in the activity within an appropriate environment; (2) the child is surrounded by caring adults; (3) the child acquires skills related to dealing with life challenges; and (4) the program grows through evaluation and research findings (Petitpaset al, 2005). All these conditions are consistent with the developmental system theory (Ford & Lerner, 1992) and have positive effects on children's development through sport participation. Although the conditions and benefits of organized sport

settings can foster positive development, best practices and implications that promote PYD, have not been shown to increase the long term impact on children and youth.

With the information mentioned about what factors foster positive development in youth sports, motivating children to initially participate and then remain in the sport seems important. Enjoyment is a key factor for motivating children to be involved in sport because enjoyment has repeatedly been reported by youth as one of the most important motivational factors for sport participation (Gill, Gross, & Huddleston, 1983).

Enjoyment is defined as “a positive affective response to sport experience that reflects generalized feelings such as pleasure, liking and fun” (T. Scanlan & Simons, 1992,p.18), and it is related to individual factors, such as having fun and releasing energy, and environmental factors, such as making new friends. Enjoyment is also a major component in several sport motivation theories such as competence motivation theory (Harter, 1980), achievement goal theory (Nicholls, 1989), and the sport commitment model (Scanlan, Simons, Carpenter, Schmidt, & Keeler, 1993). The relationship between enjoyment and continued sport participation has been investigated in Turkish population and findings indicated that youth in Turkey reported enjoyment as one of the important factors for participation in sports (Şirin, Çağlayan, Çetin, & İnce, 2008). Enjoyment was also reported as one of the most important factors in the development of PYD dimensions (MacDonald, Côté, Eys, & Deakin, 2011).

Although many organized sport programs claims their programs promote enjoyment and positive development experiences, research findings indicate that youth sport participants reported higher stress levels than other youth involved in other different organized activities such as music or art (Gould et al, 1996).

Stress is the main factor for burnout, and competitive sports, such as basketball, can cause stress in youth sport participants. Moreover, inappropriate coach-athlete interactions and unsuitable practice environments may also cause negative experiences. Burnout is an important and well-researched negative issue related to participation in youth sports. Smith (1986) defined burnout as withdrawal from an activity that was previously enjoyable because of stress or dissatisfaction. As a syndrome, burnout comprise three characteristics: physical exhaustion, devaluation of one's sport, and reduced sense of accomplishment (Raedeke & Smith, 2001).

Stress that results from an inability to manage the demands of competition or training can cause burnout in sport participants. The initial indicators

of burnout in athletes include poor performance, exhaustion, mood disturbances, decreased motivation, and lack of accomplishment (Vealey & Chase, 2015). Excessive school demands, stressful social relationships, lack of recovery time, and early sport success were also found as causes of burnout in the youth sports setting (Gustafsson, Kenttä, & Hassmén, 2011).

Therefore, research investigating youth sport participants' positive and negative developmental experiences and their relationship with burnout and enjoyment in different contexts could provide valuable information about both positive (i.e., enjoyment) and negative (i.e., burnout) experiences in youth sport contexts.

Basketball is a popular sport for youth all over the world, including among the Turkish youth population. The popularity of the basketball is increasing with the success of sports clubs and national teams in Europe and world championship tournaments. Numerous children and youth start to play basketball each year and this number increases daily (Spor Genel Müdürlüğü, 2016). Structured youth basketball organizations are the most important source for developing elite players and sustaining success at the elite level. For sustainable player development and success, the understanding of coaching activities (i.e., appropriateness of practice activities and coaching behaviors) and psychological developments of players (i.e., PYD of players, enjoyment and burnout levels) are as important as understanding the physical and performance development of youth basketball players.

There many opportunities for children and youth to participate in basketball activities. One of the most popular types of youth basketball organizations is basketball schools. Basketball schools offer organized basketball activities for participants to learn and develop basketball specific fundamental movement in a non-competitive, enjoyable, and safe environment. The other popular type of organization is sport clubs' basketball teams. Basketball clubs represent performance oriented basketball activities for athletic performance, technical, and tactical development of youth for the purpose of being successful in competitions – a more competitive or performance context.

Official and unofficial connections between two types of organizations and contexts exist. For example, coaches can transfer children who participate in basketball schools to club team if they improve their basketball skills. Consequently, coaches consider basketball schools as a resource for players and look to this context to find and select talented/gifted children.

Youth basketball settings should not to be seen only as sources of player development. Youth basketball settings are also an ideal place to promote recreational sport participation, promote of basketball, and create enthusiasm for basketball. Actions occurring in these settings will determine the future of basketball in Turkey.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Youth sport contexts are complex and encompass the interactions of several factors (e.g. coaches, athletes, peers, and context). Numerous studies have been conducted to understand the interaction of these factors and structures existing within the youth sports context. Most of these studies seek to specific aspects of youth sports, however, to understand complex interactions in youth sport contexts, studies are required that investigate these factors from a with holistic perspective. With a holistic approach, several aspects of youth sports can be examined with relations to each other.

In this dissertation, the researcher integrated skill acquisition, coaching pedagogy, and social psychology perspectives to understand competitive club team basketball and non-competitive basketball school youth basketball contexts in Turkey. For these purposes, the researcher first examined the practice activities that athletes engaged in during practice and categorized the time spent in different activities to understand how coaches facilitated skill acquisition in participation and performance youth basketball contexts. Following the analysis of practice activities, the researcher used a systematic observation methodology to analyze teaching and instructional behaviors of youth basketball coaches during the practices. Finally, youth basketball players' PYD experiences were investigated, specifically the sources of enjoyment and burnout a psychological outcomes of sport participation, in basketball school and club team contexts.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The present research is comprises two studies. Study 1 is about practice activities and coaching behaviors used in basketball schools and club team youth basketball settings. To that end, the purposes of the Study 1 were the following:

1. To compare the type of practice activities youth basketball players engaged in both basketball schools and the club team contexts.
2. To compare the time used for practice activities in basketball schools with the club team youth basketball contexts.

3. To compare coaching behaviors of youth basketball coaches within basketball schools and the club team contexts.

Study 2 was about psychological outcomes of youth basketball players. The purposes of the Study 2 were the following:

1. To compare the positive youth development experiences of youth players in basketball schools with the club team contexts.
2. To compare sources of enjoyment of youth basketball players within basketball schools and the club team contexts.
3. To compare burnout conditions of youth basketball players within basketball schools and the club team contexts.
4. To examine the relationships among youth basketball players' positive youth development experiences, sources of enjoyment, and burnout.

1.4 Research Questions

For examination of practice activities and coaching behaviors following questions were answered:

1. Are there differences between basketball schools and club teams regarding youth basketball practice activities?
2. Are there time use differences between basketball schools and club teams regarding youth basketball practice activities?
3. Are there differences between basketball schools and club teams regarding youth basketball coaches' behaviors?

For examination of psychological outcomes of youth basketball players, the following questions were answered:

1. Are there differences between basketball schools and club teams regarding youth basketball players' youth development experiences?
2. Are there differences between basketball schools and club teams regarding youth basketball players' sources of enjoyment in sport?
3. Are there differences between basketball schools and club teams regarding youth basketball players' conditions of burnout?
4. Do relationship exist between positive youth development experiences, enjoyment, and burnout?

1.5 Hypothesis

Hypothesis for Study 1

H1: There are no significant differences between basketball schools and club teams regarding youth basketball practice activities.

H2: There are no significant differences between basketball schools and club teams regarding time use in practice activities.

H3: There are no significant differences between basketball schools and club teams regarding coach behaviors.

Hypothesis for Study 2

H4: There is no significant differences between basketball schools and club teams on youth basketball players' youth development experiences

H5: There is no significant differences between basketball schools and club teams youth basketball players' sources of enjoyments in sport

H6: There is no significant differences between basketball schools and club teams youth basketball players' conditions of burnout.

H7: The more enjoyment and less signs of burnout lead more positive youth development experiences.

1.6. Limitations of the study

1. Although there were some inclusion criteria that applied, coaches were selected purposively from Ankara, Turkey.

2. Youth basketball players consist of 12-14 years old basketball school and club team basketball players. Therefore the generalizability of present study is limited to 12-14 years old male basketball participants from basketball schools and club teams in Ankara.

3. Practice features displays differences during the season. This present study is limited to practice settings that scheduled by coaches, the researcher has no input.

4. Coaching behaviors display differences in different parts of the season. The present study is limited to coaching behaviors during the observed period of practice.

5. Youth sport contexts are composed of complex interactions of several individual and environmental factors. Therefore, the present study is limited to youth male basketball context enjoyment, burnout, and positive youth development experiences.

1.7 Definition of terms

Coaching behavior: Actual physical actions, communications, expressed emotions are defined as exhibited coach behaviors during training while coaching. For example, feedbacks, demonstrations, and mimics.

Youth basketball player: A demographic of players who participate organized basketball activities between the ages of 12-14.

Positive youth development (PYD): An approach that views all children and youth as having the potential to develop in a positive manner. Using the PYD approach, children and youth should be considered a resources to develop rather than burdens to society.

Enjoyment: Positive affective response to the sport experience that reflects generalized feelings such as pleasure, liking, and fun.

Burnout: A psychological condition associated with negative consequences of sport participation, such as withdrawal from sport.

Sport context: A descriptor for specific settings or sport environments for the athlete development process.

Sport coach: A person who teaches and trains the participants of a sports and makes decisions about plays during training or games.

Literature Review

In this chapter, the literature review related with the present research is covered. First, leading models related to athlete development were briefly explained. In second and third section, developmental activities and practice activities related to athletes' development were explained. Afterwards, studies related to coaching behaviors were explained. Finally, leading studies related to enjoyment, burnout and positive youth development were explained.

2.1. Development Models for Youth Athletes

Over the years, researchers have developed different models and theories to encourage child and youth participation and talent development in sports by examining elite athlete developmental pathways. Developmental models in sport generally represents progression of an athlete from childhood to retirement and participants pass or change the stages as they are developing from novice to expert (Côté & Hay, 2002).

Bloom and Sosniak's (1985) study about talent development in young people has influenced other researchers and based on the Bloom and Sosniak's study there are some stage based athlete development models were developed. Bayli et al.'s Long Term Athlete Development (LTAD) (Balyi, Way, & Higgs, 2013) and Developmental Model of Sport Participation (DMSP) (Côté, Hay, 2002; Côté, Fraser-Thomas, 2007) can be regarded as two of the most popular and accepted models that represent athlete development in sports. In these two models, years of athletic development processes were divided into stages based on the participants' ages, skill levels, development, talent, and maturation as well as other factors. Participants needed to learn some basic requirements and overcome the challenges in each

stages to transfer between the stages successfully. These athlete development models are discussed in more detail in the following paragraphs.

Briefly, Bayli's LTAD is divided into seven stages:

Active Start: and include 0 to 6 years old children. At this stage, children are introduced to physical activity as a fun and exciting part of their daily life.

The second stage is the FUNdamental stage and is appropriate for boys who aged 6-9 and girls 5-8. The objective of FUNdamental stage is overall development of the athlete's physical capacities and fundamental movement skills.

The third stage is Learn to Train. This stage is appropriate for boys who aged 9-12 and girls aged 8-11. The main objective of this stage is to lean all fundamental sport skills.

The fourth stage is called Training to Train. This stage is appropriate for boys who aged 12-16 and girls aged 11-15. The main objective of this stage is overall development of the athlete's physical capabilities regarding aerobic conditioning and fundamental movement skills.

The fifth stage is called Training to Compete. This stage is appropriate for boys who aged 16-18 and girls aged 15-17. The main objective of this stage is to optimize fitness preparation, sport-specific skills and performance.

The sixth stage is called Training to Win. This stage is appropriate for boys who aged 18+ and girls aged 17+. The main objective of this stage is to maximize fitness preparation and sport-specific skills as well as performance.

The last stage is Active for Life. In this stage, athletes and participants enjoy for participating variety of competitive and recreational physical activities and competitions.

Whereas Bayli et al's (2013) LTAD is described as a biological and physiological oriented framework, Côté et al's (2002,2007) DMSP to fill the psycho-social aspects of the LTAD. Côté and colleagues extended Bloom's earlier work with talented individuals by using qualitative interviews with Canadian and Australian gymnasts, rowers, and players of basketball, netball, hockey, and tennis. Based on Bloom's work, Côté identified three trajectories in the DMSP. Briefly, these trajectories are sampling to elite, sampling to recreational participation, and early specialization. Elite performance and recreational participation trajectories start with the sampling years. Sampling years represent a context appropriate for children up to 6 years old. In this stage children are given the opportunity to try a variety of sports, develop

fundamental movement skills, and gain experience in sports as a source of fun and excitement. After this stages, children choose or are directed to one of two trajectories to follow. Elite performance represents a trajectory that focuses on a small number of sports. Fun is the basis for the early years of this trajectory and emerges as an important characteristics of sports. Recreational participation represents a trajectory that encourages lifelong sports participation.

Each model is composed of several stages, and each stage is critically important for not only children's further sport participation, but also their athletic development. Therefore, practices, athletes, and coaches in each stage need special attention in research (Côté et al, 2007 & Balyi, et al., 2013)

One of the most critical stages is between the ages of 12 and 14 years because this age group is the most populated age group with regard to youth sport participation, and at end of this age group the number of the sport participants getting decreases (Yüce & Sunay, 2013). To understand the situations in this age group, studies are needed that give special attention to youth sports practices and coaches. What athletes do in the practice and how coaches behave toward them are very critical aspects of youth sports literature.

As stated, youth basketball operations in Turkey are organized as either club basketball teams or basketball schools. These contexts offer several opportunities for participants, such as learning and developing basketball fundamentals, playing in organized competitions, and others. The most intensive participation ages in youth basketball organizations are between 12 and 15 years. The goals, requirements, conditions, and features of participants, for these age groups in youth basketball organizations are well defined in the stages of athlete development models. This age group corresponds with the Training to Train stage in the LTAD and specialization years / early years of recreational participation stage in DMSPP. Both athlete development models show the appropriate features of these stages and recommend basic principles of athlete developments for these ages. For athlete development, the actual coaching and practice activities should be consistent with the model based recommendations. Therefore the appropriateness of basketball schools and club teams' coaching behaviors and practice activities in relation to the models' features is critical for the development of athletes.

2.2. Developmental Activities in Youth Sports:

Related to the developmental models of youth athletes, there are several types of activities found to be important for talent development

and maintaining sports participation. Côté et al. (2013) adapted the Hakkarainen's (1999) analysis of an play learning and instruction in children classification, to classify the sport activities. Côté et al.'s classification is based on the social structure of an activity (adult-led or child-led) and personal value of an activity that provides different vales to participants' (intrinsic values, extrinsic values) (Figure 1). The first axis represents the social structure of the activities and amount of instruction and input provided by a supervising adult(s) (adult-led, such as coach) or by a participating youth (child-led), and these directed activities lie at opposite ends of the axis. The second axis represents the personal values related to the activity, whether intrinsic or extrinsic. Extrinsic values are activities performed to improve skills or performance, whereas intrinsic values describe activities done for inherent enjoyment

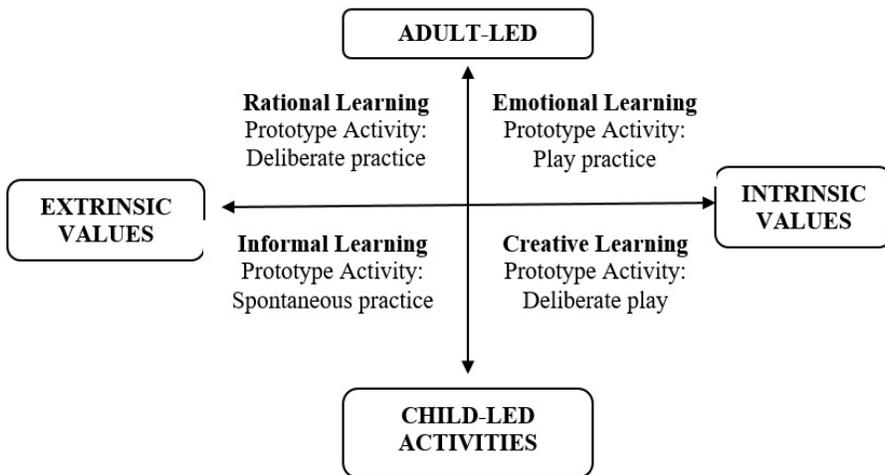


Figure 1. Classification of the sport activities. Côté, Erickson, Abernethy, 2013, p. 12

Several learning contexts could be designed to promote children's sports development. Adults can design a learning environment to improve specific sport skills in children by controlling the amount of instruction and type of feedback provided. In these contexts, children participate in drill-type activities monitored by adults and get immediate feedback from them (top left quadrant of the figure 1). This learning environment is called *rational* because of the systematic and logical nature of the activity. Coaches can also create a more emotional learning environment by trying to integrate enjoyment and fun into skill development practices. These activities are composed of enjoyable learning situations set up by adult(s). The goal of

these activities is to create fun learning situations in practice. Small-sided games or modified games are being example of these activities. (top right quadrant of the figure 1). Child-led activities can create two learning environments. Creative learning occurs when children play sport purely for enjoyment in an informal environment. The rules of the games are adapted by children to fit the environment (bottom right quadrants of the figure 1). Children can also create an informal learning environment that maintains a low external pressure atmosphere for deliberate play but it is directed towards specific skill development (bottom left quadrants of the figure 1) (Côté, Erickson, Abernethy, 2013)

The learning environments are created by social contexts in which different types of activities take place. Each environment has a unique interaction with the others and results in different learning and motivational outcomes. In line with Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory, all of these activities and learning environments provide children with rich learning opportunities (Côté, Ericsson, and Abernathy, 2013).

Organized youth sports activities occur in an environment structured by coaches. Coaches and other adults in the youth sports context sometimes promote certain types of activities at the expense of other developmental opportunities for children. The coaches may design practice activities to develop sport-specific skills, but a combination of different types of activities (as previously described) is what allows participants to improve in all dimensions of their development. However, studies have indicated that practice activities in youth sports contexts are not consistent with the findings of research in sport literature. Therefore, an analysis of practice activities in the youth sport contexts may be able to identify the quality and appropriateness of real-world situations.

2.3. Practice Activities and Time Using in the Youth Sports Setting

The question of how coaches should structure their practices to best facilitate youth development is still important in the areas of motor learning, skill acquisition, and expert performance.

Coaches often try to design attractive practice activities to increase the attentions of participants. Practice engagement is the most important way for skill acquisition and expert performance to be developed. To improve sport specific skills and performance, practices are composed of several sections. For instance, coaches typically break down their practices into five sections generally, practices start warm-up activities and continue with skills works, team strategies, and offensive/ defensive scrimmage plays, and

end with cool down activities. This structure is the basic planning strategy for youth team sports. Coaches structured their practice activities for each sections to improve performance based on the age and skill levels of players.

Traditionally, coaches structured their practice activities with drill type micro-activities to develop sport specific techniques, skills, and performance. In these drill type micro-activities, participants practiced pre-determined drills in an isolated environment with limited or no opposition. The idea underpinning this approach was that skills must be broken into smaller parts during acquisition to gain most benefit (Schmidt & Wrisberg, 2008). This approach emphasized that a skill or set of skills become partially automatic in nature through repetitive practice first. After participants had gained the basic techniques or skills then coaches allowed the participants to practice the same drills with opposition in a game like environment (Williams & Hodges, 2005).

The traditional way of drill-type practice activities can be explained by the deliberate practice theory proposed by Ericsson, Krample, and Tesch-Römer (1993). The deliberate practice approach and its impact on the development of expert performance gained much attention from researchers and the public. According to theory, deliberate practice should be goal directed, challenging, effortful, and requires rewards to develop key aspects of performance (Ericsson et al., 1993). The theoretical framework of deliberate practice explains how deliberate practice improves performance and the attainment of expertise in three steps. First, the amount of time invested for a specific activity is correlated to the attained performance. Second, good instructors (e.g., teachers, and coaches) and suitable facilities optimize the performance. Third, individuals who participate in deliberate practice rate the activities as more relevant for improving performance, more effortful, and less enjoyable.

There are several studies that have analyzed deliberate practice theory in sports by systematic observation (Deakin & Cobley, 2003; Deakin, Starkes, & Allard, 1998; Starkes, 2000). These studies examined the microstructures of practice activities by using video analysis and time use analysis. The results of these studies revealed some interesting findings about athlete development. Deakin et al.'s (1998) research investigated the role of deliberate practice in the development of wrestling expertise. Participants of the study were composed of four groups of wrestlers with varying skills, and competition levels (club level or national level). The researchers coded practice activities into four categories; practice alone, practice with others, activities related to the sport specific, and everyday activities not related to the sport domain.

Athletes were asked to estimate how many hours per week they spent on each activity at the beginning of their career and every three years. Athletes also rated the activities into four criteria: performance improvement, effort required (physical work), concentration required (mental work), and enjoyment experienced. Interestingly, the findings were not consistent with Ericsson's deliberate practice. Participants did not rate all activities as highly relevant to performance and low in enjoyment. Wrestlers rated performance improvement activities (mat work practices) as more relevant for their development and reported more enjoyment when doing these activities. These findings indicated that practice sessions were composed of different types of activities and just some micro-activities include deliberate practice activities. This suggestion is consistent with Starkes' (2000) study, which examined deliberate practice in team and individual sports. Starkes (2000) reported that athletes spend more time in less relevant activities and less time in more relevant activities for their performance. Similarly, Deakin et al. (1998) indicated that there was a negative correlation between the activities athletes deemed most relevant for improving their performance and the allocated time in activities deemed to have low relevance to their performance. Although the elite wrestlers in the Deakin et al. study perceived mat work as important for improving performance, they allocated limited time for mat work activities (e.g., 8.5% of practice time was spent in mat work activities).

In addition to this valuable knowledge, studies also indicated that team sports performance was dependent not only on acquisition of several motor skills, but also on perceptual motor skills (Williams & Ward, 2007). The development of perceptual-cognitive skills can foster the ability to (a) use the visual system to extract relevant information from a performance context; (b) recognize situations easily in the performance context that are familiar with the practice environment; (c) recognize opponents movements early and predict team mates movements; and (d) make executive decisions about their teammates and opponents' plays (Williams & Ford, 2008). Developing perceptual, cognitive, and motor skills, and fostering interaction is difficult with only drill-type activities. Practice activities that replicate match-play situations provide a good opportunity for players to develop perceptual motor skills. However, the challenge is in how coaches design practices to promote both physical skill and perceptual-cognitive developments appropriate for their participants' ages and skill levels.

Ford and colleagues (2010) designed a new classification system to analyze the practice activities in which athletes engage during practice and allocated time use in different type of activities. In this method recorded

videos are analyzed, and then observed activities are categorized based on their type and allocated time for each type of activities. This coding system help researchers to understand how coaches plan their practice activities regarding athletes' ages, skill levels, and goal, and the findings allow researchers to compare other studies' findings. Ford et.al. (2010) classified practice activities as training form and playing form. Training form activities were defined as activities that were practiced in isolation or in small groups without a game play context, such as an opponent. Training form activities included fitness activities (i.e., warm-up, conditioning, cool-down, and all activities without a ball), technique practice and skill practice. Playing form activities were defined as activities that replicated game related situations, plays with teammates and opponents. Playing form activities include phase of play activities, conditioned games and small-sided games.

With this classification, Ford and colleagues (2010) examined the relationship between coaching behaviors and type of practice activities in elite youth soccer by time-use analysis. In total, 70 practice sessions were analyzed across U9, U13, and U16 youth soccer teams, and three different skill groups (elite, intermediate, and recreational teams). The activities were grouped as training form and playing form. The results indicated that two thirds of the practice time was spent in training form activities, and patterns of practices tended not to change as a function of age or skills of players (Ford et al., 2010).

Although, this classification was originally developed for the categorization of football practices, there are studies conducted for other sports that used the Ford et.al. (2010) classification. Low et al. (2013) examined the types of practice activities with in child and adolescent recreational and elite cricket players and they classified training and playing form activities and their durations. The combined results indicated that players spent 69% of their times in training form activities. Specifically, recreational players spent approximately half of their time in playing form activities, whereas the elite group spent no or little time in playing form activities.

These studies stressed that playing form activities during practice increased the likelihood that perceptual, cognitive, and motor skills would be transferred in to match-play when compared with training form activities. However, training form activities provided less fewer opportunities to integrate and transfer perceptual, cognitive, and motor skills (Ford et al., 2010; Low et al., 2013).

Basketball is a team sport and has similar training patterns with soccer in terms of player development. However, the playing and training form

activities have not been investigated in the youth basketball setting, and the amount of engagement in these activities during practice is unknown.

Some leading studies related to the practice activities and time use in practice activities were listed and explained in Table 1.

2.4. Coaching Behaviors

Coaching has been regarded as a teaching experience (Selby, 2009). Coaches spend their time teaching physical skills and strategies, motivating players, correcting players' errors, and developing athlete confidence. Thus, teaching-learning activities are considered to be the most important part of coaches' roles, like teachers (Tinning, 1982). The teaching roles of coaches emphasized in several studies. First, descriptions were made by Tharp and Gilmore (1976), who investigated the practices of master teacher, basketball coach John Wooden in their study. Coach Wooden described his role of teacher as "...*running a practice session as the same as the teaching in English class.*" (Tharp & Gallimore, 1976). Côté et al. (1995) define the role of coaches in their qualitative study on expert gymnastic coaches with stating that "...*like teachers, the coaches' job is transmit and transform a collective body of knowledge and skills on a given subject in order to help athletes acquire and use that knowledge in various situations*". In addition to Côté et al., Selby's (2009) study was explained coaches' role with parallel statements. A coach in Selby's study explained his role as "*a coach is just a teacher, and your responsibility is to teach the youngsters under your supervision how to take and execute the best of their born ability...*"

Table 1: Recent studies about practice activities and time use analysis

| Author (Year) | Purpose | Participants | Method & Data Collection | Findings |
|--------------------------------------|---|---|--|---|
| Ford, Yates & Williams (2010) | Examination of practice activities and coach behaviors. | 25 youth soccer coach 70 practice session | Systematic observation. ASUOI, practice activity analysis (Training form, playing form) | Instructional behaviors of coaches most observed category. The frequency and durations of training form of activities higher than playing form activities. |
| Low, Willams, McRobert & Ford (2013) | Examination of types of practice activities in recreational and elite level children cricket context. | 5 elite children team 6 elite adolescent team 6 recreational children team 7 recreational adolescent team. | Systematic observation. Practice activity analysis (training form, playing form) | Players spent more time for training form activities (69%) than playing form activities. |
| Partington, Cushion (2013) | Investigation of coach behaviors of elite soccer coaches in different practice settings. | 11 male professional youth soccer coaches working with an England Football Association Premier League Centre of Excellence. | Systematic observation. Modified version of ASUOI and practice activity observation. | Coaches use more training form activity than playing form activity and exhibit more prescriptive instruction. |

Systematic observation methodology has been accepted as one of most useful method for understanding the effectiveness of teachers and coaches (Darst, Mancini, & Zakrajsek, 1983). Systematic observation is defined as “... a method that allows a trained person following stated guidelines and procedures to observe, record and analyze interactions with the assurance that others viewing same sequence of events would agree with his or her recorded data”

(Bloom, Crumpton, & Anderson, 1999). Formerly, this point of view was accepted and widely used in education, including within the physical education field, where it was used to objectively observe coaching behaviors (Claxton, 1988; Lacy & Darst, 1985). Behavioral analysis that emerged in physical education provided valuable knowledge in regard to quality of teaching/instruction behaviors of coaches. Following innovations to the measurement of teaching behaviors, researchers developed models and instruments to evaluate the effects of coaching behaviors and leaderships on athletes (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978; Martin & Barnes, 1999; Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977). Although there are some criticisms in support of qualitative approaches for examining coaching behaviors, systematic observation methodology is still one of the most accepted evidence based guidelines for analyzing of coaching behaviors (Potrac, Jones, & Cushion, 2007). More and Franks (1996) strongly suggested that teaching/learning activities facilitated by coaches could be examined by a systematic analysis of coaching behaviors. Therefore, many of the observation systems developed for analyzing coaching behaviors and several studies have provided valuable knowledge about coaching behaviors in a variety of sport settings and resulted in the production of many research papers that illuminate different aspects of coaching.

The vast amount of coaching behavior studies have focused on performance sports setting and explain which behaviors effective coaches engage in. To find the best answer for this question, researchers have conducted studies in the world of performance sports. The initial attempts to analyze the behaviors of performance sport coaches started with Tharp and Gilmore's (1976) study examining coach John Wooden during practice. The researcher used a conventional approach by establishing categories that captured events and behaviors; they observed Wooden across 15 practice sessions during his final season coaching at the University of California Los Angeles (UCLA), using the Coaching Behavior Recording Form (CBRF) (Tharp & Gilmore, 1976). With this instrument, Tharp and Gilmore coded Wooden's coaching behaviors. The CBRF instrument is composed of 10 behavior categories and these categories are follows: instructions, hustles, modeling-positive, modeling-negative, praises, scolds, non-verbal punishment, non-verbal reinstruction, scold reinstruction, other, and uncodable. The categories in the CBRF are similar to those of other instruments used in classroom settings to assess teaching effectiveness. After eight observations of Wooden's practices, Tharp and Gilmore (1976) refined the categories and added two extra behavior categories to the CBRE. The first addition was "scold reinstruction" which represented criticism followed instantly by instruction on 'how to do

it right'. The second addition was "hustle reinstruction" which represented verbal reinforcement practice intensity.

The results of Tharp and Gilmore's (1976) study indicated that the instruction (50.3%) and hustle (12.7%) categories were found to be the most frequently observed coaching behaviors. Instructional behaviors composed half of Wooden's coaching techniques, which means Wooden frequently delivered instruction to his players in attempts to communicate 'what they needed to do' and 'how they needed to do it' during practice. As the second most observed behaviors were hustle statements which used for increasing and maintaining the motivation during practice. This study has been accepted as a landmark of coaching behaviors research.

After Tharp and Gilmore's CBRF, many researchers modified the instrument and evolved its categories for use in systematic observations of behaviors in coaching and teaching settings (Claxton, 1988; Lacy & Darst, 1985). Langsdorf (1976) added two other descriptive categories in to the instrument and expanded the observation tool to analyses different parts of the practices (Langsdorf, 1976). With a modified version of the systematic observation tool, Langsdorf observed the behaviors of the Arizona State University football team head coach Frank Kush. Similar to Langsdorf, there were several modified versions of the CBRF used for coaching behaviors studies (Dodds & Rife, 1981; Model, 1983). For instance, Smith, Smoll and Curtis (1979) observed little league baseball coaches; Lacy and Darst (1985) observed a group of high school football coaches; Claxton (1988) observed a group of high school tennis coaches; Côté et al. (1995) observed a group of expert gymnastics coaches, and Gilbert and Trudel (2000) observed a university hockey coach.

With empirical research derived from Tharp and Gilmore's (1976) CBRF instrument for Coach Wooden, Lacy and Darst (1984a) developed the Arizona State University Observation Instrument (ASUOI). This research expanded and modified the instruction category in the ASUOI to make the instrument sensitive enough to collect more specific data on coaches' instructional behaviors. Finally, the ASUOI consisted of 13 behavioral categories representing three general types of coaching behaviors: instructional behaviors (pre-instruction, concurrent instruction, post instruction, questioning, physical assistance, positive modeling and negative modeling), non-instructional modeling (hustle, praise, scold, management and other) and dual codes (use first name). The face validity of the ASUOI was satisfied because the categories were specifically defined and strongly related to coaching behaviors. The content validity was also satisfied because

the behavior categories were derived from empirical researches and were representative of coaching behaviors (Lacy & Darst, 1984a).

After the development of the ASUOI, several investigations were conducted using the instrument. Rupert and Buschner (1989) compared the instructional behaviors of educators engaged in the dual roles of teaching high school physical education and coaching baseball using the ASUOI. The researchers found five significant differences in the 13 behavior categories (Rupert and Buschner 1989). Among all coaching behaviors, pre-instruction, praise and silence were most observed behaviors and the number of teaching behaviors were greater than the other behavior categories of ASUOI (Rupert & Buschner, 1989). Claxton (1988) analyzed the coaching behaviors of nine more and less successful high school boys' tennis coaches during practice sessions. The results of the study showed that the more successful coaches asked a significantly higher number of questions to their players than the less successful coaches. Moreover, combined data indicated that tennis coaches exhibited more instructional behaviors than any other behavior category on the ASUOI (Claxton, 1988).

However, while various studies have been undertaken to increase knowledge about the systematic analysis of coaching, there has been little research done to analyze basketball coaches' practice behaviors. After nearly two decades since Tharp and Gilmore's study, Bloom et al. (1999) conducted a study to investigate the practice behaviors of Coach Jerry Tarkanian, coach of the NCAA Division I California State University basketball team with 26 years of experience (Bloom, Crumpton, & Anderson, 1999). Tarkanian had an incredible win/loss record (667/145). Bloom and colleagues observed Tarkanian 10 times during the 1996-1997 season and used a revised version of CBRE. The revised form of the CBRE was composed of 12 behavioral categories 10 of which were related to instructional behaviors and two were related to '*humor*' and '*uncodable*' behaviors. The results of the study indicated that the most observed coaching behavior was found as tactical instruction (29%), and followed by hustle (16%). After the observations, Bloom et al. (1999) conducted an interview with Tarkanian that revealed Tarkanian deliberately focused on teaching offensive and defensive strategies to his team during the practice. As a conclusion of this study, the researchers stressed that coaching behaviors were specific to the context in which the coach worked and effective coaches recognized and tailored their behaviors to the needs of their athlete (Bloom et al., 1999).

Another study that investigated coaching behavior within the elite basketball context was conducted by Becker and Wrisberg (2008), who

observed the winningest basketball coach in NCAA Division I history, Pat Summitt. Becker and Wrisberg observed Summitt six times while she was coaching the University of Tennessee women's basketball team during the 2004-2005 season. The ASUOI was used as an observation tool to analyze the coach's behaviors during practice. The results of the study indicated that 48% of Summitt's behaviors were instructional behaviors, and followed by praise (14.5%). The most frequently exhibited instructional behavior was concurrent instruction –which is delivered to athletes while they are engaged in a skilled activity. Price was second frequently exhibited coaching behavior, and it was often given as positive feedback and served to promote the behaviors that she expected from her team (Becker & Wrisberg, 2008). There is a database for elite performance coaching behaviors, on the contrary, there is limited information about youth sports coaches.

Coaching behavior research in Turkey has generally focused on coaches' leadership behaviors and the relationships of these behaviors with psychological outcome variables such as motivational climate. Toros (2010) conducted a study with elite youth male basketball player and investigated the relationship between perceived coach behaviors, goal orientations, team cohesion, perceived motivational climate, and collective efficacy among youth basketball players before and after the Turkish national championship. The results of the study indicated that before the tournament, task orientation, autocratic behaviors, and social support behaviors were significantly related, however, after the tournament, mastery climate, and training and instruction were revealed to have a statistically significant relationship (Toros, 2010)

Another study was conducted that showed a relationship between perceived coaching behavior and achievement motivation in elite soccer players (Soyer, Sari, & Talaghir, 2014). In detail, the findings indicated that there was a significant correlation between soccer players' education levels and achievement motivation, moreover, training and instruction behaviors were significantly correlated with achievement motivation (Soyer et al., 2010).

Toros, Türksoy, and Doğaner (2013) conducted a study to compare the perceived leadership behaviors of coaches with athlete motivation based on athlete experience. The researchers used the Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS) to 411 youth basketball coaches. The results of the analyses showed that the experiences of the coaches appears to be important for leadership and intrinsic motivation (Toros et al., 2013). Sari, Soyer and Yiğiter (2012) conducted a study that was also related to perceived leadership behaviors.

In this study researchers examined the relationship between perceived coach leadership behaviors, communication skills, and satisfaction of basic psychosocial needs among physical education students. The results of the study showed that positive feedback, training and instructional behaviors, and social support were significantly correlated with athletes' communication skills (Sarı, et al., 2012).

These current studies represent the trends in coaching research in Turkey. The coaching studies in Turkey are generally survey based and evaluate the coaches' leadership behaviors from the athletes' perspectives. Although one of the best objective methods for measuring coaching behaviors is the systematic observation method, the number of studies that analyzed coaching behaviors by using systematic observation is limited. Some leading studies related to coaching behaviors were listed and explained in Table 2.

Although there are newly developed instruments for measure coaching behaviors, it is beneficial to use well-known and widely used systematic observation systems, such as the ASUOI, allows to researcher the ability to compare the results of their studies with previous findings. Although the ASUOI is a relatively old observation tool for coding and analyzing coaching behaviors, it is still used in several studies currently

Table 2: Studies about coach behaviors

| Author (Year) | Purpose | Participants | Method & Data Collection | Findings |
|----------------------------|--|------------------------|--|--|
| Tharp & Gilmore (1976) | Investigation of coach John Wooden's teaching behaviors | Coach John Wooden | Systematic observation, Coaching behavior recording form | Instructional behaviors composed half of the Wooden's coaching behaviors |
| Claxton (1988) | Systematic analysis of more and less successful high school boys' tennis coaches' behaviors during practice sessions. | 9 coaches | Arizona State University Observation Instrument. | More successful coaches asked a significantly greater number of questions of their players than did the less successful coaches. The tennis coaches demonstrated more instructional behaviors than any other behavior |
| Rupert & Buschner, (1989) | Comparison of the instructional behaviors of educators who were engaged in the dual role of teaching high education and coaching baseball. | 9 Teacher/Coach | Arizona State University Observation Instrument. | Coaching behaviors were greater for pre-instruction, praise, and silence. Teaching behaviors were greater for the categories of management and the category "other." |
| Bloom et al. (1999) | Analysis of the teaching behaviors and verbal cues of basketball coach Jerry Tarkanian. | Coach Jerry Tarkanian. | Arizona State University Observation Instrument. | Most exhibited behavior category was Tactical instruction. It was followed by hustle and technical instruction. |
| Becker and Wisberg (2008). | Systematically examination of the practice behaviors of Pat Summitt. | Coach Pat Summitt | Arizona State University Observation Instrument. | The most frequent behavior was instruction and followed by praise and hustle |

2.5. Psychological athletic outcomes

2.5.1. Enjoyment and burnout in youth sports.

Enjoyment is one of the most important key factors for motivated behavior and sustained participation in sport (Scanlan & Simons, 1992; Scanlan, Carpenter, Lobel, & Simons, 1993; Weiss, Kimmel, & Smith, 2001).

According to Weiss and Williams (2004), there are three reasons why youth participate in sport. First reason is physical competence. By participating in sports, youth want to improve their general motor skills and sport-specific skills to achieve their goals. The second reason is social acceptance. Youth enjoy making new friends, and sharing a team atmosphere. The third reason is enjoyment. Youth want to participate in sport activities to release energy and experience excitement (Weiss & Williams, 2004). These factors demonstrate the complexity of youth sports contexts, which contain both individual (enjoyment) and environmental (coaching behaviors and practice activities) factors, and are - important for understanding youth sport participation (Weiss & Williams, 2004). These findings support the importance of enjoyment in youth sports settings.

As stated, enjoyment is an integral part of sport motivation and recognized as a primary reason for initiating and maintaining an involvement in sports (Scanlan et al., 1993; Weiss, 2000) and is regarded as a major motivation theories such as achievement goal theory (Nicholls, 1989), competence motivation theory (Harter, 1980), and the sport commitment model (Scanlan, et al., 1993)

Enjoyment has been researched in numerous studies with youth participants. Scanlan, Stein, and Ravizza (1989) conducted a study with elite figure skaters and found that those who enjoyed their participation in skating reported a higher degree of effort than those who enjoyed it less. According to Scanlan et al. (1989), a significant predictor of sport enjoyment was the degree of perceived effort and the mastery of skills regardless of the skill levels of the athletes. Positive peer and coach relations, and support from coaches and peers were also reported as factors related to increased enjoyment in sport (Scanlan, et al., 1993). Therefore, the relationship between enjoyment and personal development is positively correlated (MacDonald et al., 2011). An increase in the enjoyments of participants suggests there will be an increase in the development of positive personal development. Although it is difficult to measure enjoyment in the sports context (Côté, Ericsson, & Law, 2005), it is a crucial indicator of sports experiences and important in understanding youth sport participation (Wiersma, 2001).

Contrarily, the concept of burnout is accepted as a negative consequence of sport participation. As stated, burnout is described as withdrawal from an activity that was previously enjoyable because of stress or dissatisfaction (Smith, 1986). and extended to mean a psychological condition associated with feelings of emotional or physical exhaustion, a reduced sense of accomplishment, and sport devaluation (Raedeke, 1997).

There has been several burnout research studies conducted with athletes from different sports (Coakley, 1992; Gould, Tuffey, Udry, & Loehr, 1996; Schmidt & Stein, 1991). The findings of these studies suggested that sociological, psychological, and training factors may lead to burnout in youth and adult athletes. The factors that may cause burnout in youth sport settings have been categorized into three groups. The first factor is overload, which include overstress, overtraining and staleness. This factor is the most known factor leading to burnout. The second factor is social climate, including pressure from parents, negative coaching behaviors, feeling trapped in sport participation, and lack of personal control. Finally, the third factor is personality including trait anxiety, weak coping skills, negative perfectionism, obsessive passion, and unidimensional identity.

Considering all sport contexts, Raedeke (1997) described physical and emotional exhaustion as a consequence of intense training and competition (overload factors), a reduced sense of accomplishment as a consequence of feeling unable to achieve personal goals or performing below expectations (personality factors), and sport devaluation as a consequence of loss of interest or resentment toward performance and the sport (social climate factor).

Although the reasons and outcomes of burnout and enjoyment have been supported and relationships between developmental experiences theorized in several studies, the connection between developmental experiences and sport outcomes (enjoyment and burnout) have not been tested in participation and performance youth basketball settings. (Côté, 2007; Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005; Petitpas et al., 2005).

2.5.2. Positive youth development through sports

Sport participation is seen as a way of developing physical and psychological skills in all ages of children. Moreover, organized sports activities have been regarded as one of the best settings to foster positive youth development (PYD) (Fredricks & Eccles, 2006). PYD development through sports is considered a framework and has received attention over the past two decades. As stated, the PYD approach suggests that all children

and youth have the potential to develop in a positive manner should be approached as such. The PYD framework helps us to understand, educate, and engage children in more productive activities than to correct, cure, or threaten them for maladaptive activities (Damon, 2004b).

One of the biggest barriers to the investigation of PYD through sport is a lack of a psychometrically valid instruments for use in the youth sport settings (Gould & Carson, 2008; Holt & Jones, 2007). To overcome this deficiency, Hansen and Larson (2005) developed the Youth Experience Survey (YES) to measure youth experiences across a range of structured activities. The YES was designed for determining experiences of youth who were participating in different structured activities including fine arts, academic clubs, community organizations, and sport among others. Hansen, Larson and Dworkin. (2003) and Larson et al. (2006) conducted studies to investigate how these different structured activities affected developmental experiences. The findings of both studies indicated that sport participation was linked to a mixture of positive and negative experiences. Specifically, sport participants reported more positive experiences when they spent more time in the activity, participated more frequently, and had higher motivation levels. (Hansen et al., 2003; Larson et al., 2006).

Although it is not specifically developed for sports, the YES has been used within that context (Strachan, Côté, & Deakin, 2009). Strachan (2009) examined the differences between two groups of athletes in the sampling and specialization stages of their development. Discriminant function analysis results showed that specialization athletes had more diverse peer relationships than sampling athletes. However, sampling athletes had higher rates of integration with family and linkages to community than specialization athletes (Strachan et al., 2009).

These studies indicated that YES has the flexibility to measure developmental experiences in different settings (e.g., performance arts and sports) but is not as good at capturing specific settings of youth experiences. Finally, MacDonald, Côté, Eys, and Deakin (2012) modified YES to sport specific-contexts and created Youth Experiences Survey for Sport (YES-S). The YES-S has been proposed as an instrument capable of measuring positive and negative developmental experiences occurring in the youth sports settings.

There are studies focused on the relationship between PYD and intrapersonal, factors such as motivational climate. However, Hansen et al. (2003) and Larson et al. (2006) indicated that as the youth spend more time in an activity, the more possibility exists for the development

of positive experiences. The authors also advocated that further research is needed to assess whether more time in an organized activity may have detrimental effects on personal development (Hansen et al., 2003; Larson et al., 2006). Accordingly, it is assumed that the time spent in connection with environmental factors in structured activities may affect the positive and negative developmental experiences in youth sports.

2.6. Rationale of the study

During the progression from novice to elite performance or to recreational participation, practice activities and coaching behaviors should be consistent with the progressions of athletes development (Côté, Baker, et al., 2007). Current trends in youth sport are to specialize children and adolescents in one sports more than another. The trend is normal for sports that traditionally developed younger elite athletes such as gymnastics and figure skating. However, sports in which early specialization is not needed, such as basketball, have also been developing this trend in youth athletes at earlier ages because of possibilities for recognition and financial reward (Gould & Carson, 2004). Overly structured, competitive, and adult driven aspects of organized sports can lead to negative outcomes such as early exclusion of late maturing athletes and the increased prevalence of overuse injuries, decreased enjoyment, burnout, and dropout.

Therefore, the present study examined the practice activities, coaching behaviors, and athletes' psychosocial outcomes in basketball schools and the club team youth sport contexts.

Table 3: Studies about enjoyment, burnout and positive youth development in youth sport.

| Author (Year) | Purpose | Participants | Method & Data Collection | Findings |
|---|--|---|--------------------------------|---|
| Scanlan, Stein and Ravizza (1989) | Examination sources of enjoyment in elite figure skaters. | 26 former national championship competitors. | Qualitative Interview | Findings emerged four major sources of enjoyment. These are social and life opportunities, perceived competence, social recognition of competence and the act of skating. |
| Scanlan, Carpenter, Lobel & Simons (1993) | Understanding sources of enjoyment and motivational consequences in youth and elite sport. | 1342 youth sport participant from various sport, age, gender and ethnicity. | Questionnaire | The significant sources of enjoyment was found as effort to be master in sport, positive team interactions, positive coach support and interaction. |
| Coakley, (1992) | Explanation of burnout among youth athletes | 15 adolescent athletes | Qualitative Interview | Social factors such as coach and family can cause burnout among youth athletes. |
| Gould, Tuffey, Udry, & Loehr, (1996) | Examination of burnout in competitive junior tennis player | 30 burnout junior tennis player and 32 competitive tennis player | Quantitative Questionnaire | Although variety of personal and situational predictors of burnout, perfectionism plays an important role for burnout. |
| Schmidt & Stein, (1991) | Analysis of previous models that overlooked youth sport Enjoyment burnout and dropout. | Systematic analysis of models. | Qualitative Literature Review. | Development of sport commitment model to analyze the factors that influence continued sport participation |

Table 3 (Cont.): Studies about positive youth development in sport

| Author (Year) | Purpose | Participants | Method & Data Collection | Findings |
|--------------------------------|---|--|---|--|
| Larson et al. (2006) | Examination of the association between a variety of measures of extracurricular participation and indicators of youth development. | 864 children in grades 7 through 12. Their teachers and parents. | Mix design Longitudinal study | Findings showed that greater involvement in extracurricular activities is associated with academic adjustment, psychological competencies, and a positive peer context. The results were strongest for the oldest group of youth. |
| Larson, Hansen & Moneta (2006) | Analysis of developmental and negative experiences that youth encounter in different categories of extracurricular and community based organizational activities. | 2280 11 th graders from 19 diverse high school. | Cross-sectional study Questionnaire. | Youth in faith-based activities reported higher rates of experiences related to identity, emotional regulation, and interpersonal development in comparison with other activities. Sports and arts programs stood out as providing more experiences related to development of initiative, although sports were also related to high stress. Service activities were associated with experiences related to development of teamwork, positive relationships, and social capital. Youth reported all of these positive development |
| (Strachan et al., 2009) | Examination of similarities and differences of samplers and specializers regarding personal development and sport outcomes | 74 youth athletes. | Cross-sectional study Questionnaire | Findings indicated that the "specializers" group reported higher levels of physical/emotional exhaustion than did the "samplers" group. They also reported more experiences related to diverse peer groups. |
| Hansen Larson & Dworkin (2003) | Analysis of reports on different developmental and negative experiences in organize youth activities and community based activities. | 450 high school students | Cross-sectional study Questionnaire | Different youth activities offer distinct patterns of learning experiences. Service, Faith-based, community, and vocational activities were reported to be frequent context for experiences related to identity work and emotional development. |

Methodology

The purpose of this section is to describe the methodologies utilized in this dissertation. The dissertation is composed of two research studies. Study 1 is about practice activities, time use preferences for specific activities, and systematic observations of basketball coaches' behaviors in both basketball school and club team youth basketball contexts. Study 2 is about the comparison of basketball school and club team youth basketball contexts players' developmental experiences, enjoyment, and burnout levels. For each study, the study design, selection of participants, data collection instruments and procedures, observer trainings, issues of validity and reliability, and data analysis are explained in detail.

3.1. Study 1: Analysis of youth basketball practice activities, time use, and coaching behaviors in basketball school and club team contexts.

3.1.1. Introduction.

Coaching an athletic team at any level is generally seen as a teaching experience. Coaches spend their time and energy helping their athletes develop the physical, social, and psychological skills necessary to perform in sports competition and for their social lives. While developing, athletes learn valuable information from their coaches and peers, thus this, teaching and learning process should be considered as a pedagogical process (Jones, 2007; Tinning, 1982). The central components of this pedagogical process are the coaches' instructional behaviors exhibited during practice settings and activities in which coaches and athletes take part (Ford et al., 2010).

There have been numerous developmental models proposed to understand the progression of youth development in sports using different pathways (e.g., elite or recreation). One of the most prominent athlete development models is the developmental model of sport participation (DMSP) (Côté, 1999; Côté, Baker & Abernethy, 2007). The DMSP provides a framework to understand appropriate conditions for each developmental trajectory. Using this classification, appropriate coaching behaviors and practice activities can be determined. After the sampling years, there are two trajectory options for participants in the DMSP. One is recreational years and the other is specializations years. Each context requires different coaching and practice activities. Coaches' behaviors and practice activities during the practice sessions in each context provide information about how the teaching and learning processes are facilitated.

In recent times, there has been an increase in knowledge about coaching behaviors and types of practice activities in different sports contexts (Farrow, Baker & MacMahon, 2013; Williams & Hodges, 2005). However, few studies have been published that focused on how or whether coaches use the principles highlighted in the literature in their practices (Ford et al., 2010).

3.1.2. Study Design

A naturalistic observation approach was used to understand youth basketball coaching behaviors and practice activities in basketball schools and the club team contexts. Naturalistic observation refers to the collection of data without manipulation of the environment. In Naturalistic Observation, researchers make no effort to manipulate variables to control the activities of individuals in the specific settings. Researchers in naturalistic observation simply observe and record what happens as things naturally occur and may produce either quantitative or qualitative data (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Often, observations are coded into numerical form, such as counting the number of times a particular behavior occurs and analyzed quantitatively. After the analysis, the researcher summarizes the proportions of the observed behaviors into results.

Systematic observation was chosen as a method to determine the displayed coaching behaviors and practice activities during training sessions. In this study, interval coding techniques were used for obtaining coaching behaviors, and the hand-notation technique was used to analyze the practice activities of basketball schools and club teams.

3.1.3. Selection of coaches

Participants of the study included eight male basketball coaches in the Ankara region of Turkey. All of them coached in the youth male basketball settings. All coaches were selected using purposive convenience sampling. The selection criteria were to be coaching in youth basketball setting, experience in their coaching context, popularity and success of their teams and clubs in their leagues, and popularity of the basketball schools, such as the number of children participating in the basketball schools.

After examination of the Ankara basketball junior league coaches' and before the start of the junior male basketball league season, 10 coaches were contacted, and the purpose and procedure of the study were introduced. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with all 10 coaches to determine the sample coaches' appropriateness and willingness to complete the study. Finally, eight youth basketball coaches were selected who met the study inclusion criteria. The procedures and purposes of the study (i.e., your coaching practices will be videotaped and analyzed) were subsequently explained to coaches, and their consent to participate was received. All coaches agreed to the procedures and purposes of the study. Four of the coaches were coaching in a basketball school, and four were coaching club youth basketball teams.

All coaches in the study had accredited coaching licenses from the Turkish Basketball Federation at the C class or above. All coaches had graduated from university, but only two coaches had graduated from physical education and sports departments. One of the physical education experts coached in the club team context, and the other coached in the basketball school. All coaches were working as head coaches of their teams and groups and had 3 or more years of experience in their current coaching positions.

The mean age of the four coaches in the basketball schools context was $M = 34.00 \pm 2.65$ years, and mean experience of the coaches was $M = 8.17 \pm 3.06$ years. The number of children participating in the basketball schools' trainings was between 19 and 21. All training sessions were one hour long and all training sessions were conducted at on the weekends.

The mean age of the four club team coaches was $M = 32.33 \pm 3.21$ years, and mean experience was $M = 8.41 \pm 3.53$ years. The number of children participating in the club teams' trainings was between 12 and 14. These coaches had three or four training sessions a week, and each training session was 90 minutes.

3.1.4. Data Collection Instruments and Systems:

3.1.4.1. System of Analysis of Practice Activities and Time Use.

An adapted hand-notation coding form was used for recording the type and duration of practice activities. The two main practice activities and categories were adapted from Ford et al. (2010). Originally, Ford and colleagues developed analysis categories for practice activities in youth soccer. The coding form was composed of two sections. Section one included the start and end time of each activity to determine its duration. Section two included the type of activity (i.e., training vs. game simulation) and categories to determine the content of each type of activity (e.g., training/technique practice) and the number of activities during the practice sessions. In section one, start time is the beginning time of activity in practice and end time is last second of the duration of activity.

In Section one, start time was the beginning time of an activity during the practice, and end time was the last second of the activity duration. In Section two, the training activity represented activities practiced in isolation or in small groups, not including any game play. The training form activities were composed of fitness activities (i.e., warm-up, conditioning, and cool-down), technique practice (i.e., isolated drills for learning specific basketball technique), and skill practice (i.e., drills composed of a combination of techniques). Game simulation activities represented practices that replicated game-related situations containing teammates and opponents, such as small-sided games, conditional games, and phase of game. The sub-activities were considered representations of all activities in youth basketball settings. By using the hand-notation system, the type of sub-activity, start time, duration, and end time were recorded. (Table 4).

Table 4: Categories and definitions of basketball activities.

| Activity | Definition |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Training Form Activities | |
| Fitness | Improving fitness aspects of the game without a ball (i.e. warm-up, cool down, conditioning, rest). |
| Technical | Isolated technical skills unopposed alone or in a group. |
| Skill | Re-enacting isolated simulated game incidents with or without focus particular technical skills. |
| Playing Form Activities | |
| Small sided games | Match-play with reduced number of players in half court. |
| Conditioned games | As small sided games but with changed rules, goals of play. (i.e. passing games, ball possession games) |
| Phase of play | Uni-directional match-play games or tactics in half court. |

3.1.4.1.1 Issue of Validity and Reliability

Adaptations of observation categories created by Ford et al. (2010) to study the youth basketball context were performed under the consultation of three professional basketball coaches. All sub-categories of basketball activities were accepted when all consulted coaches were in agreement on the representativeness and appropriateness of the practice activities. This consensus served as the initial content and face validity of the systematic analysis hand-notation system for the basketball context. In addition to the face validity, a pilot study was conducted for intra-observer reliability. The lead observer randomly selected one basketball school training and one club team training from the data. The two training videos were watched, and systematic observations for parts one and two were completed. The lead observer included a two-week break to prevent memory bias. After two weeks, the observer analyzed the videos and noted the practice activities and time used in each activities again. The level of intra-observer agreement was calculated by using van der Mars (1989) equation ($\text{agreements} / (\text{agreements} + \text{disagreements}) \times 100$). Intra-observer agreement was calculated for basketball school training (96.3%) and for club team training (97.1%). The results of the intra-observer agreement calculation conformed to the level of 85% or more, which was recommended by Rushall (1977) and van der Mars (1989).

Table 5: Hand notation coding form for practice activities and time use

| Start Time | End time | Duration | Type of Activity | Categories | Definitions |
|--------------------|----------|----------|---------------------------|--------------------|---|
| Activity 1: | | | | | |
| | | | Training form Activity | Fitness Activities | Improving fitness aspects of the basketball without a ball (i.e. warm-up, cool down, conditioning, rest). |
| | | | | Technical practice | Isolated technical skills unopposed alone or in a group. |
| | | | | Skill practice | Re-enacting isolated simulated basketball incidents with or without focus particular technical skills. |
| | | | | Small sided games | Match-play with reduced number of players in half court. |
| | | | Playing Form Activity | Conditioned games | As small sided basketball games but with various to rules, goals of play. (i.e. passing games, ball possession games) |
| | | | | Phase of play | Basketball match play games or tactics in half or full court. |
| Activity2: | | | | | |
| | | | Training form Activity | Fitness Activities | Improving fitness aspects of the basketball without a ball (i.e. warm-up, cool down, conditioning, rest). |
| | | | | Technical practice | Isolated technical skills unopposed alone or in a group. |
| | | | | Skill practice | Re-enacting isolated simulated basketball incidents with or without focus particular technical skills. |
| | | | | Small sided games | Match-play with reduced number of players in half court. |
| | | | Playing Form Activity | Conditioned games | As small sided basketball games but with various to rules, goals of play. (i.e. passing games, ball possession games) |
| | | | | Phase of play | Basketball match play games or tactics in half or full court. |

3.1.4.2 Systematic Observation of Coach Behaviors

The ASUOI was used for the analysis of youth basketball coaching behaviors. ASUOI is a well-known and frequently used systematic observation instrument looking at coaching behavior and instruction in different sports contexts. ASUOI was an observational component of this study and used to describe and categorize behavioral information demonstrated by coaches in basketball schools and the club team male youth basketball coaching context.

The underpinning theory of ASUOI has its roots in the study by Flanders (1963). Flanders (1963) developed an original research tool to analyze instructional interactions by categorizing style and quantity of verbal dialogue to describe the quality of instructions that facilitated learning in the classroom. Later, Tharp and Gallimore's (1976) study of Coach Wooden further developed the tool by adding 10 categories. Next, Langsdorf's (1979) CBRF added two different categories, and coaching behaviors could then be summarized and interpreted by viewing different segments of a practice.

In light of these developments, the initial version of the ASUOI was developed by Lacy and Darst (1984b). The first version of the observation tool consisted of 10 coaching behavior categories. Later, Lacy and Darst (1989) added four behavioral categories, and the final version of the ASUOI was composed of a more detailed 14 categories for recording the behaviors of coaches. Seven of the categories were directly related to the instructional process (pre-instruction, concurrent instruction, post-instruction, questioning, physical assistance, positive modeling, and negative modeling), and the seven of other categories were called non-teaching behaviors (use of first name, hustle, praise, scold, management, silence, and other). These behavioral categories were used for assessment of the coaching behaviors in the specific coaching context. The categories can be seen in Table 6.

Table 6. Definitions of Arizona State University Observation Instrument Categories

| Behavior Codes | Descriptions |
|-------------------------------|--|
| Use of the first name | Using the first name or nickname when speaking directly to a player: "Nice pass, Hasan" or "Ali that was a poor tackle." |
| Pre-instruction | Initial information given to player(s) preceding the desired action to be executed. It explains how to execute a skill, play, strategy and so forth associated with the sport. |
| Concurrent instruction | Cues or reminders given during the actual execution of the skill or play. |
| Post-instruction | Correction, re-explanation, or instructional feedback given after the execution of the skill or play. |
| Questioning | Any question to player(s) concerning strategies, techniques, assignments, and so forth associated with the sport, for example, "What is your role on defensive?" or "What is the correct technique for taking a Chess pass?" |
| Physical assistance | Physically moving the player's body to the proper position or through the correct range of a motion of a skill, for example, guiding the player's arms and hands through the movement of a shooting technique in basketball. |
| Positive modelling | A demonstration of the correct performance of a skill or playing technique. |
| Negative modelling | A demonstration of the incorrect performance of a skill or playing technique. |
| Hustle | Verbal statements intended to intensify the efforts of the player(s), for example, "Run it out, run it out" or "Push yourself, push yourself". |
| Praise | Verbal or non-verbal compliments, statements, or signs of acceptance, for example, "Great goal" or a thumbs-up sign. |
| Scold | Verbal or non-verbal behaviors of displeasure, for example, "That was a terrible effort" or scowling. |
| Management | Verbal or non-verbal behaviors related to the organizational details of practice sessions not referring to strategies or fundamentals of the sport, for example, setting out cones or "Get into teams of five". |
| Silence | Periods of time when the subject is not talking, for example, when listening to a player, or monitoring activities. |
| Uncodable | Any behavior that cannot be seen or heard, or does not fit into the above categories, for example, checking injuries, joking with players, being absent from the practice setting, or talking with bystanders. |

3.1.5. Observer Training

At the beginning of the observation processes, researcher should be familiar the concepts and procedures involved in the systematic observation to ensure a thorough comprehension of the methodology employed. The reliability and objectivity of systematic observation depends on the appropriate training of observers. It is also recommended that if the researcher is familiar with the systematic observation process, they can critique the appropriateness of the instrument to the environment to be studied (Brewer & Jones, 2002).

The researcher was trained as an observer in the use hand notation coding form and in the use of ASOUI by following four-phase protocol described by Siedentop and Tannehill (2000). First of all, the observer studied the over the instruments' categories until they were clearly understood. Secondly, the observer had communication with other experts on understanding the definitions of each type of practice activities and coaching behavior. Third, the observer became familiar with the coding procedures of hand notation coding form and ASUOI by using coding sheet over and over again. Fourth, and finally, the observer practiced on Hand notation coding form and the ASUOI coding form with the video tapes (Siedentop & Tannehill, 2000).

At the fourth level of the Siedentop and Tannehill's four phase protocol, two basketball school and two club team youth basketball training were video recorded. These training videos were used for a pilot study. Since only one researcher conducted this study, the pilot study was conducted for training of the observer. This pilot study also give researcher to check the appropriateness of observation tool and video recording devices. Moreover, during the pilot study, validity and reliability of the Hand notation coding form and ASUOI were checked.

3.1.5.1 *The Issues of Validity and Reliability:*

The main purpose of any observation study is to gain data by accurately reflecting what happened in the teaching and learning environment. Any observation could be affected by internal and external factors, such as observer experiences, beliefs, and biases. Therefore, users of systematic observation tools should control (a) whether the systematic observation tool provides a valid reflection of the events and (b) whether the researcher can use that instrument reliably.

To ensure that the ASUOI was valid and reliable within the Turkish basketball schools and club team context, the pilot study was completed before the main study. In the pilot study, validity issues were controlled by checking face and content validity. For the issues of reliability, intra-observer and inter-observer reliability were checked. The procedure followed for validity and reliability is described in the following sections.

3.1.5.1.1. *Validity*

3.1.5.1.1.1. *Face Validity:* The rationale behind the determination of the behavior categories of ASUOI was based on previous research in coaching science. Selected behavior categories of ASUOI were representative of coaching behaviors in different sports settings, as supported by the coaching and teaching literature. To establish the face validity of the ASUOI in the youth basketball context, three experienced physical education and sports tutors and three coaches were consulted to confirm the clarity of definitions, inclusion of appropriate behavior categories, and relevance of the category set to exhibited coaching behaviors. The list of behaviors in the ASUOI was given to the experts (tutors and coaches), and they were asked to check the appropriateness of the behavioral categories in relation to real coaching behaviors. All experts advocated that the “use of the first name” subcategory could be removed because they had difficulty understanding the definition of this category. However, the experts were in agreement about the other categories, and face validity was satisfied.

3.1.5.1.1.2. *Content Validity:* Content validity examines the extent to which the measured variable appears to have adequately covered the full domain of the conceptual variable (Stangor, 2010). Lacy and Darst (1984) indicated that content validity in the ASUOI was confirmed through a literature review in the fields of athletic coaching, physical education, and teaching.

Before the pilot study was conducted, the ASUOI coding form and definitions of the ASUOI coaching categories were translated into Turkish

by the researcher. The translation was also controlled by an English language expert. After consensus between the researcher and English expert on the appropriateness of the translation, the translation of the ASUOI behavior codes were shared with the coaches to ensure that all definitions were understandable and clear. Consequently, content validity of the Turkish translation of ASUOI was satisfied. With the pilot study, the appropriateness of the behavioral categories of the ASUOI for the basketball schools and club teams was examined. The behaviors of two basketball school coaches and two club team coaches during the training were analyzed from video records.

3.1.5.1.2. Reliability

The reliability of the observations was obtained by intra-observer and inter observer agreement.

3.1.5.1.2.1. Intra-Observer Reliability: Intra-observer agreement refers to the percentage of agreement between recordings of same events at different times. For intra-observer reliability, an observer analyse the same events twice at different points in time, and percentage of agreement between the two times is calculated to indicate the ratio of agreement.; thus a record of events because is required for dual observation points to occur (van der Mars, 1989). Because only one researcher conducted this study, it was necessary to determine intra-observer reliability to ensure the objectivity of the study. For this process, four training sessions were videotaped during the pilot study: two from basketball schools and two from club teams. For this study, the researcher initially recorded the coaching sessions and then analyzed the videos by coding the observed coaching behaviors. To avoid memory influencing the scored data, a four week period was allowed to elapse before the researcher rescored the same coaching session (Darst, Zakrajsek, & Mancini, 1989).

Although there is no fully accepted minimum standard criteria for intra-observer agreement, the acceptable percentage (80%) for the intra-observer agreement for reliability was stated by Darst et al. (1989). The agreement was calculated as 93%. The level of agreement was indicated as strong for the intra-observer reliability.

3.1.5.1.2.2. Inter-Observer Reliability: For inter-observer reliability, the pilot study video recordings were used. Two basketball school and two club team sessions were coded by three independent researchers familiar with ASUOI. Each researcher analyzed the same videos separately at the same time period. Although there is no fully accepted minimum standard for

observational data 80% - 85% levels of agreement are deemed sufficiently high (Hartmann, 1977), and the inter-observer agreement for four training sessions was computed as 80.22 %.

3.1.6. Data Collection Procedure:

Following Middle East Technical University ethical commission approval, eight youth basketball coaches were selected to this study based on inclusion/exclusion criteria and willingness to participate. Before study participation and data collection, the coaches only knew their training sessions were to be recorded by the researcher. None of the coaches had previous knowledge about the ASUOI or how practice activities would be examined during the analysis. As such, the researcher reduced the potential changes in coaching behaviors during video recordings.

Each coach was recorded four times during their typical training sessions, giving a total of 24 training sessions recorded. All trainings were recorded using a video camera (SONY HDR-CX570), with each coach wearing a wireless microphone (SONY ECM-HW2(R)). The coach put the digital recording device on his shirt or jacket with a clip, and the input of the wireless microphone was attach to the video camera to ensure that all audio and visual data were simultaneously recorded on the same digital videotape. Recorded videos were then transferred to hard discs for data analysis.

Lacy and Darst (1984) stated that observations could be made for the entire practice session or for predetermined portions of a practice. For this study, the video recording of each training session started when the athletes were assembled to start training and ended when the coach released the athletes. Typical training sessions for the club teams lasted a mean of 92.00 minutes, whereas the sessions for the basketball schools lasted a mean of 61.06 minutes. The focus of recording was generally on the coach to capture the verbal and non-verbal communication between the coaches and athletes, such as instruction, feedback, body language, and gestures.

To minimize the possibility of altering coach and athlete behavior, and to maximize the camera perspective, the video camera was located some distance from the court, generally on the bleachers. This camera position also allowed the recorder to track the coach when he was moving around the court during the training. At the beginning of each training session, coaches were consulted with regard for the best place for the camera in relation to the coach in the arena. The researcher also took notes during all training sessions related to context and training (e.g., number of the players on the court, assistant coaches' role, and time of the season).

3.1.7. Observation times

Club basketball teams played in the junior basketball league so each observation was arranged according to the Ankara Junior Basketball League schedule and observations were conducted in different phases of the Ankara Junior Basketball season. The recordings of club teams were done at three different times: one in pre-season, one at middle season and one at post-season. The observations in basketball schools were arranged alongside the club team recordings for synchronization of data collection. This scheduling procedure allowed more representative snapshots of the coaching behaviors in different phases of the season and year.

3.1.8. Data Analysis

A continuous recording method was used for analyzing practice activities and allocated time for each activity (Darst, Zakrajsek, Dorothy, Mancini & Victor, 1989). The hand-notation system was used for recording the type of practice activities and duration. Each practice session was coded from video tapes to allow for detailed analysis in determining the time and type of practices.

Videotaped practice sessions were watched and a simple hand-notation system was used to code type, start, and end times of each activity. This coding process was repeated for each of the practice sessions. At the end of the coding process, the total number of the playing and training form activities were calculated. The duration of practice sessions varied between basketball schools and club team practices. Therefore, the data were normalized by calculating the percentage of the number of practice activities and session durations that players spent in playing and training form activities in basketball school and club team youth basketball contexts.

Interval recording is one of the widely used methods for collecting data on coaching behaviors with the ASOUI. In interval recording, the coaching behavior category that dominates a particular time interval is coded on to the coding sheet. That predominant behavior is then recorded at the end of the interval.

Interval recording was chosen for this study because it enables researchers to calculate the percentage of behavior type, rate per minute (RPM), and length of the particular behavior. According to Lacy and Darst (1984a), before using the interval recording procedure, the observer must determine the interval time used while coding. In this study, a 10 second interval time was used. Each behavior in the coding form was represented by numbers. The numbers representing hustle, pre-instruction, physical assistance and etc. were

used for coding behaviors in the coding sheet. During the 10 second interval recording, the observer should specify the exhibited coaching behavior from predefined behavior categories and code the dominant behavior category number at the end of the interval on the internal observation sheet.

Over the course of the season, 1106 minutes of practice were recorded with club team coaches and 728 minutes of practice with the basketball school coaches. Practice sessions were recorded at the beginning, middle, and end of the season depending on practice and league schedules.

The 10 second interval sound track file started to play with the coach's first verbal action to begin practice, along with the training video. After every 10 seconds the recorders heard a "beep" prompt to record. After the audible prompt, the recorder decided the dominant coaching behavior observed in the previous 10 second interval using a predetermined list of behaviors (Table 6). The number of the observed behavior was coded on to the ASUOI coding sheet horizontally. Every six intervals (1 minute), the recorder checked the time of the video, interval timer time, and ASUOI coding sheet grid to ensure they were synchronized. Coding of the started at the beginning of the training and continued for until the end of the training.

All of 24 videos were coded and quantified for each coach. To describe the exhibited coaching behaviors, the total number of observed behaviors and the percentages of the total behaviors were calculated. To understand patterns of coaching behaviors, the number of the coaching behaviors was also calculated for each context separately. The percentage of exhibited coaching behaviors in each category were calculated, and the RPM for each behavior category was calculated by dividing each specific category by the total number of minutes for all practice sessions in the same context.

3.2. Study 2: Examination of enjoyment, burnout and positive youth development in youth basketball.

Study 2 had two purposes. The first purpose was to compare basketball schools and club team players' positive youth development experiences, sources of enjoyment, and types of burnout. The second purpose was to analyze the relationships among positive youth development, enjoyment, and burnout in youth basketball contexts.

3.2.1. Introduction

Organized extra-curricular sports programs have been seen as one of the most popular activities among children and youth (Guèvremont, Findlay, & Kohen, 2008; Mahoney, Larson, Eccles, & Lord, 2005). Youth

participate sport generally for social acceptance (i.e., make new friends, team atmosphere), enjoyment (i.e., energy release, excitement) and physical competence (i.e., improve skills, achieve goals) (Weiss, Williams, 2004). Specifically, participation in organized youth sport has been associated with high rates of initiative experiences and these experiences are more related to the regulation of emotion than youth involved in other structured activities (Larson, Hansen & Montena, 2006).

Sports psychology studies point out the importance of structured sports programs in helping to PYD (Fredricks & Eccles, 2006). PYD approaches view youth as resources to be developed rather than problems to be managed (Lerner, 2005). When appropriate conditions are supplied to youth through structured activities, positive development can occur. Age and context relevant training can enhance desired sports outcomes such as positive youth development, enjoyment and skill development whereas eliminating the undesirable elements such as burnout, dropout, and injuries.

Enjoyment is one of the most important indicators of youth's commitment to the sport and it is consistently associated with continued sports participation (Scanlan, Carpenter, Schmidt & Keeler, 1993; MacDonald, Côté, Eys & Deakin, 2011). Enjoyment has also seen as one of the important components of major sport motivation theories such as competence motivation theory (Harter, 1980), achievement goal theory (Nicholls, 1989) and sports commitment model (Scanlan et al, 1993) . Moreover, Weiss and colleagues (2001) also indicate that enjoyment could be conceived as a partial mediator in the conceptualization of sport commitment.

However, participation in organized sports programs is not always producing positive outcomes. The outcomes of the organized youth sport contexts depend on the complex interaction of a number of factors, such as participant and program characteristics. Burnout, for example, typically occurs in youth athletes during extensive participation in a sport (Raedeke, 1997).

Children and youth participate in organized sports and follow different pathways to progress according to their skills and interests. Investigation of these pathways, including their similarities or differences, is crucial for developing healthy generations. There are a limited number of studies in the literature that compare the sports experiences, enjoyment, and burnout levels of youth sport participants based on a theoretical developmental framework. Developmental Model of Sport Participation (DMSP) provides a framework to understand progression of youth in sport (Côté, 1999; Côté, Baker & Abernethy, 2007). DMSP include three main trajectories (recreational participation through sampling, elite performance through sampling, and

elite performance through early specialization) that youth can follow based on their preferences. The current study mainly focused on the first years of the Specializing years (elite performance through sampling). The purposes of this study were comparisons of the PYD experiences, enjoyment levels and burnout levels and analyze the relationship among enjoyment, burnout and positive youth development experiences of 12-14 years old basketball schools and club team male basketball players

3.2.2. Study Design

This study used quantitative methods to understand the young athletes' PYD experiences, sources of enjoyment, and burnout levels. It was a cross-sectional design, and data was collected with three self-administered surveys. Cross-sectional research designs are common in social science research. Obtaining information from a cross-section of population at a single point in time is a reasonable strategy for pursuing many descriptive and explanatory research questions.

Because this was a cross-sectional study, the researcher collected all relevant data from participants at a single point in time to document what was happening. This chapter includes information about the methodology used for sampling, data collection instruments, procedures, and analyse. Additionally, information about issues of validity and reliability, and limitations of the study will be addressed.

3.2.3. Selection of Participants:

Participants of the study included of 390 male adolescent basketball players between the ages of 12 and 14 ($M = 12.91$, $SD = .70$) in city the of Ankara, Turkey. Participants were purposively selected based on their sport participation (basketball school or club team), experiences in the context, ages, and gender. 207 participants came from 13 basketball schools and 183 participants came from 15 basketball club teams. Athletes reported their experiences in basketball to be between 1 and 5 years. The experiences of young adolescents in the basketball schools was between 1 and 3 years ($M=2.08$, $SD = .73$) and in club team context was between 2 and 5 years ($M=3.91$, $SD = .84$).

3.2.4. Data Collection Instruments:

3.2.4.1. Youth Experience Survey for Sport. (YES-S)

Young athletes' positive and negative developmental experiences through in sport involvement were assessed using the Youth Experience Survey for

Sport (YES-S; MacDonald, Deakin, Eys, and Côté, 2009). MacDonald et al. (2009), created the Youth Experiences Survey for Sport (YES-S) by adapting the Youth Experience Survey 2.0 (YES; Hansen & Larson, 2005) to a group of 637 youth sport participants. The YES-S is a 37 item questionnaire that measures developmental experiences of youth sport participants on the five dimensions of personal and social skills (14 items; e.g., “I became better at giving feedback”), cognitive skills (5 items; e.g., “this activity increased my desire to stay in school”), goal setting (4 items; e.g., “I set goals for myself in this activity”), initiative (4 items; e.g., “I put all my energy into this activity”), and negative experiences (10 items; e.g., “I got stuck doing more than my fair share”). Youth sport participants reflect on their current or recent sport involvement in a given setting and respond to each statement using a 4-point Likert-type scale anchored by ‘Not at all’ to ‘Yes definitely’ as represent their experiences

3.2.4.1.1. Cultural and Psychometric Adaptations of YES-S

3.2.4.1.1.1. Adaptation of Language

In order to adapt Youth Experiences Survey for Sports (YES-S) (MacDonald et al., 2012) into Turkish language, the internationally accepted guideline for process of cross-cultural adaptation of self-report measures was used (Beaton, Bombardier, Guillemin, & Ferraz, 2000).

According to guideline, the first step is translating original survey to the target language, in this case, Turkish. The original English version of the YES-S was translated to Turkish by two independent English language experts whose first language was Turkish. The translators reported difficulties faced while translating and justification of translation choices. Following translation, the Turkish version of the forms were analyzed by two youth sport experts. In this step, youth sport experts tried to reach consensus on the translated items ability to measure intended factors. After choosing the best fitting translation, the agreed form of items in Turkish language was translated back to English by an English language expert. One independent English expert evaluated the similarity of items between the back-translated form and original form of the instruments. Consequently a final draft version of Turkish YES-S was formed. The final draft version of the instrument was administered to 15 youth basketball players, following which they were interviewed individually and asked questions about the difficulties in understanding the items, clarity of wording in items, etc. Some corrections were applied with the consultation of a Turkish language expert. Thus, the

final version of the Turkish YES-S was created for validity and reliability testing in the pilot study.

3.2.4.1.1.2. Psychometric Evaluation of Turkish YES-S.

The second step in adaptation was an evaluation of the psychometric properties of the Turkish version of YES-S. To test the validity and reliability of Turkish version YES-S, a pilot study was conducted with 287 male youth basketball players. Participants completed the Turkish version of YES-S from different basketball schools and clubs' teams in Ankara. The participants involved in the pilot study were not included in the sample of the main study.

Content and construct validity were used to examine the validity of the Turkish version of YES-S. Content validity is defined as the extension to which a measurement reflects the specific intended domain of content. An expert panel review was chosen to assess content validity. In expert panel review, experts review the scale and decide whether the items that are used in the translated scale were appropriate or not. For this study, two experts were used, one was from a physical education and youth sport background and the other was inform a youth sport coaching background. The two experts reached agreement on the appropriateness of the scale and this consensus represented the content validity of Turkish version of YES-S.

Construct validity was conducted to understand the agreement between theoretical concept and measuring procedure. For construct validity of the scale, exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were conducted with pilot study data. By exploratory factor analysis, item loadings were calculated for the original 37 items of YES-S through principal component analysis with Varimax rotation, and eigenvalues criteria set at 1.00.

Pilot study data were subjected to factor analysis using principle component analysis and orthogonal Varimax rotation. Factorability of the 37 Turkish YES-S items were examined under by item correlation and Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) and Communalities of each item in the scale criteria. First of all, it was observed that 36 of 37 items correlated to at least one other item and this was reasonable for factorability. Item 34 did not correlate to any other items and was eliminated. Therefore, data was run again time with 36 items. The loadings of items 4,9,19,29,31,32,33 were found very low ($<.30$) and these items were also eliminated. Secondly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was found as .71 and that score indicated data were sufficient for EFA. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was found as significant ($p < .001$) which indicated that there were patterned

relationships between items. The 29 item version of Turkish YES-S was subjected to EFA again with Eigenvalue cut-off of 1.00. Results indicated that 5 factors emerged to explain a cumulative variance of (69.50%). This five factor structure was consistent with the original factor structure of the questionnaire. Based on the eigenvalues, the first factor explained the 17.21%, second factor explained 15.43%, third factor explained 14.06%, fourth factor explained 12.53% and fifth factor explained 10.27% of the total variances. The table in the appendix A shows the factor loadings after Varimax rotation using a significant factor criterion of .3.

Following the exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test the construct validity of 5 factor 29 item Turkish version of YES-S. AMOS version 18.0 software was used to test CFA. Maximum likelihood method was chosen because it is considered robust for violating skewed values on the items. Chi square statistics was used because it corrects for chi square when distributional assumptions are not met. For reporting fit of model criteria composed of Chisquare (X^2), Chisquare/df ratio (X^2/df), comparative fit index (CFI), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The results of the CFA indicated that the 29 item Turkish version of YES-S good fit for original five factor structure of YES-S. [$X^2(287) = 1183.60, p < .000, X^2/df = 4.14; CFI = .98, SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .057$]. The coefficient in standardized values were between .48-.81. The findings of the EFA and CFA indicated that 29 item 5 factor structure of Turkish YES-S was confirmed with the present pilot data. This showed the evidence of construct validity of Turkish version of YES-S that was used in the main study. (Appendix F)

The reliability of Turkish version of 29 item YES-S was examined by calculating Cronbach Alpha coefficient. The internal consistency of coefficient of YES-S subscales were found for Personal and Social Skill as $\alpha = .92$, for cognitive skill as $\alpha = .91$, for goal setting as $\alpha = .85$, for initiative as $\alpha = .82$, and negative behaviors as $\alpha = .76$. Each of the factors showed good reliability scores. The results of reliability analysis indicated that Turkish version of YES-S has good internal consistency to use the scale in main study.

3.2.4.2. Sources of Enjoyment in Youth Sport Questionnaire (SEYSQ)

The Sources of Enjoyment in Youth Sport Questionnaire (SEYSQ) measures how enjoyable the sport experience might be for an athlete (Wiersma, 2001). The SEYSQ is a 28-item scale that measures enjoyment using six dimensions. The dimensions are other-referenced competency and recognition (six items; e.g., "being better in my sport than other athletes my

age or in my league”), self-referenced competency (four items; e.g., “playing well compared to how I’ve played in the past”), effort expenditure (five items; e.g., “playing hard during competition”), competitive excitement (four items; e.g., “the excitement of competition”), affiliation with peers (5 items; e.g., “being with friends on my team”), and positive parental involvement (4 items; e.g., “getting support from my parent(s) for playing my sport”). Each statement is preceded by the stem “During the times when I most enjoy sport, I usually experience that enjoyment from...”. Responses on the SEYSQ are given using a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranges from ‘Not at all’ to ‘Very much’. The six-factor structure of the SEYSQ has been validated by Wiersma (2001) with a sample of 896 young athletes between the ages of 12 and 18 years old.

3.2.4.2.2. *Cultural and Psychometric Adaptations of SEYSQ*

3.2.4.2.2.1. *Adaptation of Language*

The Turkish adaptation of the SEYSQ was conducted by Çimen and Gürbüz (2010). The authors tested the reliability and validity of Turkish version SEYSQ with 245 school athletic teams’ members from variety of sports. Based on the exploratory factor analysis results, Çimen and Gürbüz reported that 6 of 28 items were eliminated because of having low level factor loading ($<.40$) and other 22 items loaded in 6 factors that were consistent with the original factor structure. Reliability of the subscales ranged between .69 to .78. and the authors concluded that 22 item Turkish version of SEYSQ was a reliable and valid instrument to assess the sources of enjoyment in Turkish youth sport setting.

For the present study, researcher used 28 item Turkish version of the scale in a pilot study to test the validity and reliability. The fully translated form of the scale was used because the time, context, and age group of participants had some differences from the Çimen and Gürbüz (2010) study.

3.2.4.2.2.2. *Psychometric Evaluation of Turkish SEYSQ.*

Pilot study was conducted with 278 youth basketball players from basketball school and basketball club teams aged 12 to 14 years old. Participants completed the 28 item Turkish SEYSQ. Then, the pilot study data was subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test the construct validity. By exploratory factor analysis, item loadings were calculated for the original 28 items of SEYSQ through principal component analysis with maximum likelihood and eigenvalues criteria set at 1.00.

Factorability of the Turkish SEYSQ was examined by item correlation, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) criteria, and communalities of items. Initial results showed that 26 of 28 items in the scale correlated to each other normally and the items in the same factor display moderate correlation that suggested reasonable factorability. However, there was a high correlation between item 22 and 24 and item 22 was removed from analysis. Secondly, KMO measure of sampling adequacy was found as .73 and this score is higher than the recommended value of .60. Bartlett's test of sphericity was found as significant ($p < .001$). Finally, the communalities of each of 27 items were found above .30 that indicated each item shared some common variance with other items. All these findings were indicators of factorability therefore EFA was conducted with 27 items of Turkish SEYSQ.

Pilot study data were subjected to exploratory factor analysis using principle component analysis and orthogonal Varimax rotation. When item loadings were examined and it was observed that 27 item loadings were observed above .30 and all items constructed 6 factors that were same grouping with original version of scale. Based on the eigenvalues, the first factor explained 17.51% of variance, the second factor explained 15.82%, third factor explained 13.38%, fourth factor explained 11.21%, fifth factor explained 9.05%, and sixth factor explained 7.34%; with the total explained variance at 74.31%. The communalities of each items were found above than .3. (Appendix B)

After exploratory factor analysis, the six factor model of 27 item Turkish version of SEYSQ was subjected to confirmatory factor analysis to test construct validity and factor structure. AMOS version 18.0 software was used in CFA. Principle component factor analysis and covariance matrices were analyzed to test the six factor structure of the scale. The model was evaluated using; Chi square/ df ratio, comparative fit index (CFI), Standardized root mean Square Residual (SRMR), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). The results of the CFA indicated the 27 item Turkish version of SEYSQ was a good fit for the six factor structure consistent with the original study. [$\chi^2(286) = 926.61, p < .000, \chi^2/df = 3.23; CFI = .96, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .046$]. The coefficient in standardized values were between .43-.79. The findings of the EFA and CFA indicated that the 27 item 6 factor structure of Turkish SEYSQ was confirmed with the present pilot data. (Appendix B)

The reliability of Turkish version of 27 item SEYSQ was examined by calculating Cronbach Alpha coefficient. The internal consistency of coefficient of SEYSQ subscales were found for Self-Referenced Competency

as $\alpha=.82$, for competitive excitement as $\alpha=.77$, for effort expenditure as $\alpha=.73$, other referenced competency and recognition as $\alpha=.74$, affiliation with peers as $\alpha=.72$ and positive parental involvement as $\alpha=.76$. Each of the factors showed good reliability scores.

The findings of validity and reliability analysis showed the evidence of construct validity and internal consistency of 27 item Turkish version of SEYSQ. Therefore, the 27 item, 6 factor Turkish version of SEYSQ was valid and reliable scale for measuring sources of enjoyment for Turkish 12-14 years old youth basketball players.

3.2.4.3. *Athlete Burnout Questionnaire*

Athlete Burnout Questionnaire was developed for measuring athletic burnout (ABQ; Raedeke & Smith, 2001) which defines burnout as a syndrome. The ABQ is a 15-item questionnaire based on a five point Likert scale (i.e., from 1 = almost never to 5 = almost always). The scale measures three subscales: Emotional/Physical exhaustion (five items) (i.e. I feel “wiped out” from sport participation), Reduced sense of accomplishment (five items) (i.e. I am not achieving much in sport) and Sport devaluation (five items) (i.e. I feel less concerned about being successful in sport than I used to). The questionnaire allows the researcher the ability to tailor the questionnaire to a specific sport, as the questionnaire includes blanks to add sport-specific terms and references.

3.2.4.4. *Cultural and Psychometric Adaptations of ABQ*

3.2.4.4.1. *Adaptation of Language*

After the permission from corresponding authors (Raedeke and Smith) via e-mail, the adaptation of the Athlete Burnout Questionnaire (ABQ) was done under the rules of internationally accepted guideline for process of cross-cultural adaptation of self-report measures (Beaton et al., 2000).

The first step of the guideline as translating original survey to target language. The original English version of ABQ was translated separately to Turkish by two independent English language experts from whom Turkish was their first language. The translators reported difficulties faced while translating and justification of translation choices. After translation of the surveys, they were analyzed by two youth sport experts. In this step, youth sport experts try to reach consensus on the translated items suitability to measure intended factors. After choosing the best fitting translation, the agreed form of items in Turkish language was translated back into English

by an English language expert. One independent English expert evaluated the similarity of items between back-translated and original forms of the instrument. Afterwards the final draft version of Turkish ABQ was formed. The final draft version of the instrument was administered to 15 youth basketball players, after which they were interviewed individually and asked questions about any difficulties they had in understanding the items, clarifying of words in items etc. Some corrections were applied to items with the consultation of a Turkish language expert. At the end of the process the final version of the Turkish ABQ was used in the pilot study to test validity and reliability.

3.2.4.4.2. Psychometric Evaluation of Turkish ABQ.

The second step was evaluation of psychometric properties of the Turkish version of ABQ. To test the validity and reliability of Turkish version ABQ a pilot study was conducted with 287 male youth basketball players. Participants from different basketball schools and youth club teams from Ankara completed the Turkish version of ABQ. The participants and data from the pilot study were not included in the main study.

To test the validity of the ABQ, content validity and construct validity were used. Content validity is defined as the extent to which a measurement reflects the specific intended domain of content. An expert panel review was chosen to assess content validity. In the expert panel review, experts on reviewed the scale and decided whether the items in the translated scale were appropriate or not. For this study, two experts, one from a physical education and youth sport background and one from a youth sport coaching background, reviewed the translated scale for appropriateness to measure youth experiences in basketball context. The two experts were in agreement on the appropriateness of the scale and this consensus represented the content validity of Turkish version of ABQ.

Construct validity was conducted to determine the agreement between theoretical concepts and measuring procedure. For construct validity of the scale, exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were conducted with pilot study data.

The data obtained from pilot study were subjected to factor analysis to test the factor structure of items in the translated form of ABQ by using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation. In this analysis eigenvalue was set at 1.00. Factorability of the 15 item Turkish ABQ scale were examined under three well recognized criteria. The criteria were; item correlation, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), and commonalities of items. Initial results

indicated that 15 item in the scale correlated to each other normally (at least .3) and the items were grouped under three factor that display moderate correlation, which suggested reasonable factorability.

Secondly, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was found as .81, and this score was higher than the recommended value of .60. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was found as significant ($p < .001$). Finally, the communalities of each of the 15 items were found above .30, which indicated that each item shared some common variance with other items. All these findings were indicators of factorability, therefore EFA was conducted with 15 items of Turkish ABQ. (Appendix C)

Pilot study data were subjected to factor analysis using principle component analysis and orthogonal Varimax rotation. All item loading to the factors were above than .30 and grouped under the three factor that is consistent with the original factor structure. Based on the eigenvalues, the first factor explained 27.61% of variance, the second factor explained 22.18%, and third factor explained 18.12%. The total explained variance was 67.91%. The communalities of each items were found to be above .3 (Appendix C).

To test the factor structure of the three factor model of Turkish ABQ, the pilot data were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). AMOS version 18.0 software was used in CFA. Maximum likelihood method was chosen because it is considered robust for violating skewed values on the items. Chi square statistics was used because it corrects for chi square when distributional assumptions are not met. For reporting fit of model criteria composed of, Chisquare/df ratio (X^2/df), comparative fit index (CFI), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The results of the CFA indicated that 15 item Turkish version of ABQ was good fit for the original 3 factor structure of ABQ. [$X^2(286) = 765.24, p < .000, X^2/df = 2.67; CFI = .96, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .045$]. The coefficient in standardized values were between .61-.84. The findings of the EFA and CFA indicated that 15 item, 3 factor structure, of the Turkish ABQ was confirmed with the present pilot data. This showed the evidence of construct validity for the Turkish version of ABQ, which was subsequently used in the main study.

To test the reliability of Turkish version of ABQ, Cronbach alfa was calculated. The alpha value was calculated for Emotional and Physical Exhaustion $\alpha = .84$, for Reduced Sense of Accomplishment $\alpha = .81$, and for Devaluation $\alpha = .77$.

The findings of validity and reliability analysis showed evidence of construct validity and internal consistency of 15 item Turkish version of SEYSQ. Therefore, 15 item 3 factor Turkish version of ABQ was valid and reliable scale for measuring burnout for Turkish 12-14 years old youth basketball players.

3.2.5. Data Collection Procedure

Following university ethical commission approval, sport clubs' and basketball schools' coaches were contacted and asked to participate in the study. After coaches agreed to participate, a meeting time was arranged to introduce the purpose of the study and the questionnaires. A copy of questionnaires, letter of information, and parental approval form were distributed to each athlete for athletes and parents to examine. Parent approval forms for participation were collected. Then data collection procedures proceeded with the approved children. In all levels of data collection process, athletes were given to opportunity to withdraw from the study. if they did not want to participate. Arrangements were made to schedule data collection once a basketball school or club team agreed to participate.

Data collection occurred before a planned training session for both basketball schools' and club teams. Instructions about the purpose of the study were given to participants who were then asked to fill out each questionnaire regarding their basketball participation. All questions from participants were responded to by the researcher during this phase of data collection. Each participant was encouraged to complete the questionnaire on training location. All questionnaires were completed during the designated time and collected by the researcher in a sealed envelope. Approximately, the time for completing all questions in the survey was 30 to 40 minutes.

3.2.6. Data Analysis

All of the obtained data were entered into SPSS 21 and cleaned to contain only valid cases. The researcher double checked the data for entry errors. All incomplete cases were removed, and normality and homogeneity of variance were assessed across variables of interest.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was used to assessment differences between basketball school and club team basketball players' sport experiences, enjoyment, and burnout levels. MANOVA statistical analysis was selected over other approaches because the youth experiences, enjoyment, and burnout levels have yet to be compared between basketball school and club team contexts. Therefore, MANOVA, which assesses the

differences between groups was preferred over a method that comparisons of basketball school and club team youth basketball players' positive youth development experiences, sources of enjoyment and burnout. (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Each scales was subjected to MANOVA and subscales were compared. In total three MANOVA were conducted.

Stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to assess the relationship between subscales of Sources of Enjoyment in Youth Sport Questionnaire (SEYSQ) and Athlete Burnout Questionnaire (ABQ), and on the positive youth development experiences outlined by Youth Experiences Survey for Sport (YES-S). Stepwise multiple regression statistical method was selected because the relationship between positive youth developmental experiences, enjoyment, and burnout have not to be established so far. In total five separate models using each subscales of YES-S as the dependent variable tested the relationship between positive youth development, enjoyment, and burnout.

| OVERALL DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH | |
|---|--|
| <p><u>Systematic Analysis of Youth Basketball Coaches and Practices</u></p> <p>Participants</p> <p>4 Basketball School Coach and 4 Club team Coach Each practices and coaches video recorded 3 times during season</p> | <p><u>Psycho-social outcomes of youth basketball context</u></p> <p>Participants</p> <p>390 youth male basketball players (Basketball School player =207; Club Team player= 183)</p> |
| <p>1. Recording time Beginning of the Season</p> <p>2. Recording time Middle of the Season</p> <p>3. Recording time End of the Season</p> | <p>Data collection time End of the Season</p> |
| <p>Purpose 1: Compare type and allocated time of training and playing form practice activities.</p> <p>Method Systematic observation Hand Notation System</p> <p>Instrument Adapted Version of Ford et al.'s Practice Activities Categorization</p> <p>Analyze Descriptive statistics</p> | <p>Purpose Examine the relationships between youth basketball players' positive youth development experiences, sources of enjoyments and burnouts.</p> <p>Method Survey</p> <p>Instrument Youth Experiences Survey for Sport (YES-S) Sources of Enjoyment in Youth Sport Questionnaire (SEYSQ)</p> <p>Analyze Athlete Burnout Questionnaire (ABQ) Stepwise Multiple Regression</p> |
| <p>Purpose 2: Compare exhibited coach behaviors during training</p> <p>Method Systematic observation</p> <p>Instrument Arizona State University Observation Instrument (ASUOI)</p> <p>Analyze Descriptive statistics Mann-Whitney U test</p> | <p>Purpose Comparison of youth basketball players' PYD experiences enjoyment and burnout levels</p> <p>Method Survey</p> <p>Instrument Youth Experiences Survey for Sport (YES-S) Sources of Enjoyment in Youth Sport Questionnaire (SEYSQ)</p> <p>Analyze Athlete Burnout Questionnaire (ABQ) MANOVA</p> |

Figure 3. Overall design of the research.

Results

4.1. Results of Study 1: Systematic Observation of Practice Activities and Coaches Behaviors

According to the purpose of the study, first, the type of practice activities and time use for these activities that were employed by basketball school and club team coaches during their practices were compared (1.a). Second, observed coach behaviors by using Arizona State University observation instrument data were analyzed to compare coaches' instructional, support and encouragement, and non-instructional behaviors (1.b).

4.1.1. Analysis of Coach Behaviors and Practice activities

Throughout the 2012-2013 Ankara Junior Basketball Season, 4 club teams and 4 basketball school youth basketball coaches were used as participants in this study. Each coach was observed three times in different phases of the league (beginning, middle and end of the season). In total, 24 training sessions were video-taped from both contexts over the course of the study. Results of the study were 1834 min of video observation consisting 10992 coach behaviors, and 153 practice activities. Results of the coach behaviors and practice activities will be presented in three sections: (1) demographic information of the trainings; (2) distributions of coach behaviors into ASUOI categories; and (3) results of the comparison of basketball school and club team coaches' behaviors.

4.1.2. Demographic Information of Practice Activities

4.1.2.1. Practice Activities and Time-Using Analysis

The number of practice activities that players engaged in and time that used in each type of activities were calculated separately. Because of the different session duration between basketball schools and club team groups, percentages of number of practice activities and time spent in activities was used for representing result. The data for both practice activities and time-using violated the statistical assumption of the interdependence, which holds that one data point should not influence another (Field, 2005). Namely, within a fixed period, when the coach spent time for activity A, then limited amount of time can be spent for activity B. Therefore, just descriptive analysis was completed.

4.1.2.1.1. Type of Practice Activities

Descriptive analysis of the practice activities indicated that 153 activities were conducted by coaches in a total of 24 training sessions. The number of the training form activities were calculated as 131 and this formed the 87.44% of the all activities. The number of the playing form activities were calculated as 22 and this formed the 12.56% of all activities.

In detail, 86 practice activities were observed in club team context. 84.88% (73) of these activities were coded as training form activities and 15.12% (13) of these activities were coded as playing form activities. On the other hand, 67 practice activities were observed in the basketball school context. 86.57% (58) of these activities were coded as training form activities and 13.43% (9) of them were coded as playing form activities. (Table 7).

Table 7: Distribution of Practice Activities

| | Total | TFA | % | PFA | % |
|---------------------------------------|-------|-----|--------|-----|--------|
| Club Team Practice Activities | 86 | 73 | 84.88% | 13 | 15.12% |
| Basketball School Practice Activities | 67 | 58 | 86.57% | 9 | 13.43% |
| Overall | 153 | 131 | 85.67% | 22 | 14.38% |

Notes. Total=Total number of the observed practice activities, TFA= Training form activities, PFA= Playing form activities.

4.1.2.1.2. *Comparison of Practice Activities*

The number of the practice activities was higher in the club team practices than basketball school practices. The reason behind that differences is duration of the practice sessions. Duration of practice sessions in club teams was around 90 minutes, whereas in basketball school it was 60 minutes. Therefore, to compare practice activities in the two context percentages was used. Distribution of training form and playing form activities were observed very similar in two contexts.

4.1.2.1.2. *Time-Use in Practice Activities*

Durations of practice activities demonstrated parallel results with distribution of the numbers of the observed activities. In overall, 88320 second was spent for all activities. 71802 sec. (81.30%) was spent for training form activities and 16518 sec. (18.70%) was spent for playing form of activities. Club team context activities took 56160 sec in total. While 44937 sec. (80.02%) of overall practice time spent for TFA, 11223 sec. (19.98%) of overall practice time spent for PFA. In basketball school context practice activities took 32160 sec in total. While 26865 sec. (83.53%) of overall practice time was spent for TFA, 5295 sec. (16.47%) of overall practice time was spent for PFA. (Table 8). Remaining time spent for water breaks, transitions etc.

Table 8: Distribution of Time-Use in Practice Activities

| | Total | TFA | % | PFA | % |
|--|-------|-------|--------|-------|--------|
| Club Team Practice Activities Time-Use | 56160 | 44937 | 80.02% | 11223 | 19.98% |
| Basketball School Practice Activities Time-Use | 32160 | 26865 | 83.53% | 5295 | 16.47% |
| Total Time-Use for Practices | 88320 | 71802 | 81.30% | 16518 | 18.70% |

Notes. Total=Total time used for practice activities, TFA= Training form activities, PFA= Playing form activities.

4.1.2.1.3. *Comparison of Time-Use in Practice Activities*

Total durations of practice activities indicated that club team context activity duration was higher than basketball school activity duration. The reason of this differences is durations of club team and basketball school practices. The time allocated for training form activities was much higher than playing form of activities.

Table 9: Summary of the findings on practice activities and time-use

| Category | Research Question(s) | Data collection | Validity and Reliability | Subjects | Data analysis | Results |
|---|---|--|---|--------------------------------|---------------------------|---|
| Practice activities and time-use analysis | What type of practice activities are applied by coach into basketball schools and club team context youth basketball practices? | Systematic observation and hand notation system. | Intra-observer agreement was calculated For basketball school training 96.3% and for club youth team 97.1%. | 24 youth basketball activities | Systematic video analysis | The number of training form of activities (85.67%) were observed higher than playing form of activities (14.38%) |
| | Is there a differences between basketball schools and club team context youth basketball practice activities? | | | | | The distribution of the training form and playing form activities are similar in basketball school (TFA = 86.57%; PFA = 13.43%) and club team (TFA = 84.88%; PFA = 15.12%) practices. |
| | How much time was used in practice activities during basketball schools and club team context youth basketball practices? | | | | | Practice activities and allocated time for these activities were observed for basketball school (TFA = 83.53%; PFA = 16.47%) and club team (TFA = 80.02%; PFA = 19.98%) practices. |
| | Is there time use differences between basketball schools and club team context youth basketball practice activities? | | | | | |

4.2.1. Distributions of Coach Behaviors

In total, eight basketball school and club team coaches were observed three different times during the season and 24 training sessions were recorded. All training session video data recordings were analyzed based on the ASUOI. Each training video and coach behaviors were coded separately and then total number of behaviors were gathered.

In total, 1832 min video was analyzed by using ASUOI. Results of the analysis indicated that totally 10992 coach behaviors were coded in all videos.

At the end of the coding of videos, in 1104 minutes of training, 6624 coaching behaviors were coded in club team coaching context. On the other part, in 728 min of training, 4368 basketball school coach behavior were coded.

Analysis of each basketball school context's coach behaviors indicated that the instructional behaviors (i.e. pre-instruction, concurrent instruction, post instruction, questioning, and physical assistance, positive modelling and negative modelling and silence) was the most often observed behavior category among basketball school coaches. 42.83% (1871; RpM=2.57) of the basketball school coaches' behavior composed of instructional behaviors. As second most observed coach behavior category, support and encouragement behaviors (i.e. hustle, praise, and scold) accounted for 31.68% (1384; RpM=1.90) of overall recorded behaviors. Afterwards, non-instructional behaviors category (i.e. management, uncodable behaviors, and silence) were counted as 25.48% (1113; RpM=1.53) of all behaviors in the basketball school context.

As a most observed coach behavior, instructional behaviors of basketball school coaches' behaviors composed of 12.29% (537, RpM=0.74) pre-instruction behaviors, 10.99% (480, RpM=0.66) concurrent instruction behaviors, 8.20% (358, RpM=0.49) post instruction behaviors, 5.68% (248, RpM=0.34) positive modeling behaviors, 3.66% (160, RpM=0.22) questioning behaviors and 2.01% (88, RpM=0.12) negative behaviors. Any physical assistance behaviors were not observed among all basketball school coach behaviors. Support and encouragement behaviors were counted as second high frequent observed coach behavior category. Support and encouragement category behaviors were composed of 13.62% (595, RpM=0.82) hustle behaviors, 10.99% (480, RpM=0.66) praise behaviors and 7.07% (309, RpM=0.42) scold behaviors. Lastly, non-instructional behaviors were composed of 15.00% (655, RpM=0.90) management

behaviors, 10.00% (437, RpM=0.60) silence and 0.48% (21, RpM=0.03) uncodable behaviors.

Analysis of coach behaviors in club team context revealed that 43.00% (2848; RpM=2.58) of overall coach behaviors were composed of instructional behaviors. Afterwards, 31.51% (2087; RpM=1.89) of the overall behaviors composed of support and encouragement behaviors. The non-instructional behaviors category covered the 25.50% (1689; RpM=1.53) of the overall coach behaviors in club team context practices.

Further analysis indicated that coaches' instructional behaviors in club team context include 12.35% (818; RpM= 0.74) pre-instruction behaviors, 10.99% (668; RpM=0.66) concurrent Instruction, 8.17% (541; RpM=0.49) post Instruction, 5.63% (373; RpM=0.34) positive modelling, 3.62% (240; RpM=0.22) questioning, 2.10% (139; RpM=0.13) negative modelling, and 0.14% (9; RpM=0.014) physical assistance behaviors. Afterwards, support and encouragement behaviors composed of 13.69% (907; RpM=0.82) hustle, 10.52% (697; RpM=0.61) praise and 7.29% (483; RpM=0.44) scold behaviors. Non-instructional behaviors were coded as least observed coach behavior category. Non-instructional behaviors were composed of 14.90% (987; RpM=0.89) management, 9.98% (661; RpM= 0.60) silence, and 0.62% (41; RpM= 0.04) uncodable behaviors.

Overall distributions of the coach behaviors in both basketball schools and club team contexts were displayed in table 10.

Table 10: Records of ASUOI for Total Coach Behavior Categories.

| Behavior Codes | Basketball School Coaches | | | | Club Team Coaches | | | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|-------|--------|------|-------------------|-------|--------|------|
| | Time | Total | % | RpM | Time | Total | % | RpM |
| Instructional Behaviors | | | | | | | | |
| Pre- Instruction | | 537 | 12.29 | 0.74 | | 818 | 12.35 | 0.74 |
| Current Instruction | | 480 | 10.99 | 0.66 | | 728 | 10.99 | 0.66 |
| Post Instruction | | 358 | 8.20 | 0.49 | | 541 | 8.17 | 0.49 |
| Questioning | | 160 | 3.66 | 0.22 | | 240 | 3.62 | 0.22 |
| Physical Assistance | | 0 | 0.00 | 0.00 | | 9 | 0.14 | 0.01 |
| Positive Modelling | | 248 | 5.68 | 0.34 | | 373 | 5.63 | 0.34 |
| Negative Modelling | | 88 | 2.01 | 0.12 | | 139 | 2.10 | 0.13 |
| Total | 312 | 1871 | 42.83 | 2.57 | 474 | 2848 | 43.00 | 2.58 |
| Support and Encouragement Behaviors | | | | | | | | |
| Hustle | | 595 | 13,62 | 0.82 | | 907 | 13.69 | 0.82 |
| Praise | | 480 | 10,99 | 0.66 | | 697 | 10.52 | 0.63 |
| Scold | | 309 | 7,07 | 0.42 | | 483 | 7.29 | 0.44 |
| Total | 231 | 1384 | 31.68 | 1.90 | 348 | 2087 | 31.50 | 1.89 |
| Non-Instructional Behaviors | | | | | | | | |
| Management | | 655 | 15.00 | 0.90 | | 987 | 14.90 | 0.89 |
| Silence | | 473 | 0.48 | 0.60 | | 661 | 9.98 | 0.60 |
| Uncodable | | 21 | 10.00 | 0.03 | | 41 | 0.62 | 0.04 |
| Total | 185 | 1113 | 25.48 | 1.53 | 282 | 1689 | 25.50 | 1.53 |
| OVERALL | 728 | 4368 | 100,00 | 6,00 | 1104 | 6624 | 100,00 | 6,00 |

Notes: Time: total recorded time, Total= total observed behavior, RpM= Rate per Min ratio,

4.2.2. Comparison of the Coach Behaviors

Distribution of coach behaviors in two coaching context showed that number of percentages and RpM ratios of observed coach behaviors looks very similar. To check the statistical difference between two groups of coach behaviors Mann Whitney u test was conducted. Mann Whitney U test was chosen because the data violated the normality and homogeneity of variance assumptions of parametric tests.

Categories of the coaching contexts were used as independent variable for statistical analysis. The main dependent variables were rate per minute ratio of each behavior category. Frequency of coach behaviors were not used

as dependent variable because it is positively correlated to practice durations. The durations of the club team context practice were longer than basketball school context practices.

For analysis several coach behaviors exist in the ASUOI combined. First, pre instruction, concurrent instruction, post instruction, questioning, physical assistance, negative modeling and positive modeling were combined as "Instructional Behaviors". Second, the behaviors hustle, praise and scold were combined as "Support and encouragement" and finally management, salience and uncodable behaviors were combined as "non-instructional behaviors" (M. Smith & Cushion, 2006).

Results of the Mann-Whitney u test between ASUOI general categories indicated that instructional behaviors of basketball school context coaches ($Mdn = 2.59$) did not differ from club team context coach ($Mdn = 2.59$) behaviors based on the ASUOI categories ($U = 8000$, $z = .00$, $p = 1.00$). Support and encouragement behaviors of basketball school coaches ($Mdn = 1.91$) did not differ from club team context coach behaviors ($Mdn = 1.88$) based on the ASUOI categories ($U = 6500$, $z = -.461$, $p = .645$). Results of the non-instructional behaviors were found same with the other results and non-instructional behaviors of basketball school coaches ($Mdn = 1.56$) did not differ from club team context coach ($Mdn = 1.53$) behaviors based on the ASUOI categories ($U = 4500$, $z = -1.023$, $p = .306$). (Table 11)

Table 11: Mann-Whitney u test results of ASUOI general categories

| | <i>Mdn</i> | <i>U</i> | <i>z</i> | <i>p</i> |
|-----------------------------|------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Instructional Behaviors | 2.59 | 8.000 | .000 | 1.000 |
| Support and Encouragement | 1.88 | 6.500 | -.461 | .645 |
| Non-instructional Behaviors | 1.54 | 4.500 | -1.23 | .306 |

*Notes: Mdn = Median, U = Mann-Whitney U test, z = Z score * $p < .05$*

Another Mann Whitney u test was conducted to analyses the differences between all sub categories of ASUOI. In detail analysis indicated that only physical assistance behaviors of club team context coaches ($Mdn = .0100$) were significantly different than basketball school context coaches' physical assistance behaviors ($U = 2000$, $z = -2.049$, $p = .040$). There is no statistically significant differences were found between basketball schools and club team coaches in other ASUOI categories. (See table 12)

Table 12: Mann-Whitney *u* test results of ASUOI sub categories

| | <i>Mdn</i> | <i>U</i> | <i>z</i> | <i>p</i> |
|------------------------|------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Pre-instruction | .74 | 5.000 | -.893 | .372 |
| Concurrent instruction | .65 | 7.500 | -.155 | .877 |
| Post-instruction | .49 | 6.000 | -1.000 | .317 |
| Questioning | .22 | 8.000 | .000 | 1.000 |
| Physical assistance | .00 | 2.000 | -2.049 | .040* |
| Positive modeling | .34 | 4.500 | -1.323 | .186 |
| Negative modeling | .12 | 7.000 | -.298 | .766 |
| Hustle | .83 | 7.000 | -.306 | .760 |
| Praise | .64 | 4.000 | -1.183 | .237 |
| Scold | .43 | 6.500 | -.438 | .661 |
| Management | .89 | 8.000 | .000 | 1.000 |
| Silence | .60 | 4.000 | -1.183 | .237 |
| Uncodable | .40 | 4.000 | -1.239 | .215 |

Notes: *Mdn* = Median, *U* = Mann-Whitney *U* test, *z* = *Z* score **p* < .05

4.3. Results of Study 2: Examination of enjoyment, burnout and positive youth development in youth basketball.

The first purpose of the study 2 was to understand the differences between basketball school and club team youth basketball players' positive youth development experiences, burnout levels, and sources of enjoyment (2.a). In addition to analysis of comparison, the relationship between enjoyment and burnout on the positive youth development experiences youth basketball players was also analyzed (2.b).

4.3.1. Comparison of basketball schools and club team youth basketball players' positive youth development experiences, enjoyment and burnout.

In this section, youth basketball players', who are in basketball school and youth club team, positive youth development experiences, sources of their enjoyments, and burnout levels were compared.

4.3.1.1. Comparison of positive youth development experiences

Means and standard deviations results for subscales of YES-S indicated that while all participants from two context indicated high scores in personal and social skills, cognitive skills, goal setting and initiative behaviors, they indicated low scores in negative experiences. (Table 14)

Table 13: Summary of the findings on coach behaviors

| Category | Research Question(s) | Data collection | Validity and Reliability | Subjects | Data analysis | Results |
|----------|---|---|--|-----------------------------------|--|---|
| | <p>What type of coaching behaviors exhibited by coaches during basketball schools and club team context youth basketball practices?</p> <p>Is there a differences between basketball schools and club team youth basketball coaches coaching behaviors?</p> | <p>Systematic observation and interval coding system. ASUOI</p> | <p>Intra-observer agreement was calculated as 93.3% and Inter-observer agreement was calculated as 80.22%.</p> | <p>8 youth basketball coaches</p> | <p>Descriptive Statistic and Mann-Whitney U test</p> | <p>Instructional behaviors (42.92%) were observed as most exhibited coaching behavior group and followed by support and encouragement (31.59%) and non-instructional behaviors groups (25.49%).</p> <p>Mann-Whitney U test results indicated that only statistical difference was found for physical assistance category ($p < .05$). There is no significant differences all other coaching behavior categories.</p> |
| | <p>Systematic observation of youth basketball coaches behaviors</p> | | | | | |

Table 14: Descriptive results of YES-S

| | Basketball School Context (n=207) | | Club Team Context (n=183) | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----|------------------------------|-----|
| | Mean | SD | Mean | SD |
| Personal and social skills | 3.51 | .29 | 3.49 | .31 |
| Cognitive Skills | 3.21 | .54 | 3.13 | .56 |
| Goal setting | 3.35 | .34 | 3.32 | .27 |
| Initiative | 3.53 | .36 | 3.51 | .38 |
| Negative experiences | 1.48 | .39 | 1.73 | .24 |

Notes: SD= Standard Deviation

Multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate differences between basketball schools and club team context youth basketball players positive and negative youth development experiences. Subscales of Youth Experience Survey in Sport (YES-S) (Personal and social skills, Cognitive skills, Goal setting, initiative and Negative behaviors) were used as dependent variable. Context of the youth basketball players (basketball schools and club team) used as independent variables. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for multivariate normality and homogeneity of variance. Results of the findings showed there was no serious violation noted (Field, 2005).

According to the MANOVA results, there is no statistically significant differences between basketball school and club team context youth basketball players personal and social skill experiences, $F(1,388) = .420, p=.517, \eta^2=.001$, cognitive skills, $F(1,388) = 3.661, p=.056, \eta^2=.009$, goal setting, $F(1,388) = 1.388, p=.240, \eta^2=.004$, initiative, $F(1,388) = .221, p=.638, \eta^2=.001$. However, there was a statistically significant difference was found between two groups' negative experiences, $F(1,388) = 55.028, p=.000, \eta^2=.12$. Because of independent variable (basketball schools and club team contexts) composed of only two group, post hoc analysis were not used. The inspection of mean differences between two context showed that club team participants scored ($M=1.73, SD=.24$) negative experience items higher than basketball school context participants ($M=1.48, SD=.39$). Results of the MANOVA analysis displayed in Table 15.

Table 15: MANOVA results of YES-S

| | <i>F</i> | <i>P</i> | η^2 |
|----------------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Personal and social skills | .420 | .517 | .001 |
| Cognitive Skills | 3.661 | .056 | .009 |
| Goal setting | 1.388 | .240 | .004 |
| Initiative | .221 | .638 | .001 |
| Negative experiences | 55.028 | .000* | .124 |

4.3.1.2. Comparison of sources of enjoyment

Means, standard deviations and Cronbach α results for subscales of YES-S displayed in Table 16. Finding of descriptive statistics indicated that participant of basketball schools and club team youth basketball contexts scored higher in competitive excitement, positive parental involvement, other referenced competency and effort expenditure than self-referenced competency and affiliation with peers. Descriptive results represented that the order of the sources of enjoyments of youth basketball players were positive parental support, being better than their friends, competition success, giving effort for basketball, improvement in their basketball skills and affiliation with peers. (Table 16)

Table 16: Descriptive results of SEYSQ

| | Basketball Schools Context (n=207) | | Club Team context (n=183) | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------|------------------------------|-----------|
| | <u>Mean</u> | <u>SD</u> | <u>Mean</u> | <u>SD</u> |
| Self-referenced Competency | 3.61 | 2.27 | 3.62 | .26 |
| Competitive excitement | 4.63 | .26 | 4.76 | .27 |
| Effort expenditure | 4.42 | .67 | 4.45 | .45 |
| Other referenced competency | 4.69 | .28 | 4.70 | .36 |
| Affiliation with peers | 3.59 | .27 | 3.61 | .20 |
| Positive parental involvement | 4.74 | .30 | 4.75 | .26 |

Notes: SD= Standard Deviation

Multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate differences between club team context youth basketball players' sources of enjoyments. Subscales of sources of enjoyment in youth sport questionnaire (self-referenced competency, competitive excitement, effort expenditure, other referenced

competency, affiliation with peers, and positive parental involvement) were used as depended variable. Context of the youth basketball players (club team) used as independent variable. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to test for multivariate normality and homogeneity of variance. Results of the findings showed there was no serious violation noted.

According to the MANOVA results, there is no statistically significant differences between club team context youth basketball players; Self-referenced competency $F(1,388) = .089, p=.766, \eta^2=.000$, competitive excitement $F(1,388) = 1.360, p=.244, \eta^2=.003$, effort expenditure $F(1,388) = 5.319, p=.065, \eta^2=.013$, other referenced competency $F(1,388) = .022, p=.883, \eta^2=.000$, affiliation with peers $F(1,388) = .640, p=.474, \eta^2=.002$ and positive parental involvement $F(1,388) = .71, p=.790, \eta^2=.000$ subscales.

When the means of each subscale were investigated separately, club team context participants’ scores seem a bit higher than basketball school context participants, but these are not statistically significant. Results of the MANOVA analysis of SESYQ displayed in table 17.

Table 17: MANOVA results of SESYQ

| | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Self-referenced Competency | .089 | .766 | .000 |
| Competitive excitement | 1.360 | .244 | .003 |
| Effort expenditure | 5.139 | .065 | .013 |
| Other referenced competency | .022 | .883 | .000 |
| Affiliation with peers | .640 | .424 | .002 |
| Positive parental involvement | .071 | .790 | .000 |

4.3.1.3. Comparison of burnout levels

Means, standard deviations and Cronbach α results for subscales of ABQ displayed in Table 18. Finding of descriptive statistics indicated that mean burnout scores of club team context youth basketball players was relatively higher than basketball school context youth basketball players. In both contexts, youth reported burnout in that order; feeling emotional and physical exhaustion, being less valuable or important, and less sense of accomplishment.

Table 18: Descriptive statistics of ABQ

| | Basketball School (n=207) | | Club Team (n=183) | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------|-----|----------------------|-----|
| | Mean | SD | Mean | SD |
| Emotional and Physical exhaustion | 1.65 | .65 | 1.86 | .67 |
| Reduced sense of accomplishment | 1.43 | .40 | 1.45 | .45 |
| Devaluation | 1.44 | .50 | 1.52 | .56 |

Notes: SD= Standard Deviation

Multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate differences between club team context youth basketball players' burnout sources. Subscales of Sources of Enjoyment in Athlete Burnout Questionnaire (emotional and physical exhaustion, reduced sense of accomplishment and devaluation) were used as a dependent variable. Context of the youth basketball players (basketball school and club team) used as independent variable. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to test for multivariate normality and homogeneity of variance. Results of the findings showed there was no serious violation noted.

According to the MANOVA results, there were statistically significant differences between basketball school and club team context youth basketball players emotional and physical exhaustion sources $F(1,388) = 10.309$, $p=.001$, $\eta^2=.026$. However, there was no statistically significant difference was found between two groups' reduced sense of accomplishment $F(1,388) = .26$, $p=.611$, $\eta^2=.001$, and devaluation $F(1,388) 2.089$, $p=.149$ $\eta^2=.005$.

Because of independent variable (basketball school context and club team context) composed of only two group, post hoc analysis were not used. The inspection of mean differences between two contexts showed that club team context youth basketball players feel more emotional and physical exhaustion than reduced sense of accomplishment and devaluation. Results of the MANOVA tests displayed in the Table 19.

Table 19: MANOVA results of ABQ

| | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-----------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Emotional and Physical exhaustion | 10.339 | .001* | .026 |
| Reduced sense of accomplishment | .260 | .611 | .001 |
| Devaluation | 2.089 | .149 | .005 |

4.3.2. The relationship between enjoyment, burnout, and positive youth development experiences of youth basketball players

In this section positive youth development experiences of youth basketball players were investigated by using stepwise multiple regression.

Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to test for, normality, multicollinearity, Homocidasticity and homogeneity of variance. Results of the findings showed there was no serious violation noted.

Totally five models were created using each subscale of the YES- S as dependent variable to tested with SEYSQ subscales and ABQ subscales as independent variable. Stepwise multiple regression was used to determine which SEYSQ and ABQ subscales predicted positive and negative youth experiences. Result of the stepwise multiple regression models are presented in Table 20.

4.3.2.1. Personal and Social Skills

Three variables significantly predicted the personal and social skill of youth basketball players. The strongest predictor was effort expenditure (SEYSQ), which explained 52.2% of the variance. The variables of competitive excitement (SEYSQ) predicted personal and social skills and accounted for additional 6.8% of the variance. Affiliation with peers (SEYSQ) also added 2.1% of variance. The relationships between dependent variable and independent variables were positive. This means that high scores on these subscales predicted higher reports of personal and social skills in youth basketball context.

4.3.2.2. Cognitive Skills

Four variables significantly contributed to the explanation of cognitive skill development and accounted for 58.4% of the variance. Positive parental involvement was found as the strongest predictor of the cognitive skill development experiences and accounted for 34.1% of total explained variance. Competitive excitement explains 14.7% percent of the variance in cognitive skills. While positive parental involvement and competitive excitement were positively correlated to development of cognitive skills, physical and emotional exhaustion and reduced sense of accomplishment were negatively related to development of cognitive skills. Physical and emotional exhaustion was accounted for 2% of the variance and reduced sense of accomplishment was accounted for 7.6% of the variance.

4.3.2.3. *Goal Setting*

In total 30.9% of the variability in goal setting was explained by two variables ($F(2, 388) = 87.920, p < .001$). Effort expenditure (SEYSQ) and competitive excitement (SEYSQ) were found to be positively related to goal setting behaviors. As a stronger predictor, effort expenditure accounted for 25.3% of total variance. Competitive excitement (SEYSQ) accounted for 5.6% of total variance.

4.3.2.4. *Initiative*

The four variables significantly contributed to the explanation of initiative behaviors development. The reports of positive parental involvement (SEYSQ), physical and emotional exhaustion (ABQ), affiliation with peers (SEYSQ), and other referenced competency (SEYSQ) combined to explain 22.1% ($F(4, 386) = 25.626, p < .001$) of the variance in initiative behaviors. The strongest predictor of the initiative behaviors was found as positive parental involvement and accounted for 7.1% of variance. Following the positive parental involvement, physical and emotional exhaustion (ABQ) accounted for 6.8%, Affiliation with peers (SEYSQ) accounted for 4.6% and other referenced competency (SEYSQ) accounted for 3.6% of total variance. The results indicated that positive parental involvement (SEYSQ) and affiliation with peers (SEYSQ) positively related to development of initiative skills, while physical and emotional exhaustion (ABQ) and other referenced competency (SEYSQ) were negatively related to the development of initiative skills.

3.4.2.5. *Negative Behaviors*

The four variables were significantly contributed to the explanation of development of negative behaviors. In total 52.5% of variance ($F(4, 385) = 106.269, p < .001$) explained by effort expenditure (SEYSQ), physical and emotional exhaustion (ABQ), reduced sense of accomplishment (ABQ) and Positive parental involvement (SEYSQ). While physical and emotional exhaustion (ABQ), reduced sense of accomplishment (ABQ) positively contributed to the negative behavior, energy expenditure (SEYSQ), and positive parental involvement (SEYSQ) negatively related to development of negative behaviors. In detail effort expenditure (SEYSQ) explained 23.4% of the variance. Following this, physical and emotional exhaustion (ABQ) explained 24.4%, reduced sense of accomplishment (ABQ) explained 2.5% and positive parental involvement (SEYSQ) explained 1.8% of the total explained variance. (See Table 20)

Table 20: Stepwise multiple regression analysis predicting YES_S subscales

| YES-S subscales | Significant predictors | F | MS | B | p | r ² |
|----------------------------|---|---------|--------|-------|------|----------------|
| Personal and social skills | Effort Expenditure (SEYSQ) | 425.15 | 18.370 | .251 | .000 | .522 |
| | Competitive Excitement (SEYSQ) | | 10.401 | .397 | .000 | .590 |
| | Affiliation with Peers (SEYSQ) | | 7.195 | .173 | .000 | .611 |
| Cognitive skills | Positive Parental Involvement (SEYSQ) | 134.99 | 41.178 | .217 | .000 | .341 |
| | Competitive Excitement (SEYSQ) | | 29.457 | .292 | .000 | .488 |
| | Physical and Emotional Exhaustion (ABQ) | | 20.498 | -.451 | .000 | .508 |
| | Reduced sense of Accomplishment (ABQ) | | 17.666 | -.559 | .000 | .584 |
| Goal settings | Effort Expenditure (SEYSQ) | 87.920 | 9.557 | .251 | .000 | .253 |
| | Competitive Excitement (SEYSQ) | | 5.854 | .397 | .000 | .309 |
| Initiative | Positive Parental Involvement (SEYSQ) | 25.626 | 3.931 | .388 | .000 | .071 |
| | Physical and Emotional Exhaustion (ABQ) | | 3.851 | -.354 | .000 | .139 |
| | Affiliation with Peers (SEYSQ) | | 3.430 | .246 | .000 | .185 |
| | Other Referenced Competency (SEYSQ) | | 3.079 | -.196 | .000 | .221 |
| Negative experiences | Effort Expenditure (SEYSQ) | 106.269 | 20.156 | -.658 | .000 | .234 |
| | Physical and Emotional Exhaustion (ABQ) | | 20.705 | .260 | .000 | .478 |
| | Reduced sense of Accomplishment (ABQ) | | 14.554 | .471 | .000 | .507 |
| | Positive Parental Involvement (SEYSQ) | | 11.308 | -.213 | .000 | .525 |

Notes: $p < .005$

Table 21: Summary of the findings on Psychological Outcomes of youth basketball players.

| Category | Research Question(s) | Data collection | Validity and Reliability | Subjects | Data analysis | Results |
|--|---|--|---|--|--|--|
| Psychological Outcomes of youth basketball players | Is there a difference between basketball schools and club team context youth basketball players' youth development experiences, sources of enjoyment and burnout? | Quantitative Youth Experiences Survey for Sport (YES-S) Sources of Enjoyment in Youth Sport Questionnaire (SEYSQ) Athlete Burnout Questionnaire (ABQ) | EFA and CFA for construct validity Cronbach alfa for reliability of scales | 390 youth basketball players (Basketball School =207 Club basketball team = 183) | MANOVA Stepwise Multiple Regression | There is no statistically significant differences between basketball school and Club team basketball players YES-S, SEYSQ and ABQ scores. Positive youth experiences are positively related Effort expenditure, Competitive excitement, Affiliation with peers and Positive parental involvement and negatively related to Physical and emotional exhaustion, Reduced sense of accomplishment. Negative experiences are positively related to Physical and emotional exhaustion, Reduced sense of accomplishment and negatively related to physical effort and positive parental involvement. |
| | How do the enjoyment and burnout effects youth development experiences in basketball schools and club team youth basketball context? | | | | | |

Discussion

This chapter presents to the discussions of obtained from the findings of the current study. In the first part, youth basketball practice activities, allocated time for each activity, and coach behaviors are discussed. In the second part, youth basketball players' youth experiences, enjoyments and burnouts in sport are discussed.

5.1. Discussions of Practice activities and Coach Behaviors

5.1.1. Discussion of practice activities and time using

The practice sessions durations of club team groups (90 minutes) were observed similar with previously reported studies involving other sports (Deakin et al., 1998; Ford et al., 2010). The durations of basketball school sessions (60 minutes) were 30 minutes shorter than previously reported studies (Low et al., 2013).

The practice activities and time used for these activities by youth basketball coaches during the practice sessions were examined. In total, 153 (109.920 seconds) activities were observed during 24 practices and provided the following statistics: 85.67% (131 activities, 88.320 seconds) of the activities were coded as training form activities and 14.38% (22 activities, 16.518 seconds) of the activities were coded as playing for activities.

Group-based distribution of practice activities indicated that 86 (65.419 seconds) activities were observed in the club team context, and 67 (43.279 sec.) activities were observed in the basketball school context. In the club team context, 84.88% (73 activities) of the overall activities were training form activities and 15.12% (13 activities) of overall activities composed

of playing form activities. However, 86.57% (58 activities) of the overall activities from basketball schools were training form activities, and 13.43% (nine activities) were playing form activities.

Time-use analysis showed that coaches had their players engage in more training forms activities than playing form activities. Overall, 81.30% (71.802 seconds) of practice time was spent participating in training form activities and 18.70 % (16.518 seconds) of practice time was spent for playing form activities. The context-based analysis revealed similar results. In the club team context, coaches allocated 80.02% (44.937 seconds) of their practice time to training form activities versus 19.98% (11.223 seconds) for playing form activities. In basketball school context, coaches allocated 83.53% (26.865 seconds) of their time to training form activities versus 16.47% (5295 sec.) to playing form activities.

Ford et al. (2010) recommended that that playing form activities were more relevant to performance in soccer compared with training form activities. Moreover, they also strongly recommended that younger and novice players should be exposed to playing form activities that create the skills and links between the skills they will need to perform in a game. However, the findings of the present study indicated that youth basketball players engaged in greater amounts of training form activities when compared with playing form activities. Moreover, coaches for both basketball schools and club teams preferred similar practice activities and allocated similar amounts of time for these activities. These findings are similar with the previous research conducted by Ford et al. (2010). Ford et al (2010) examined the practice activities and instructional behaviors of 25 youth soccer coaches in 70 different practices. The findings of this study showed that players spend more time in training form activities (65%) than playing form activities (35%) respectively. Present study has similar results with Ford's et al. study.

In another study, Low et al. (2013) investigated the types of team practice activities in different groups of youth cricket players. The groups in Low et al.'s study comprised recreational and elite children (9 to 12 years old) and recreational and elite adolescent players (13 to 17 years old). The combined results indicated that all players spent 69% of session time in training form activities and 31% in playing form activities. In detail, whereas the recreational child players spent almost half of their time in playing form activities, the adolescent recreational and elite groups spent no to little time with playing form activities (Low et al., 2013). The findings of present study are consistent with the Low et al.'s findings in terms of age group. The elite adolescent, elite children and recreational adolescent groups in

Low et al.'s study engaged in a similar ratio of practice activities with the participants of this study. However, the findings of the present study were contradicted by Deakin and Cobley's (2003) study, who showed that elite athletes engaged more in playing form activities compared to recreational athletes of the same age.

Coaches observed in present study frequently used "drill-type" microstructure practice activities to develop sport specific skills and performance. Therefore, skill development and performance is likely dependent on a number of the drills that include repeatable motor skills (i.e., dribbling, passing, and shooting). These types of activities defines training form activities. However, in contrast to this idea, particularly in ball and team games, such as basketball, the execution of sport specific motor skill is not the only determiner of performance. Development of perceptual and cognitive skills can also contribute to ability and performance by extracting relevant information from the performance environment, such as recognizing game situations or analyzing of opponent movements (Williams & Ford, 2008).

The large number of training form practice activities and high amount of time allocated for those activities seen in this study contradicts some studies that attempt to investigate optimal practice conditions for skill acquisition (Ford & Williams, 2013; Patterson, Lee, Farrow, & Baker, 2008; Williams & Hodges, 2005). One of the best ways to develop motor skills and transfer them into the performance setting is through an appropriate combination of training and playing form activities because training form activities alone may not include enough perceptual and cognitive aspects needed during play. Likewise, playing form activities may not facilitate the development of fundamental sport specific motor skill development needed in the game.

The reason why coaches applied more training form activities than playing form activities might be that coaches have learned the practice activities through observation of other coaches and acquire the knowledge from same sources of knowledge. Moreover the coaches did not appear to be using or adapting contemporary principles derived from scientific research recommended by several studies (Cushion, Ford, & Williams, 2012; Ford & Williams, 2013) in to their practice.

5.1.2. Discussion of coaching behaviors

Previous systematic observation studies indicated that the nature of coaching behaviors exhibited are as important as practice activities used by coaches. Thus the purpose of the current study was to compare basketball school and club team youth basketball coaches' coaching behaviors. The

findings of the study contributed to the existing literature by providing descriptive data pertaining to the behaviors of basketball school and club team youth basketball coaches.

The results showed that the most frequently observed ASUOI category was *Instructional behaviors* for both the basketball schools (42.83%) and club teams (43.00%) These finding are consistent with the previous studies that investigating basketball coaches' behaviors (Becker & Wrisberg, 2008; G. A. Bloom et al., 1999; Searle, 2012) and other sports coach behaviors (C. J. Cushion & Jones, 2001; P. R. Ford et al., 2010; Potrac et al., 2002).

In the initial systematic analysis of coaching behaviors, the studies conducted with elite-level successful basketball coaches, that are Wooden and Summitt, indicated that instruction is the dominant coaching behavior in basketball context, and other studies concurred. One of the first studies investigating the coaching behaviors systematically is Tharp and Gilmore's study conducted with John Wooden. Analysis of Wooden's practices indicated that most observed coaching behavior category was instructional behaviors. Becker and Wrisberg also systematically examined the practice behaviors of legend coach of Pat Summitt in six practices. Results showed that most observed coaching behavior was found as instruction (48.12%) (Becker & Wrisberg, 2008). Although a different systematic observation instrument than the ASUOI was used in the Bloom and colleagues study (1999), the most frequently exhibited coaching behaviors was still instruction behaviors (Bloom et al., 1999). Likewise Searle (2012) investigated a female and male high school girls basketball team coaches' behaviors'. Searle (2012) found that both female and male coaches provided instruction more often than other coaching behavior categories (female coach 35.5%, male coach 29.2%) (Searle, 2012). General findings of major studies conducted with different context's basketball coaches indicated that most exhibited coaching behavior is instructional behaviors. This evidence is consistent with the findings of present study and support the Lacy and Darst's (1985) idea that high levels of instruction are one of the most important component for effective coaching.

In detail analysis of coaches' instructional behaviors showed that pre-instruction was found as most frequent behavior in both contexts and followed by concurrent instruction, post instruction, positive modeling, questioning, negative modeling and physical assistance. This pattern seems rational for youth sport context when coaches introducing new skills or plays to whole the team. As the players learn the skills, the number of the concurrent instruction and post instruction would be increase.

The findings of present study is contradict other previous findings. In Searle's (2012) study, concurrent instruction was found to be the most frequent instructional behavior followed by pre-instruction, post instruction. The reason for this difference might be ages of the players. In Searle's study, participants were high school basketball players and most of the players had experience. In present study, participant were 12 to 14 years old, and they had less experience, thus coaches in present study might exhibit more pre-instruction behaviors because of the ages of the players. Results of the Becker and Wrisberg's Pat Summitt study and Tharp and Gilmore's John Wooden studies revealed similar findings. Concurrent instruction was found as most frequent observed instruction behavior category among Pat Summitt's coaching behaviors. The coaching context in Becker and Wrisberg's study was NCAA Division I elite level collegiate basketball, so the players' age and experiences were higher than present study coaching context. These findings seem very logical in elite level context. Giving concurrent feedback might be more effective for whole team after introducing skills or plays or for individual athlete after performance.

Players in all levels progress in different developmental pathway and the play that they involve getting complex while they are developing. Elite level sport include complex tactics and game strategies so players need and prefer to receive greater amount of instruction especially they are in transition to up contexts. (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983). On the other hand, although instruction is one of the important component of the coaching process, recent empirical findings point to dangers involved in being overly prescriptive and using too much instruction during practice (Davids, Button, & Bennett, 2008; Williams & Hodges, 2005). Because, during the game or play athletes have to perform skills and take decisions on their own without any guidance from coaches. This makes challenge for coaches about to provide the least amount of instruction possible so as their athletes could solve the problems independently regardless of the athletes age or skill (P. R. Ford et al., 2010). Planning playing form activities might be help youth coaches to develop their players' perceptual and cognitive development to solve the problems during the game or play.

The critical part of the ASOUI is questioning. There is insufficient research on questioning in the field of sports coaching, which was criticized by Claxton (1988), as it is held as a valid strategy in many educational texts but its value in sports coaching has not yet been realized. Preceding systematic observation studies conducted with ASUOI accounted for questioning for about 5% of the total coaching behaviors (Lyle, 2002). The findings of the

present study regarding the questioning behavior are consistent with the general trend in coaching.

The support and encouragement behaviors category was found as second most observed coaching behavior category in this study. In the basketball school context 31.68% and in club team context, 31.50% of overall coach behaviors composed of combination of Hustle, Praise and Scold behaviors. Hustle is the most frequent behavior category among the other support and encouragement behaviors for both basketball schools and club teams followed by praise and scold which is consistent with the Becker and Wrisberg's (2010) study. They found hustle as a most frequent coaching behavior category and it was followed by praise and scold. However, the findings of the present study are not consistent with Searle's study who found praise as the most frequent support and encouragement behavior and it was followed by hustle and scold.

Praise is important in all sports contexts. Athletes from all levels feels more successful and competent when they receive encouragement and instruction rather than be repeatedly criticized (Black & Weiss, 1992). Especially, praise supports young athletes' emotional wellbeings, which is very important for both performance and future participation. Wrisberg (1990) indicated that effective coaches uses praise to reinforce to youth players to do their activities or drills correctly (Wrisberg, 1990).

Coaches use support and encouragement behaviors to increase the intensity of training. In elite-level sports coaches want players to practice like they in play. Coaches planning game-like activities and use hustle statements to encourage their players in elite-level basketball. Providing large amount of generalized and individualized hustle feedback serves to increase the overall intensity of the practice (Becker & Wrisberg, 2008).

Based on the previous research findings, comparing the Turkish youth basketball coaches with the successful high school basketball coaches and elite-level coaches, Turkish basketball school and club team context youth basketball coaches' coaching behaviors are more similar to those of the elite-level basketball coaches coaching behaviors in terms of support and encouragement behaviors.

Non- instructional coaching behaviors account for the least observed section of the ASUOI. Even lowest number of the coaching behaviors found in this section, Management, silence and uncodable coaching behaviors should be considered separately. Management is another essential part of the coaching process. The results of present study indicate that 15.00% of

basketball school coaches 'coaching behaviors and 14.90% of club team coaches coaching behaviors involve management behaviors, making these behaviors the most frequently observed in this category. . Becker and Weisberg's (2008) study found that 9.34% of all coaching behaviors were management behaviors. This findings is not consistent with the findings of this study. The reason for the difference might be coaching context. In elite level context, coaches and players are experienced and spend less time with management issues, such as transitions of drills or changes in activities. In youth sports, players are not experienced enough, so coaches spend more time managing their practice activities.

Silence is also one of the most observed coaching behaviors in studies conducted with ASUOI. In present study 10.00% of basketball school coaching behaviors and 9.98% of club team coaching behaviors composed are silence behaviors which are defined as periods of time when the coach is not talking, just watching or monitoring activities. The silence category is generally discussed separately from other coaching behaviors.

5.2. Discussion of comparing coach behaviors

Coaches are designers of their coaching contexts, and an important responsibility of the position is designing/organizing appropriate practices for their participants' age and level. Different coaching contexts have different goals and missions depending on the sport setting. Based on the research in coaching science, recreational and competitive characteristics are different, therefore coaching behaviors should be different between in both sport environment, as well (Côté, Young, North, & Duffy, 2007; Lyle, 2002).

Sports contexts can represents different features based on the participants' ages and goals. Coaching behaviors should be appropriate for the coaching context and athlete requirements. However, limited research has addressed coaching behaviors between non-competitive and competitive sport context.

In this study, basketball schools represents the non-competitive sport context and club teams represents competitive youth basketball contexts. The behaviors of basketball schools and club teams youth basketball coaches were explored compared using the ASUOI. The Mann Whitney *U* test results indicate that the only statistical difference was in physical assistance behaviors of coaches. RpM and percentages of physical assistance category indicated that basketball school coaches did not exhibit any physical assistance behaviors. Club team coaches did exhibit some physical assistance but in a small quantity.

The general findings point out that in terms of coaching behavior, coaches exhibit similar behaviors in basketball schools and club teams youth basketball context. There are no statistically significant differences between basketball school and club team coaches' ASUOI coaching behavior categories except the physical assistance category.

After contrasting the type of practice, time use in practice activities and coaching behaviors, the findings suggest that the even needs and goals of the two youth basketball contexts are different, basketball schools coaches' perceptions on their coaching context don't differ from club team context. Basketball school coaches' practice tendencies and coaching behavior tendencies almost match those of club team coaches. Thus, like club team coaches, basketball school coaches exhibited similar behaviors with club team coaches.

5.3. Discussions of the examination of youth basketball players' positive youth development experiences, enjoyment and burnout.

5.3.1. Discussions of comparisons of youth basketball players' positive youth development experiences, enjoyment and burnout

Three separate mean analysis of variance (MANOVA) measures were conducted to check the differences between basketball schools and club teams youth basketball players' personal development experiences, sources of enjoyments, and athletic burnout levels.

In terms of personal development experiences, MANOVA was conducted to evaluate the differences between basketball school and club team context youth basketball players positive and negative personal development experiences. The results indicated that a significant difference was not found between the two groups' positive development experiences. However, statistically significant differences were found between basketball school and club team youth basketball players' negative developmental experiences. Inspection of mean differences between subscales of the YES-S showed that basketball school participants' positive development experience scores were higher than club team players' score. On the contrary, negative experience scores for basketball school participants were significantly lower than the club team participants' scores. Club team players reported that practice basketball three or four times in a week. Therefore, these players are exposed to inappropriate practice activities and coaching behaviors more than basketball school participants. The reason for reporting more negative experiences might be attending more practices than basketball school participants.

Basketball schools and club teams youth basketball players also have similar sources for enjoyment. According to MANOVA results, there are no significant differences between participants' sources of enjoyments. Means scores indicated that although there is no significant differences between the two contexts, mean scores of club team participants were a little higher than basketball school participants' scores. According to DMSP, for for participants 13-15 years, basketball school and club team sport contexts should support enjoyment. The findings of the present study met the suggestion of the DMSP's specialization and recreational context outcomes. High levels of enjoyment are one of the most important indicators of long term sport participation.

Finally, basketball school and club team youth basketball players' burnout levels were compared. MANOVA results revealed that no statistically significant differences exist among the subscales of the ABQ. General scores of the ABQ also indicate that all participants have low burnout levels. Investigations of mean scores show that club team participants' burnout scores are a bit higher than basketball school participants' scores, despite sharing similar types of activities and being exposed to similar coaching behaviors, therefore, the intensity of the activities might be the reason for the mean differences.

5.4. Discussions of the relations of enjoyment and burnout and positive youth development experiences

5.4.1. Positive experiences of youth basketball players

The results of the stepwise multiple regression revealed that the strongest predictor of personal and social skills was effort expenditure. Following, competitive excitement and affiliation with peers were also positive predictors of personal and social skills. These findings suggest that supporting youth basketball players' physical exertions that represents a sense of commitment and hard work in practice and games, enjoyments for competitions and challenges, and the establishment of friendships in sports environment is beneficial for their personal development (i.e., emotions that effect behavior and feeling better at taking feedback) and social skills (i.e., making new friends, working together to compromise). Previous studies show that although excitement of competition is enjoyable for older youth (McCarthy & Jones, 2007; Wiersma, 2001), it can also contribute to youth basketball players positive development experiences. Moreover, the findings of present study demonstrated that positive relations with peers are associated with

the positive developments of youth basketball players (Smith, Jowett, & Lavallee, 2007; Weiss & Williams, 2004).

The present study indicated that positive parental involvement and competitive excitement are positively related to cognitive skills of youth basketball players; however, physical and emotional exhaustion and reduced sense of accomplishment are negatively related. This result shows that parental involvement in the form of encouragement, support, acceptance and game/practice attendance is a predictor of cognitive development in youth basketball players. Parental involvement in sport studies indicate that among youth athletes, parental support leads to greater enjoyment (Leff & Hoyle, 1995; Scanlan & Lewthwaite, 1986), more positive appraisal of performance outcomes (Smith, Zingale, & Coleman, 1978) and more positive appraisal of self-worth (Coopersmith, 1967). All these encourage youth to participate more in practice and to try new skills and solve problems. During competition or game participants face several game related challenges that force them to think and create possible solutions on their own. This skill of problem solving in sports can be transferred to the daily and academic lives of children and youth and make contribution of their cognitive skills. However, physical and psychological exhaustion couple with a reduced sense of accomplishment, decrease the development of these cognitive skills. Creating physically and emotionally exhausted environment in youth basketball setting and reducing sense of accomplishment negatively contributed youth's cognitive skills development experiences. In summary, positive parental engagement and hard work in practice supports cognitive skills development, whereas burnout does

Goal setting is an integral part of the sport participation and it is also important for youth development (MacDonald et al., 2012). Locke and Latham (1985) outlined an ideal context for developing goal setting skills in sport (Locke & Latham, 1985). As a subscale of the YES-S, goal setting is explained by effort expenditure and competitive excitement. Youth basketball participants' efforts during practice and their plans about the future help them to develop goal setting skills. All predictor variables that defined goal setting in present study are intrinsic motivation oriented. Intrinsic motivation reflects the personal standards of performance desired outcomes of sport participation (Burton & Weiss, 2008). This finding suggests that goal setting behaviors can be enhanced by supporting a participants' individual effort and game related excitements.

Another positive development experience sub-category is initiative. The results of the present study indicated that positive parental involvement

and affiliation with peers are positively related to initiative experiences but physical and emotional exhaustion and other referenced competency are negatively related to initiative experiences. These findings demonstrate that initiative experiences could be promoted by positive parenting and establishing/maintaining friendships in the youth basketball context. On the contrary, creating exhausting sport environments and comparing athletes with others negatively affects the initiative experiences.

Coaches and other stakeholders who are interested in the development of initiative experiences in youth sports contexts should consider these factors if they want to create an environment that is consistent with PYD principles.

5.4.2. Negative experiences

Effort expenditure, physical and emotional exhaustion, and reduced sense of accomplishment variables are positively related to negative experiences. Yet, positive parental involvement is negatively related to negative experiences. These findings suggest that giving high effort, being exhausted and having reduced sense of accomplishment is associated with a higher possibility of facing with negative experiences such as burnout. However, positive parental involvement decreases the chances of facing negative experiences. Likewise, participating in games or trainings, and positive support and communication decrease the likelihood of negative experiences.

Conclusions And Recommendations

This section composed of three sections. In first section conclusions of the studies were presented. In second section implications and recommendations for all stakeholders based on the presents results of the study were presented.

6.1. Conclusions

Under the following sections, conclusions were drawn for each research questions within the scope of the study.

1. Is there a differences between basketball schools and club team context youth basketball practice activities and allocated time for these activities?

Descriptive analysis results show that basketball schools' coaches and club team coaches prefer similar types of practice activities for their practices. In both contexts, the number of training form activities and allocated time for them are much higher than playing form activities. The reason behind the similarities in practice activities might be that coaches' perceptions about competitive and non-competitive basketball contexts are similar. The needs and purposes of the two different contexts might not be recognized by coaches.

In Hypothesis 1, it was stated that there are no significant differences between basketball schools and club team youth basketball practice activities. According to the results of this study, Hypothesis 1 was accepted.

The findings indicate that coaches prefer to apply more training form of activities than playing form activities for both basketball schools

and club teams. The allocated time for each practice activity is parallel to number of the practice activities. For basketball schools and club teams, the allocated time for training form activities is higher than for playing form activities.

In Hypothesis 2, it was stated that there are no significant differences between basketball schools and club teams in terms of time use in practice activities. According to the results of this study, Hypothesis 2 is accepted.

2. Is there a differences between basketball schools and club team youth basketball coaches' coaching behaviors?

Coaches' instructional behaviors were observed to be higher than the support and encouragement and non-instructional behavior categories. Coaches exhibited intense teaching behaviors because players were young and especially basketball school players had limited experience in developing fundamentals of basketball. Therefore, the focus is on teaching those basketball fundamental movements.

Mann-Whitney *U* test results indicate that there is no significant difference between basketball school coaches and club team coaches in terms of the ASUOI behavioral categories except physical assistance. This finding is interesting because even basketball school players were more novice than club team players but they never received any physical assistance during the course of observations. The reason could be the number of players on the court. Basketball schools were more crowded than the club teams, and practice time was shorter than club team practice time. Therefore, coaches had limited time to teach basketball fundamentals and they can't allocate time for players individually.

In the hypothesis 3 it was stated that there are no significant differences between basketball schools' and club teams' coaching behaviors. Based on the Mann-Whitney *U* test results, coach behaviors were found similar. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is accepted.

3. Is there a difference between basketball schools and club teams regarding PYD experiences, sources of enjoyments, and burnout?

The results of a separate MANOVA test indicated that there is no significant differences between PYD experiences, sources of enjoyments and burnout between two youth basketball contexts. This similarity might be due to the similar practice activities and coaching behaviors in both contexts, meaning players might be having similar

experiences, gaining enjoyment from similar sources, and experiencing similar burnout.

In the Hypothesis 4, 5 and 6, it was stated that there are no significant differences between basketball schools and club team players' PYD experiences, sources of enjoyment and burnout. The results of the MANOVA indicated that there is no significant differences between basketball school and club team youth basketball players' positive youth development experiences, enjoyments and burnout. Based on the MANOVA results, Hypotheses 4, 5 and 6 are accepted.

4. How do enjoyment and burnout affect youth development experiences in basketball schools and club teams youth basketball context?

Youth experiences could be affected by several factors in the sports domain. Enjoyment is an important factor for continued sport participation, whereas burnout is important in rates of dropout from sport participation. The findings of study indicated that enjoyment in youth sports is related to positive youth experiences, whereas burnout is related to negative youth experiences. Supporting youth's physical efforts and appropriate competitions and friendship and providing positive parental involvement can promote PYD. On the contrary, exhausting youth physically and emotionally and reducing their sense of accomplishments can cause negative development experiences.

The results indicate that greater enjoyment and fewer signs of burnout lead to greater PYD experiences, thus the Hypothesis 7 is accepted.

6.2. Implications

The present study may have several implications for research in youth sports coaching. First, the adaptation of Ford et al.'s (2010) practice activity categorization to a basketball context would be important in understanding the concept of what type of practice activities coaches prefer. This adaptation might promote the possibility of comparing different youth sports context practice activities.

Training form activities more likely to develop the motor skills of players, however, game/match performance requires players to use not only motor skills but also cognitive and perceptual skills simultaneously. The findings of the present study indicate that youth basketball players spent more time in training form activities acknowledged as less relevant to game/match performance than the more relevant playing form activities. Studies (Ford et al., 2013; Ford et al., 2010; Williams & Hodges, 2005) have stressed the

advantages of applying practice activities that are highly relevant to create the perceptual, cognitive, and motor demands of competition. For this reason, although this finding is not evident from the present data, coaches may adopt training form activities to recreate the demands of game/match performance. The key points for this adaptation is re-designing training form activities to make players decision makers related to the psychological and fundamental aspects of the game, such as teaching games for understanding and game sense approaches.

Second, adaptation of the psychometric properties of the Youth Experiences Survey for Sport (YES-S) to Turkish would be important for understanding the positive youth development in Turkish youth population. Besides the adaptation of YES-S into Turkish, the findings of the current study not only provide valuable knowledge about positive and negative youth experiences regarding Turkish youth but also provide an opportunity for cross-cultural studies.

Third, findings of the current study represent the current real context of youth basketball. The information derived from this study might contribute to the development of coach education programs, seminars, and other knowledge resources. Coach educators have important roles closing the gap between research and practice. The findings of the present study and other related studies in the areas of skill acquisition, motor learning and expert performance may help coach educators to update their coach education programs.

6.3. Recommendations

The findings of the current studies provide several recommendations for coaches, coach educators, researcher, sport club managers, parents and youth athletes' themselves.

6.3.1. Recommendations for coaches

The analysis of practice activities and time use represents the actual situations in youth basketball settings. Coaches can use the research-based information to understand what types of activities youth basketball practices should include. The findings of this study indicate that coaches design their practice activities, generally, to focus on teaching techniques and skill development. However, transferring these skills in game/play is as important as development of the skills. Informing and encouraging of coaches to use more playing form practice activities in their trainings might be beneficial for youth basketball players in transferring basketball-related motor skills to game/play situations and developing more perceptual/cognitive skills.

Coaching behaviors represents what coaches know and how transfers their knowledges to their players. Therefore, analysis of the coaching behaviors includes reflective information about philosophy, intention, knowledge. Coaches in the youth basketball context might use the information and findings of this study to make reflections about coaching behaviors in the youth sports context. Coaches can compare their practice activity preferences and coaching behaviors with the findings in this study and they can learn current information related to youth sports. Regarding enjoyment, coaches should focus on the psychological outcomes of intrinsic motivation for enjoyment, such as peer affiliation and ideas of self-worth, rather than extrinsic motivators, such as being better than others and winning, to increase the chances for continued participation in youth.

Enjoyment is recognized as one of the most important factor for youth sport participation. The findings of present study indicated that youth basketball players reported over than average scores on all dimensions of sources of enjoyment. Although there was no significant differences between two groups regarding dimensions of sources of enjoyment, youth basketball players' enjoyments were observed as extrinsic. Enjoyment sources such as being better than other athletes, winning and having critical role in competitions reported higher than intrinsic sources such as affiliation with peers and self-referenced competency. Studies indicated that being intrinsically motivated increase the chance of further sport participation. Coaches should focus in this psychological outcomes and they try to motivate youth basketball players more intrinsically than extrinsically.

6.3.2. Recommendations for coach educators

In this study, the coaching behaviors observed also represents how coaches see basketball in the youth basketball context. Ideal coaching behaviors and practice activities were identified both in this study and in the literature for different sport levels and contexts. Therefore, the findings of the current study provide an opportunity to compare different coach behaviors from several youth sport context and also previous studies in the literature. This comparison provide information for coach educators. Moreover, coach education programs in universities use these findings when developing their programs based on the participants age, skill level. In addition, Turkish basketball federation coach education department can also use this knowledge during their coach education seminars.

6.3.3. Recommendations for parents

Youth basketball players in the present study reported positive parental involvement as an important source of enjoyment. Positive parental involvement is an important factor in developing positive youth sport experiences. Therefore, parents of youth basketball players should give positive support to their children by positively communicating.

6.3.4. Recommendations for club managers and administrators

This study highlights the similarities and differences among youth sports contexts in maximizing sport participation. Understanding the youth sport context and trajectories helps coaches and sport clubs' administrators to structure more enjoyable sports contexts and reduce burnout in youth sport context. With proper coaching behaviors and practice activities, youth sports can include more enjoyment and less burnout and promote the positive youth development.

6.4. Future directions

The studies in present dissertation provide valuable contribution to the literature regarding practice activities and coach behaviors in two youth basketball context and these contexts basketball players' positive youth development experiences, enjoyments and burnouts. However further studies are required to extend this findings.

As the coach behaviors and practice activities were obtained by only systematic observation methodology, more qualitative and athlete perspective researches are needed to gain understanding of the coach behaviors and practice activities in youth sport settings. Moreover, ASUOI was used in present study for describing coach behaviors in youth basketball settings. The relations of coach behaviors and practice activities did not investigated. Future studies regarding this relationship will extend the understanding the knowledge of youth sport coaches behaviors and practice activities.

The present dissertation investigated the relations of positive youth development experiences, sources of enjoyments and burnouts in basketball schools' and club teams' male players. Further studies are needed for investigation of gender differences, and other psychosocial factors that can affect the development of athletes.

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Appendices

APPENDIX A: FACTOR LOADINGS and COMMONALITIES (H^2) of the 29 ITEM TURKISH YES-S RETAINED ACROSS 5 FACTORS

| Item no | Personal & Social Skills | Cognitive Skills | Goal Settings | Initiative | Neagtive Experiences | h^2 | α |
|---------------|--------------------------|------------------|---------------|------------|----------------------|-------|----------|
| 1 | .613 | | | | | .531 | .92 |
| 2 | .634 | | | | | .529 | |
| 3 | .548 | | | | | .524 | |
| 4 | .271 | | | | | | |
| 5 | .503 | | | | | .602 | |
| 6 | .498 | | | | | .479 | |
| 7 | .458 | | | | | .541 | |
| 8 | .437 | | | | | .495 | |
| 9 | .176 | | | | | | |
| 10 | .398 | | | | | .421 | |
| 11 | .381 | | | | | .393 | |
| 12 | .374 | | | | | .378 | |
| 13 | .351 | | | | | .403 | |
| 14 | .334 | | | | | .385 | |
| 15 | | .821 | | | | .657 | .91 |
| 16 | | .765 | | | | .649 | |
| 17 | | .642 | | | | .514 | |
| 18 | | .413 | | | | .481 | |
| 19 | | .153 | | | | | |
| 20 | | | .768 | | | .612 | .85 |
| 21 | | | .693 | | | .579 | |
| 22 | | | .647 | | | .546 | |
| 23 | | | .386 | | | .490 | |
| 24 | | | | .657 | | .523 | .82 |
| 25 | | | | .643 | | .461 | |
| 26 | | | | .526 | | .446 | |
| 27 | | | | .476 | | .410 | |
| 28 | | | | | .774 | .611 | .76 |
| 29 | | | | | .132 | | |
| 30 | | | | | .752 | .552 | |
| 31 | | | | | .203 | | |
| 32 | | | | | .113 | | |
| 33 | | | | | .127 | | |
| 34 | | | | | | | |
| 35 | | | | | .654 | .545 | |
| 36 | | | | | .528 | .438 | |
| 37 | | | | | .335 | .398 | |
| Eigen values | 7.95 | 4.21 | 3.49 | 3.19 | 2.83 | | |
| % of Variance | 17.21 | 15.43 | 14.06 | 12.53 | 10.27 | | |
| Note: | Deleted items | | | | | | |

APPENDIX B: FACTOR LOADINGS and COMMONALITIES (H²) of the 27 ITEM TURKISH SEYSQ RETAINED ACROSS 6 FACTORS

| Item | SRC | CE | EE | ORCR | AP | PPI | <i>b</i> ² | α |
|------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|-----------------------|----------|
| 1 | .742 | | | | | | .443 | |
| 14 | .621 | | | | | | .581 | |
| 21 | .496 | | | | | | .613 | |
| 27 | .434 | | | | | | .503 | |
| 8 | | .696 | | | | | .711 | |
| 15 | | .602 | | | | | .567 | |
| 22 | | | | | | | | |
| 24 | | .496 | | | | | .412 | |
| 2 | | | .672 | | | | .421 | |
| 9 | | | .649 | | | | .383 | |
| 13 | | | .621 | | | | .378 | |
| 20 | | | .514 | | | | .423 | |
| 26 | | | .414 | | | | .385 | |
| 3 | | | | .741 | | | .657 | |
| 5 | | | | .763 | | | .649 | |
| 12 | | | | .565 | | | .514 | |
| 16 | | | | .541 | | | .481 | |
| 18 | | | | .498 | | | .681 | |
| 19 | | | | .445 | | | .492 | |
| 4 | | | | | .614 | | .534 | |
| 6 | | | | | .548 | | .663 | |
| 7 | | | | | .478 | | .556 | |
| 10 | | | | | .447 | | .487 | |
| 11 | | | | | .422 | | .565 | |
| 17 | | | | | | .531 | .498 | |
| 23 | | | | | | .503 | .469 | |
| 25 | | | | | | .469 | .347 | |
| 28 | | | | | | .425 | .503 | |
| Eigenvalue | 7.40 | 4.89 | 3.71 | 3.22 | 2.89 | 2.23 | | |
| % | 17.51 | 15.82 | 13.38 | 11.21 | 9.05 | 7.34 | | |

SRC= Self Referenced Competency, CE= Competition Excitement, EE= Efford Expenditure, ORCR= Other Referenced Competency and Recognition, AP= Affiliation with Peers, PPI= Positive Parental Involvement, =Deleted items

APPENDIX C: FACTOR LOADINGS and COMMONALITIES (H2)
of the 27 ITEM TURKISH SEYSQ RETAINED ACROSS 6 FACTORS

| Item | EPE | RsA | Dev | b^2 | α |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|----------|
| 2 | .554 | | | .356 | .84 |
| 4 | .492 | | | .667 | |
| 8 | .437 | | | .541 | |
| 10 | .403 | | | .743 | |
| 12 | .395 | | | .489 | |
| 1 | | .587 | | .513 | .81 |
| 5 | | .541 | | .445 | |
| 7 | | .478 | | .602 | |
| 13 | | .419 | | .421 | |
| 14 | | .365 | | .518 | |
| 3 | | | .661 | .528 | .77 |
| 6 | | | .554 | .398 | |
| 9 | | | .512 | .461 | |
| 11 | | | .434 | .604 | |
| 15 | | | .408 | .476 | |
| Eigenvalue | 3.23 | 2.67 | 2.34 | | |
| % of variance | 27.61 | 22.18 | 18.12 | | |
| EPE= Emotional and Physical Exhaustion, RsA= Reduced Sense of Accomplishment, Dev= Devaluation. | | | | | |

APPENDIX E: ANTRENMAN ETKİNLİKLERİ ve SÜRESİ KAYIT FORMU

| Etkinlik 1: | Başlangıç | Bitiş | Süre | Etkinlik türü | Etk. Sınıfı | Tanımlar |
|-------------|-----------|-------|------|-------------------------|------------------------------------|---|
| | | | | Alıştırma türü etkinlik | Fiziksel uygunluk etkinlikleri | Basketbola özgü fiziksel uygunluk geliştiren ve topsuz yapılan etkinlikler (ısınma, soğuma hareketleri, Kondisyon, kuvvet çalışmaları vb.) |
| | | | | | Teknik çalışmaları | Rakip olmadan yapılan izole teknik çalışmalar (Turnike veya şut çalışmaları vb.) |
| | | | | | Beceri çalışmaları | Basketbola yönelik bir veya birkaç beceriyi geliştirme amaçlı tekrarlı etkinlikler. |
| | | | | Oyun türü etkinlik | Dar alan oyunları | Yarı saha tek potada az kişi ile yapılan oyun etkinlikleri. (1-1, 2-1 vb.) |
| | | | | | Modifiye edilmiş oyun etkinlikleri | Dar alanlarda yapılan basketbol oyununun kurallarını, temel amaçlarına yönelik oyun etkinlikleri (topa sahip olma, pas yapma oyunları vb.) |
| | | | | | Oyun parçası | Tam veya ayrı sahada basketbol oyun ve taktik çalışmaları |
| Etkinlik 2: | | | | Alıştırma türü etkinlik | Fiziksel uygunluk etkinlikleri | Basketbola özgü fiziksel uygunluk geliştiren ve topsuz yapılan etkinlikler (ısınma, soğuma hareketleri, Kondisyon, kuvvet çalışmaları vb.) |
| | | | | | Teknik çalışmaları | Rakip olmadan yapılan izole teknik çalışmalar (Turnike veya şut çalışmaları vb.) |
| | | | | | Beceri çalışmaları | Basketbola yönelik bir veya birkaç beceriyi geliştirme amaçlı tekrarlı etkinlikler. |
| | | | | Oyun türü etkinlik | Dar alan oyunları | Yarı saha tek potada az kişi ile yapılan oyun etkinlikleri. (1-1, 2-1 vb.) |
| | | | | | Modifiye edilmiş oyun etkinlikleri | Dar alanlarda yapılan basketbol oyununun kurallarını, temel amaçlarına yönelik oyun etkinlikleri (topa sahip olma, pas yapma oyunları vb.) |
| | | | | | Oyun parçası | Tam veya ayrı sahada basketbol oyun ve taktik çalışmaları |

APPENDIX F: ÖLÇEKLER

Değerli sporcular

Aşağıda sizlerin spordan yaparak kazandığınız yaşam deneyimleri, spordan zevk alma ve sporda tükenmişlik düzeylerini belirlemeye çalışan anketler yer almaktadır. Bu anketlerin tamamını özenle ve samimiyetle doldurmanız yapılacak araştırmaya doğru bilgileri sağlayacaktır. Aşağıda yer alan soruların kesin doğru veya yanlış cevabı yoktur. Size en uygun olan ifadeyi seçerek işaretleyiniz.

| | |
|---|---------------------------|
| Yaşınız: | Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın Erkek |
| Yaptığınız Spor: | |
| Yukarıda yazdığınız sporun antrenmanlarını ne kadar zamandır yapmaktasınız?..... | |
| Haftada kaç gün antrenman yapıyorsunuz? gün.....defa. | |
| Kendinizi aşağıdaki hangi grup içinde görürsünüz? Eğlence ve sağlık amaçlı spor yapan Yarışma amaçlı yetişmekte olan altyapı sporcusu Yetişkin performans-yarışma sporcusu | |
| Antrenman yaptığınız grupta sizden başka kaç kişi var? | |
| Okul numaranız: | |

Sporda Gençlik Deneyimleri Anketi

Yapmakta olduğunuz fiziksel aktivite veya spor dalına katılımınıza dayanarak aşağıda yer alan deneyimlere yönelik düşüncelerinizi belirtiniz. Bu düşüncelere ne sıklıkla katıldığınızı belirtmek için 1 ile 4 arası puanlar verilmiştir. 1 puan kesinlikle katılmadığınız bir durumunu ifade ederken 4 puan kesinlikle katıldığınız düşüncesine karşılık gelmektedir. Bu ifadelere hangi oranda katılıp katılmadığınızı sizin için uygun olan rakamın üstüne (X) işareti koyarak belirleyiniz.

(Kesinlikle katılmıyorum)

(Kesinlikle katılıyorum)

1-----2-----3-----4

| Yaptığınız spor dalı: Basketbol | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Spor ortamında geri bildirim verdiğimde kendimi daha iyi hissettim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2.Spor ortamında geri bildirim aldığımda kendimi daha iyi hissettim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3.Sorumluluk paylaştığımda kendimi daha iyi hissettim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. Spor ortamında diğer grup üyeleri ile birlikte hoşgörülü olmayı öğrendim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5.Spor ortamındaki kişiler bana güvenir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. Lider olmanın zorluklarını öğrendim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. Spor sayesinde başkalarına yardım etmeyi öğrendim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. Spor sayesinde yeni arkadaşlar edindim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9.Spor sayesinde toplumdaki yeni insanlar tanıdım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10. Spor sayesinde farklı sosyal çevreden insanlarla birçok ortak noktamın olduğunu anladım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11.Spor sayesinde ailem ile iyi diyalog kurabildim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. Spor sayesinde duygu ve tutumlarımın gruptaki diğerlerini nasıl etkilediğini öğrendim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13.Spor sayesinde bilgiye ulaşma becerilerim gelişti. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14.Spor sayesinde akademik (okuma, matematik vb.) bilgilerim gelişti. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. Spor sayesinde bilgisayar internet kullanma becerilerim gelişti | | | | |
| 16.Spor sayesinde artistik/yaratıcı yönüm gelişti. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17.Spor sayesinde hedeflerime ulaşmak için yollar bulmayı öğrendim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18.Yaptığım sporda kendim için hedefler belirledim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19.Spor sayesinde plan yaparken olası engelleri dikkate almayı öğrendim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. Spor sayesinde diğerlerinin problemleri nasıl çözdüklerini gözlemledim ve onlardan öğrendim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 21.Spor sayesinde kendimi zorlamayı öğrendim | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22.Spor sayesinde dikkatimi odaklamayı öğrendim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 23.Tüm enerjimi spora harcadım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 24.Spor sayesinde atletik ve fiziksel becerilerimi geliştirdim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25.Spor ortamında cinsiyetim, dini inancım, etnik kimliğim, sakatlığım ya da cinsel yönelimim sebebi ile ayrımcılığa uğradım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 26. Sporda ortamdaki yetişkin liderlerden (Antrenör, Kondisyoner, Öğretmen vb.) korkarım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 27.Spor ortamında payıma düşenden daha fazlasını yapmak zorunda kaldım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 28.Spor ortamında gruplaşma vardı. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 29.Yaptığım spor beni strese soktu. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

SPORDAN ZEVK ALMA KAYNAKLARI ANKETİ

Zevk alma, keyif veren ve eğlenceli deneyimlerin yol açtığı durum olarak açıklanabilir. Sporcu bireyler spor ortamında birçok olgudan zevk alır. Kendi içinde bulunduğunuz durumu değerlendirerek zevk alma durumuyla ilgili aşağıdaki maddelerden sizin için uygun olanı işaretleyiniz. Bu çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Aşağıdaki maddelerin doğru veya yanlış bir cevabı yoktur. Bu nedenle soruları dikkatlice okuyup özenle doldurmanız çalışmanın gerçeği yansıtılması açısından önem taşımaktadır. Soruları cevaplandırırken her bir cümlemin sonuna aşağıdaki kısmı ekleyiniz ve o şekilde cevaplandırınız.

“..... spordan zevk alırım.”

(Hiç katılmıyorum) (Tamamen katılıyorum)

1-----2-----3-----4-----5

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Elimden geldiği kadar iyi oynadığımda | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Antrenmanda iyi çalıştığımda | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Yeteneğime bağlı performansımın başkanlarımdan üstün olduğunda | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Takım arkadaşlarımla beraber olduğumda, | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Yaşıtlarımın yapamadığı becerileri yaptığımda | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Bir takım üyesi olarak takım ruhunu ve birlikteliğini yaşadığımda | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Takım arkadaşlarımla desteklediğimde ve cesaretlendirildiğimde | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Başa baş giden bir maça, oyuna veya yarışmaya katıldığımda | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Zor bir antrenmana başlayıp bitirdiğimde | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. İlgilendiğim spor dalı sayesinde yeni arkadaşlar edindiğimde | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Yarışma veya antrenman dışında takım arkadaşlarımla vakit geçirdiğimde | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Başkaları tarafından sporcu olarak tanındığımda | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Maç esnasında iyi oynadığımda | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Geçmişe göre performansındaki ilerlemeleri fark ettiğimde | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Başa baş giden bir maç, oyun, yarışma veya müsabaka esnasında taraftarın desteğini duyduğumda | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Benimle aynı sporu yapan diğer sporculardan daha iyi olduğumu gösterdiğimde | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Annem ve/veya babam tarafından teşvik edildiğimde desteklediğimde | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Yaşıtlarımdan veya aynı lig kategorisine kıyasla daha spor dalımda daha iyi olduğumda | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. Spor yaptığım için başkaları tarafından tanındığımda | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. Bir antrenman veya müsabaka sonrasında bitkin düştüğümde | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. Geçmişe göre daha iyi bir oyun sergilediğimde | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. Sporumu yapmam için annem ve/veya babam tarafından desteklediğimde | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. Yarışma heyecanını hissettiğimde | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. Ailem müsabaka esnasında beni izlediğinde | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. Antrenmanda veya müsabakada çok fazla çaba sergilediğimde | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. Kendi performansıyla ilgili belirlediğim kişisel hedeflerime ulaştığımda | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. Annem ve/veya babamın her durumda benim performansından mutlu olduğunda | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

SPORCU TÜKENMİŞLİK ANKETİ

Tükenmişlik; bireyin maruz kaldığı fiziksel veya zihinsel yorgunluk sonrası oluşan psikolojik sendrom sonucu spora ve başarıya verdiği değerdeki düşme olarak tanımlanabilir. Aşağıdaki 15 soruya sporcu olarak düşünceleriniz yansıtacak şekilde işaretleme yapınız. Lütfen tüm soruları dikkatlice okuyarak cevaplamaya çalışınız.

(Hiç katılmıyorum) (Tamamen katılıyorum)

1-----2-----3-----4-----5

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Sporda birçok değerli unsurun üstesinden gelirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Kendimi antrenmanlarımdan dolayı o kadar yorgun hissediyorum ki diğer işlerim için enerjim kalmıyor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Spora harcadığım enerjimi başka işlere harcamam daha iyi olacak. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Spor yapmaktan dolayı kendimi aşırı yorgun hissediyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Sporda istediğim başarıyı elde edemiyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Spor performansımı eskisi kadar çok önemsemiyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Spor becerilerimi artık geliştiremiyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Spor yaptıktan sonra kendimi yok olmuş gibi hissediyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Eskisi gibi spor yapamıyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Spordan dolayı kendimi fiziksel olarak yıpranmış hissediyorum | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Sporda başarılı olma hususunda eskisi kadar endişelenmiyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Sporun fiziksel ve zihinsel taleplerinden yıprandım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Kendimi ne iş olursa olsun gerektiği gibi yerine getiremeyeceğim gibi görüyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Kendimi sporda başarılı hissediyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Spora yönelik olumsuz duygulara sahibim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

APPENDIX G: ETHICAL COMMITTEE APPROVAL

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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16.04.2014

Gönderilen : Doç. Dr. Mustafa Levent Ince
Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Bölümü

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen
IAK Başkanı

İlgi : Etik Onayı

Danışmanlığını yapmış olduğunuz Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Bölümü öğrencisi Ahmet Yapar'ın "Alt Yapı Performans ve Katılım Odaklı Basketbol Antrenörlerinin Davranışları ve Çocukların Sportif Deneyimleri" isimli araştırması "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı

Uygundur

16/04/2014

Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen
Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi
(UEAM) Başkanı
ODTÜ 06531 ANKARA

APPENDIX G: TURKISH SUMMARY

TÜRKÇE ÖZET

GİRİŞ

Okul dışı organize etkinliklere katılımın çocukların ve gençlerin fiziksel, psikolojik ve sosyal gelişimlerine olumlu katkılar sağladığı yapılan araştırma bulgularında vurgulanmıştır (Bloom & Sosniak, 1985; Larson & Verma, 1999; Whiting, 1980). Organize etkinlikler arasında spor, katılımın en çok olduğu etkinlik olarak kabul edilir (De Knop, 1996). İyi organize edilmiş spor etkinlikleri çocuklarda sağlıklı beden gelişimini desteklediği; işbirliği, amaca yönelik planlama yapma, öz disiplin ve liderlik gibi yaşam deneyimleri ile psikolojik ve sosyal gelişimine fayda sağladığı; motor ve spora özgü becerilerini geliştirme fırsatları sunarak geleceğin elit sporcularını veya rekreatif katılımcılarının yetiştirmesine olanak verdiği yapılan araştırma bulgularınca desteklenmektedir. (Fraser-Thomas, Côté & Deakin, 2005).

Organize edilmiş spor etkinlikleri antrenör, sporcu ve antrenman ortamında gerçekleşen karmaşık bir yapıdan oluşmaktadır. Bu karmaşık yapıyı anlamak ve spor etkinliklerinin verimliliğini artırmak amacıyla birçok model geliştirilmiştir. Gelişimsel Spora Katılım Modeli (GSKM) (Côté, 1999; Côté, Baker & Abernethy, 2007) alan yazında geliştirilen sporcu gelişim modelleri arasında en çok tercih edilen modellerin başında gelmektedir (Bruner, Erickson, McFadden, & Côté, 2009; Bruner, Erickson, Wilson, & Côté, 2010; Côté & Vierimaa, 2014).

Antrenörler, sporcuların fiziksel, psikolojik ve sosyal gelişimlerinde önemli bir role sahiptir ve antrenmanlarını sporcularının ihtiyaçlarına yönelik olarak tasarlamaları beklenir. Antrenmanları oluşturan etkinlikler birer eğitim faaliyeti olarak düşünülmeli ve antrenörlerin davranışlarını ile antrenman etkinlikleri sporcuların yaşlarına, gelişim ve beceri düzeylerine uygun olmalıdır (Jones, 2006; Ford, Williams, & Williams, 2013). Beden eğitimi ve Spor pedagojisi alanında Öğretmen/antrenör davranışları ile ders/antrenman etkinlikleri genellikle sistematik gözlem yolu ile incelenmiştir (Deakin, Starkes, & Allard, 1998; Ford, Williams, 2013; Ford, Yates, & Williams, 2010; Jones, 2006; Low, Williams, McRobert, & Ford, 2013; Cushion & Jones, 2001; Lacy & Darst, 1985; Potrac, Jones, & Armour, 2002). Yapılan bu çalışmalar ile ideal elit antrenör davranışları ve elit sporcular için ideal antrenman etkinlikleri belirlenmeye çalışılmıştır. Ancak küçük yaş grubu sporculara yönelik olarak ideal antrenör davranışları ve onların bütünsel gelişimine yönelik antrenman etkinliklerini belirlemeye yönelik çalışmalara olan ihtiyaç gün geçtikçe artmaktadır.

Organize edilmiş spor etkinliklerine katılım çocuk ve gençlerde istenmeyen davranışların gelişmesinde önleyici olduğu yapılan çalışmalarda vurgulanmıştır. Örneğin, spor etkinliklerine katılan çocukların katılmayan akranlarına göre keyif alma ve akademik olarak daha başarılarının yüksek, alkol alma alışkanlıklarının düşük olduğu gözlenmiştir (Eccles ve Barber; 1999). İyi organize edilmiş spor etkinlikleri aynı zamanda olumlu gençlik deneyimleri geliştirmek ve desteklemek için uygun ortamlar olarak tanımlanır (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005). Çocuk ve genç bireyleri spora katılım hususunda motivasyonlarını artırmak önemli bir konu olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Genç bireylerin spora katılıma en çok motive eden unsurlardan birisi spordan keyif alma olarak belirtilir (Gill, Gross & Huddleston, 1983). Ülkemizde yapılan araştırmalarda keyif alma unsurunun spora katılımdaki en büyük motivasyon kaynaklarından birisi olduğunu göstermiştir (Şirin, Çağlayan, Çetin, & İnce, 2008). Dolaylı olarak spordan keyif alma anı zamanda olumlu gençlik deneyimleri kazanmada da fayda sağlamaktadır (MacDonald, Côté, Eys, & Deakin, 2011).

Her ne kadar organize spor programları keyif almaya yönelik etkinlikler içerse de araştırmalar organize spor etkinliklerinin diğer etkinliklere göre daha stresli bir ortam olduğunu göstermiştir (Gould, Tuffey, Udry, & Lochr, 1996). Stres, sporda tükenmişlik unsurunun birincil sebeplerinden birisidir. Katılımcıların ihtiyaçlarına uygun olmayan antrenör davranışları ve antrenman etkinlikleri sporcular üzerinde stres oluşturabilir.

Basketbol günümüzde çocuk ve gençler arasında en çok katılımı olan sporların başında gelmektedir. Gerek Avrupa gerekse dünya şampiyonalarında kulüpler ve milli takımların yakaladığı başarılar basketbola olan katılımı her geçen gün artırmaktadır (Spor Genel Müdürlüğü,2016).

Organize spor etkinliklerine katılımın sağladığı yararların bilinmesi ve yurt genelinde olanakların artışı ile birlikte basketbol etkinliklerine katılan çocuk sayısı her yıl artış göstermektedir (Spor Genel Müdürlüğü, 2016). Bu artış beraberinde daha rekabetçi ve yarışmacı ortamlarıda birlikte getirmiştir.

Çocukların üzerinde kazanma baskısı oluşturan yarışmacı ortamlar, erken yaşta spor kaynaklı yaralanma sayısında artış gibi bazı fiziksel sorunlara, sporu erken yaşta bırakma, spordan keyif almama ve adil oyundan uzaklaşma gibi psikolojik ve sosyal sorunlara da yol açmaktadır.

Bu çalışmanın amaçları 12-14 yaş aralığındaki çocuklara sunulan organize edilmiş basketbol ortamlarındaki antrenör davranışları ile antrenman etkinliklerinin sistematik gözlem yoluyla incelenmesi ve bu ortamdaki çocukların olumlu gençlik deneyimleri, spordan zevk alma ve tükenmişlik durumlarının incelenmesidir.

YÖNTEM

Katılımcılar: Antrenör davranışlarının incelenmesi ve antrenman etkinliklerinin belirlenmesi için 4 basketbol okulu antrenörü (Ort. yaş=34.0±2.7 yıl; ort. antrenörlük deneyimi= 8.2± 3.1 yıl) ve 4 basketbol takımı antrenörü (Ort. yaş=32.3±3.2 yıl; ort. antrenörlük deneyimi= 8.4± 3.3 yıl) olmak üzere toplamda 8 antrenör çalışmada yer almıştır. Antrenörler, çalıştıkları spocuların 12-14 yaş grubunda olması, basketbol okullarının popülerliği, takımların başarıları kriterlerine dikkat edilerek amaçlı örneklem yolu ile seçilmiştir.

Spor ortamındaki çocukların olumlu gençlik deneyimleri, sportif zevk alma ile tükenmişlik durumlarının incelemek için yaş, cinsiyet, spor ortamı (kulüp takımı veya basketbol okulu sporcusu olma) ve basketbol deneyimleri göz önüne alınarak amaçlı örneklem yolu ile 207 basketbol okulu sporcusu (ort. yaş = 12.7±0.7 yıl; ort. basketbol deneyimi= 2.1±0.7 yıl) ve 183 klüp takımı sporcusu (ort. yaş = 13.1±0.7 yıl; ort. basketbol deneyimi= 3.6±1.8 yıl) toplamda 390 sporcu çalışmaya dahil edilmiştir.

Veri Toplama Araçları:

Arizona Eyalet Üniversitesi Gözlem Aracı (AEÜGA)

Antrenörlerin davranışları Lacy ve Darst (1989) tarafından geliştirilmiş olan Arizona Eyalet Üniversitesi Gözlem Aracı (AEÜGA) ile yapılmıştır. AEÜGA ile antrenör davranışları *Öğretimsel, Destekleyici/Cesaretlendirici ve Öğretimsel olmayan gruplar* altında toplamda 13 davranış kategorisi altında sistematik olarak kodlanmayı sağlayan bir sistematik gözlem aracıdır. Öğretimsel davranışlar kategorisi; *Hareket öncesi öğretim, hareketle birlikte öğretim, Hareket sonrası öğretim, Soru sorma, Fiziksel yardım, Doğru model olma ve Yanlış model olma* davranış boyutlarından oluşur. Destekleyici/Cesaretlendirici davranışlar kategorisi; *Cesaretlendirici bildirimler, Övgü ve Azarlama/Kızma* davranış boyutlarından oluşur. Öğretimsel olmayan davranışlar kategorisi ise; *Yönetim davranışları, Kodlama dışı davranışlar ve sessiz kalma* davranış boyutlarından oluşur.

Antrenman Etkinlikleri ve Zaman Kullanımı Gözlem Aracı (AEZKGA)

Antrenman etkinlikleri ise Ford, Yates ve Williams (2010) tarafından geliştirilen *Antrenman Etkinlikleri ve Zaman Kullanımı Gözlem Aracı (AEZKGA)*'nin basketbola özgü uyarlanmış formu ile yapılmıştır. Bu gözlem aracı, basketbol antrenmanlarında gerçekleştirilen etkinlikleri *Çalışma türü etkinlikler* ve *Oyun türü etkinlikler* olmak olarak iki grup altında, etkinlik sürelerini de kodlamaya olanak sağlayan bir sistematik gözlem aracıdır. Çalışma türü etkinlikler *fiziksel uygunluk etkinlikleri* (ısınma,

soğuma hareketleri, kuvvet çalışmaları vb.), *Teknik çalışmaları* (top sürme veya şut alıştırmaları vb.) ve *Beceri çalışmalarından* (top sürerek rakibi geçme, stop üzeri şut çalışmaları vb.) oluşur. Oyun türü etkinlikler ise dar alan oyunları (yarı sahada bire bir, ikiye iki yapılan basketbola özgü oyunlar), Uyarlanmış edilmiş oyun etkinlikleri (dar alanlarda topa sahip olma ve pas yapma oyunları vb.) ve Oyunun parçası (basketbol taktik çalışmaları vb.) olan etkinliklerden oluşur.

Ölçeklerin Türkçeye uyarlamaları

Ölçeklerin tamamının özgün halleri İngilizcedir. Ölçeklerin Türkçe uyarlaması için Beaton ve diğerleri (2000) tarafından geliştirilen ve uluslararası ölçek uyarlama çalışmalarında kabul görmüş kültürler arası özbildirim ölçekleri uyarlama rehberi esas alınmıştır. Bu rehber göre ölçek ana dili Türkçe olan bir uzman tarafından İngilizce dilinden Türkçeye çevrilmiş ve çeviri hakkında görüşleri alınmıştır. Türkçe çeviri iki beden eğitimi ve spor alanında uzman tarafından kontrol edilmiş ve ölçek maddelerinin ölçmek istenilen kavramlar için anlaşılır olup olmadığı belirlenmiştir. Alan uzmanlarının kontrolünden sonra ölçek tekrardan İngilizce dil uzmanınca İngilizceye çevrilmiş ve bu çeviri ile özgün ölçeğin maddeleri arasındaki benzerlik bağımsız bir İngilizce dil bilimcisine kontrol ettirilmiştir. Kontrollerden ve son düzeltmelerden geçen ölçeğin Türkçe uyarlaması 15 çocuk basketbolcuya uygulanmış ve uygulama sonunda soruların anlaşılır olup olmadığı çocuk sporcular ile yapılan yüz yüze görüşmelerde kontrol edilmiştir. Bu görüşmelerden elde edilen bilgiler ile Türkçe dil uzmanı ile görüşmeler yapılmış ve ölçeğe son hali verilmiştir.

Ölçeklerin psiko-metrik uyarlaması için Türkçe formu Ankara ilinde kulüp takımlarında ve basketbol okullarında basketbol oynayan toplam 287 çocuk sporcuya uygulanmıştır. Yapı geçerliliğini kontrol etmek amacıyla elde edilen verilere önce açıklayıcı faktör uygulanmış ve maddelerin hangi alt boyutlar altında toplandığı gözlenmiştir. Ardından Gözlenen alt boyutların boyutları doğrulayıcı faktör analizine tabi tutularak ölçeğin geçerliliği test edilmiştir. Ölçeğin güvenilirliği için Cronbach Alpha değeri iç tutarlılık değeri hesaplanmıştır.

Spordan Edinilen Gençlik Deneyimleri Ölçeği (SEGDÖ)

Çocuk basketbolcuların spora katılım yoluyla edindikleri olumlu ve olumsuz olumlu gençlik deneyimleri Spordan Edinilen Gençlik Deneyimleri Ölçeği (SEGDÖ, MacDonald, Côté, Eys, & Deakin, 2012) ile belirlenmiştir. SEGDÖ'nün Türkçe uyarlanmış hali "hiç katılmıyorum" ve "tamamen katılıyorum" aralığında 4'lü Likert şeklinde düzenlenmiş olup toplamda 29

maddeden ve 5 alt boyuttan oluşmaktadır. Alt boyutlar; Bireysel ve sosyal beceriler (12 madde), Bilişsel beceriler (4 madde), Hedef belirleme (4 madde), Girişimcilik (4 madde) ve Olumsuz deneyimlerdir (5 madde).

Sporadan Zevk Alma Kaynakları Ölçeği (SZAKÖ)

Çocukların spordan aldıkları zevkler, Sporadan Zevk Alma Kaynakları Ölçeği (SZAKÖ, Wiersma, 2001). SZAKÖ'nün Türkçeye uyarlanmış hali “hiç katılmıyorum” ve “tamamen katılıyorum” aralığında 5'li Likert şeklinde düzenlenmiş olup toplamda 6 boyut ve 27 maddeden oluşur. Ölçeğin alt boyutları Öz kaynaklı yeterlik (4 madde), Yarışma heyecanı (3 madde), Efor harcama (5 madde), Dış kaynaklı yeterlik (6 madde), Akran bağlılığı (5 madde) ve Olumlu aile desteğidir (4 madde).

Sporcu Tükenmişlik Ölçeği (STÖ)

Katılımcıların tükenmişlik durumları ise Sporcu Tükenmişlik Ölçeği (STÖ, Raedeker & Smith, 2001) uygulanarak belirlenmiştir. STÖ'nün Türkçeye uyarlanmış hali “hiç katılmıyorum” ve “tamamen katılıyorum” aralığında 5'li Likert şeklinde düzenlenmiş olup toplamda 15 madde ve 3 alt boyuttan oluşur. Ölçeğin alt boyutları Duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik (5 madde), Başarma arzusunundaki azalma (5 madde) ve Değer kaybıdır (5 madde).

Verilerin Toplanması: Her antrenörün üçer kez (sezon başı, sezon ortası ve sezon sonu) olmak üzere 8 toplamda 24 antrenmanı video kaydı alınmıştır. Video kayıtları alınırken antrenman ortamının doğal akışını bozmamak için doğal gözlem metodu (naturalistic observation) kullanılmış ve antrenörlerin konuşmaları kablosuz mini mikrofon yardımı ile görüntü ile eşzamanlı olarak videoya kaydedilmiştir.

Antrenör davranışlarının ve antrenman etkinliklerinin sistematik olarak kodlanmasına geçilmeden önce gözlemci ölçme araçlarının kullanımı konusunda eğitim almıştır. Gözlem araçlarının güvenilirlik çalışmalarında, antrenör davranışı gözlemleri için gözlemler arası % 80.2 ve gözlemler içi % 93.1 tutarlılık; antrenman etkinlikleri ve zaman kullanımı için gözlemler arası % 87.1 ve gözlemler içi % 96.1 tutarlılık güvenilirliği hesaplanmıştır.

Çocuk basketbolcular SEGDO, SZAKÖ, STÖ'nün Türkçe uyarlamalarını sezon sonu dönemde antrenman öncesinde araştırmacının gözetiminde doldurmuşlardır.

Verilerin Analizi: Antrenör davranışları 10 saniye aralıklı kodlama yöntemi kullanılarak belirlenmiştir. Kaydedilen videolarda antrenörlerin gözlenen davranışları 10 saniyelik aralıklarla AEÜGA'nın davranış

kategorilerine göre kodlanarak antrenör davranışlarının hangi davranış gruplarında kümelendiği sayısal ve yüzdeler olarak belirlenmiştir. Basketbol okulu ve kulüp takımı antrenörlerinin davranışları arasındaki fark ise Mann Whitney U testi ile kontrol edilmiştir ($p < .05$). Antrenman etkinlikleri ve zaman kullanımı için videolar tekrar izlenerek her antrenman etkinliğinin başlangıç ve bitiş zamanları belirlenmiş ve etkinliğin türü (alıştırma /oyun) gözlem formuna işaretlenerek antrenmanlarda yapılan etkinliklerin türü sayısal olarak belirlenmiştir.

Basketbol okulu ve kulüp takımı ortamlarında basketbol oynayan çocukların spordan edindikleri gençlik deneyimleri, spordan zevk alma kaynakları, sportif tükenmişlik durumlarını arasındaki fark MANOVA kullanılarak kontrol edilmiştir. Spordan edinilen gençlik deneyimlerini hangi sportif zevk ve tükenmişlik faktörlerinin belirlediğini belirlemek içinse Adimsal Çoklu Regresyon Analizi yapılmıştır ($p < .05$)

BULGULAR

Antrenör Davranışları

Antrenör davranışları 12 basketbol okulu ve 12 kulüp takımı olmak üzere toplamda 24 antrenmanın video kayıtlarını sistematik gözlem yolu ile incelenmiştir. Bu analizler sonucunda 1832 dakikalık antrenman video kaydı içerisinde 10992 antrenör davranışı kodlanmıştır. Bu verilerin 1104 dakikalık kısmı kulüp takımı antrenmanlarından oluşmakta ve 6624 antrenör davranışı kulüp takımı antrenörlerinin davranışlarından oluşmaktadır. Kalan 728 dakika ve 4368 davranış ise basketbol okulu antrenörlerinin sergiledikleri davranışlardan oluşmaktadır.

Araştırma bulguları, her iki organize basketbol altyapı ortamlarında antrenör davranışlarının aralarında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir (Tablo 1).

Her iki basketbol ortamında antrenörlerin yoğun olarak öğretimsel davranışlar sergiledikleri gözlenmiştir. Öğretimsel davranışları Destekleyici/ Cesaretlendirici davranışlar takip etmiştir. Antrenörlerin sergiledikleri öğretimsel olmayan davranışlar kategorisi ise diğer iki kategoriye göre daha az sayıda gözlemlenmiştir (Tablo 2).

Tablo 1. Antrenör davranışlarının karşılaştırılması (Mann-Whitney U test bulguları)

| | <i>Mdn</i> | <i>U</i> | <i>z</i> | <i>p</i> |
|---|------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Öğretimsel davranışlar | 2.59 | 8.000 | .000 | 1.000 |
| Destekleyici/Cesaretlendirici davranışlar | 1.88 | 6.500 | -.461 | .645 |
| Öğretimsel olmayan davranışlar | 1.54 | 4.500 | -.1.23 | .306 |

*Notlar: Mdn = Medyan, U = Mann-Whitney U testi sonucu, z = Z puanı *p < .05*

Tablo 2. Antrenör davranışlarının gruplara göre dağılımı.

| Davranış Grupları | Basketbol Okulu Antrenörleri | | | | Klüp Antrenörleri | | | Takımı |
|---|------------------------------|--------|-------|------|-------------------|--------|-------|--------|
| | Zaman | Toplam | % | RpM | Zaman | Toplam | % | RpM |
| Öğretimsel davranışlar | 312 | 1871 | 42.83 | 2.57 | 474 | 2848 | 43.00 | 2.58 |
| Destekleyici/ Cesaretlendirici davranışlar | 231 | 1384 | 31.68 | 1.90 | 348 | 2087 | 31.50 | 1.89 |
| Öğretimsel olmayan davranışlar | 185 | 1113 | 25.48 | 1.53 | 282 | 1689 | 25.50 | 1.53 |
| Toplam davranış sayıları | 728 | 4368 | 100 | 6,00 | 1104 | 6624 | 100 | 6,00 |

Notlar: Zaman = davranışa ayrılan zaman, Toplam = Toplam davranış sayısı, RpM = Rate per Min oranı.

Antrenman etkinlikleri bulguları

Antrenman etkinliklerinin her iki ortam içinde yoğunluklu olarak çalışma türü etkinliklerden oluştuğu ve Oyun türü etkinliklere antrenörlerce daha az tercih edildiği gözlenmiştir.

Betimsel analiz bulgularına göre 24 antrenmanda toplam 153 etkinlik gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bunlardan 131 (%87.44) tanesi çalışma türü etkinliklerden oluşurken 22 (%12.56) tanesi oyun türü etkinliklerden oluşmaktadır.

Kulüp takımı antrenmanlarında toplamda 86 etkinlik yapılmış ve bu etkinliklerin 73 (%84.88) tanesi çalışma türü etkinliklerden oluşurken 13 (%15.22) tanesi çalışma türü etkinliklerden oluşmuştur. Basketbol okulu antrenmanlarında ise toplamda 67 etkinlik yapılmış ve bu etkinliklerin 58 (%86.57) tanesi çalışma türü etkinliklerden oluşurken 9 (%13.43) tanesi oyun türü etkinliklerden oluşmuştur. (Tablo 3)

Bulgular kulüp takımı antrenman etkinliklerinin basketbol okulu etkinliklerinden fazla olduğunu göstermiştir. Bunun nedeni kulüp takımı antrenman sürelerinin basketbol okulu antrenman sürelerinden daha uzun olmasından kaynaklıdır.

Tablo 3. Antrenman etkinliklerinin dağılımı

| | Toplam | ÇTE | % | OTE | % |
|--|--------|-----|--------|-----|--------|
| Kulüp takımı Antrenman Etkinlikleri | 86 | 73 | 84.88% | 13 | 15.12% |
| Basketbol Okulu Antrenman Etkinlikleri | 67 | 58 | 86.57% | 9 | 13.43% |
| Genel Toplam | 153 | 131 | 85.67% | 22 | 14.38% |

Notlar: Total=Toplam gözlenen etkinlik sayısı, ÇTE= Çalışma türü etkinliklerin sayısı, OTE= Oyun türü etkinliklerin sayısı

Basketbol okulu ve kulüp takımı basketbolcularının spordan edindikleri gençlik deneyimleri (SEGDÖ) karşılaştırıldığında bireysel ve sosyal beceriler, Bilişsel beceriler, Hedef belirleme ve Girişimcilik alt boyutlarında anlamlı bir farkı bulunmazken Olumsuz deneyimler alt boyutunda anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur [$F(1,388) = 55.028, p=.000, \eta^2=.12$] (Tablo 5). Her iki grubun ortalama puanları incelendiğinde basketbol okulu sporcularının ($\bar{x} = 1.48$) olumsuz deneyim puanlarının kulüp takımı sporcularının ($\bar{x} = 1.73$) puanlarından az olduğu gözlemlenmiştir (Tablo 4).

Tablo 4. SEGDÖ için betimsel istatistikler

| | Basketbol okulu (n=207) | | Kulüp takımı (n=183) | |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|-----|-------------------------|-----|
| | Ort. | SS | Ort. | SS |
| Bireysel ve sosyal beceriler | 3.51 | .29 | 3.49 | .31 |
| Bilişsel beceriler | 3.21 | .54 | 3.13 | .56 |
| Hedef belirleme | 3.35 | .34 | 3.32 | .27 |
| Girişimcilik | 3.53 | .36 | 3.51 | .38 |
| Olumsuz deneyimler | 1.48 | .39 | 1.73 | .24 |

Not: Ort.= Ortalama, SS= Standart sapma

Tablo 5. SEGDÖ için MANOVA bulguları

| SEGDÖ MANOVA bulguları | F | P | η^2 |
|------------------------------|--------|-------|----------|
| Bireysel ve sosyal beceriler | .420 | .517 | .001 |
| Bilişsel beceriler | 3.661 | .056 | .009 |
| Hedef belirleme | 1.388 | .240 | .004 |
| Girişimcilik | .221 | .638 | .001 |
| Olumsuz deneyimler | 55.028 | .000* | .124 |

* $p < .05$

Basketbol okulu ve kulüp takımı basketbolcularının spordan zevk alma kaynakları (SZAKÖ) karşılaştırıldığında iki grup arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır (Tablo 6). Her iki grubun ölçekteki maddelere verdikleri cevapların ortalama değerleri incelendiğinde ortalamanın üzerinde bir zevk alma durumunun olduğu söylenebilir (Tablo 7). Her iki grubun ortalama puanları incelendiğinde en yüksek puanın olumlu aile desteği alt boyutunda olduğunu ($\bar{x} = 4.74$), bunu sırası ile dış kaynaklı yeterlik ($\bar{x} = 4.69$), yarışma heyecanı ($\bar{x} = 4.63$), efor harcama ($\bar{x} = 4.42$), öz kaynaklı yeterlik ($\bar{x} = 3.61$) ve akran bağlılığı ($\bar{x} = 3.59$) alt boyutlarının izlediği gözlemlenmiştir.

Tablo 6. SZAKÖ MANOVA bulguları

| | <i>F</i> | <i>P</i> | η^2 |
|-----------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Öz kaynaklı yeterlik | .089 | .766 | .000 |
| Yarışma heyecanı | 1.360 | .244 | .003 |
| Efor harcama | 5.139 | .065 | .013 |
| Dış kaynaklı yeterlik | .022 | .883 | .000 |
| Akran bağlılığı | .640 | .424 | .002 |
| Olumlu aile desteği | .071 | .790 | .000 |

* $p < .05$

Tablo 7. SZAKÖ için betimsel istatistikler

| | Basketbol okulu (n=207) | | Kulüp takımı (n=183) | |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|------|-------------------------|-----|
| | Ort. | SS | Ort. | SS |
| Öz kaynaklı yeterlik | 3.61 | 2.27 | 3.62 | .26 |
| Yarışma heyecanı | 4.63 | .26 | 4.76 | .27 |
| Efor harcama | 4.42 | .67 | 4.45 | .45 |
| Dış kaynaklı yeterlik | 4.69 | .28 | 4.70 | .36 |
| Akran bağlılığı | 3.59 | .27 | 3.61 | .20 |
| Olumlu aile desteği | 4.74 | .30 | 4.75 | .26 |

Not: Ort. = Ortalama, SS = Standart sapma

MANOVA bulgularına göre basketbol okulu ile kulüp takımı sporcularının arasında STÖ'nün başarıma arzusundaki azalma ve değer kaybı alt boyutları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunmazken duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik alt boyutunda istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur [$F(1,388) = 10.309, p = .001, \eta^2 = .026$] (Tablo 9). Her iki

gruptaki sporcuların duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik alt boyutuna verdikleri puanların ortalamaları incelendiğinde kulüp takımı sporcularının ortalama puanının ($\bar{x} = 1.86$) basketbol okulu sporcularınınkinden ($\bar{x} = 1.65$) yüksek olduğu gözlemlenmiştir (Tablo 8)

Tablo 8. STÖ için betimsel istatistikler

| | Basketbol okulu (n=207) | | Kulüp takımı (n=183) | |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------|-----|-------------------------|-----|
| | Ort. | SS | Ort. | SS |
| Duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik | 1.65 | .65 | 1.86 | .67 |
| Başarma arzusundaki azalma | 1.43 | .40 | 1.45 | .45 |
| Değer kaybı | 1.44 | .50 | 1.52 | .56 |

Not: Ort. = Ortalama, SS= Standart sapma

Tablo 9. STÖ MANOVA bulguları

| | F | P | η^2 |
|----------------------------------|--------|-------|----------|
| Duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik | 10.339 | .001* | .026 |
| Başarma arzusundaki azalma | .260 | .611 | .001 |
| Değer kaybı | 2.089 | .149 | .005 |

* $p < .05$

Spordan edinilen gençlik deneyimlerinin, spordan keyif alma ve sporda tükenmişlik değişkenlerince nasıl açıklandığını sınamak için adimsal çoklu regresyon analizi kullanılmıştır. Analiz bulgularına göre SEGDÖ'nün bireysel ve sosyal beceriler alt boyutunu SZAKÖ'nün efor harcama, yarışma heyecanı ve akran bağlılığı alt boyutları olumlu olarak açıklamıştır. SEGDÖ'nün bilişsel beceriler alt boyutunu SZAKÖ'nün olumlu aile desteği ve Yarışma heyecanı pozitif yönde açıklarken STÖ'nün duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik ve başarıma arzusundaki azalma negatif yönde açıklamıştır. SEGDÖ'nün hedef belirleme alt boyutu SZAKÖ'nün efor harcama ve yarışma heyecanı alt boyutları tarafında pozitif yönde açıklanmıştır. SEGDÖ'nün Girişimcilik alt boyutu SZAKÖ'nün olumlu aile desteği, akran bağlılığı ve dış kaynaklı yeterlik alt boyutları tarafından pozitif yönde açıklanırken STÖ'nün duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik alt boyutu tarafından negatif yönde açıklanmıştır. SEGDÖ'nün olumsuz deneyimler alt boyutu SZAKÖ'nün efor harcama ve olumlu aile desteği alt boyutları tarafından negatif yönde açıklanırken STÖ'nün duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik ve başarıma arzusundaki azalma alt boyutları tarafından pozitif yönde açıklanmıştır.

Tablo 10. Adımsal çoklu regresyon analizi bulguları

| | Anlamlı yordayıcılar | F | MS | B | p | r ² |
|------------------------------|----------------------------------|---------|--------|-------|------|----------------|
| Bireysel ve sosyal beceriler | Efor harcama | 425.15 | 18.370 | .251 | .000 | .522 |
| | Yarışma heyecanı | | 10.401 | .397 | .000 | .590 |
| | Akran bağlılığı | | 7.195 | .173 | .000 | .611 |
| Bilişsel beceriler | Olumlu aile desteği | 134.99 | 41.178 | .217 | .000 | .341 |
| | Yarışma heyecanı | | 29.457 | .292 | .000 | .488 |
| | Duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik | | 20.498 | -.451 | .000 | .508 |
| | Başarım arzusundaki azalma | | 17.666 | -.559 | .000 | .584 |
| Hedef belirleme | Efor harcama | 87.920 | 9.557 | .251 | .000 | .253 |
| | Yarışma heyecanı | | 5.854 | .397 | .000 | .309 |
| Girişimcilik | Olumlu aile desteği | 25.626 | 3.931 | .388 | .000 | .071 |
| | Duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik | | 3.851 | -.354 | .000 | .139 |
| | Akran bağlılığı | | 3.430 | .246 | .000 | .185 |
| | Dış kaynaklı yeterlik | | 3.079 | -.196 | .000 | .221 |
| | Efor harcama | 106.269 | 20.156 | -.658 | .000 | .234 |
| Olumsuz deneyimler | Duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik | | 20.705 | .260 | .000 | .478 |
| | Başarım arzusundaki azalma | | 14.554 | .471 | .000 | .507 |
| | Olumlu aile desteği | | 11.308 | -.213 | .000 | .525 |

$p < .001$

TARTIŞMA

Spor ortamları katılımcıların yaşına ve beceri gelişimi durumuna göre farklı ihtiyaçlara yönelik olarak faaliyetlerden oluşmalıdır. Bu çalışmada yer alan basketbol okulları spora katılımın gelişimsel modeline göre, rekreatif katılımın ilk yıllarına; kulüp takımları ise özelleşme döneminin ilk yıllarını temsil etmektedir.

Basketbol altyapı faaliyetleri için kulüp takımları yarışmacı ortamları temsil ederken, basketbol okulları yarışmacı olmayan ortamları temsil etmektedir. Her iki ortamın ihtiyaçları ve hedefleri birbirinden farklıdır. Bu farklılıklara gereken önemin verilmesi ve sağlayacağı faydalar alan yazında belirtilmesine rağmen uygulamalardaki farklılıklar göze çarpmaktadır. Farklı amaca yönelik spor ortamlarında antrenör davranışlarının ve antrenman etkinliklerin katılımcıların yaş, beceri ve amacına yönelik olması gerekmektedir (Lyle, 2002; Côté, Young, North & Duffy, 2007).

Bu çalışmanın bulguları her iki altyapı basketbol ortamında benzer antrenör davranışlarının olduğunu ve yapılan etkinliklerinin daha çok çalışma amaçlı olduğu gözlenmiştir. Çalışma türü etkinlikler daha çok büyük yaş grubu çocukların yarışma amaçlı yetiştirilmesi için tercih edilen etkinliklerdir. 12-14 yaş basketbol altyapı etkinlikleri Oyun ve Çalışma türü etkinliklerin dengeli olarak uygulandığı ortamlar olmalıdır. Ford ve diğ.(2010) tarafından yapılan çalışmada 25 çocuk futbol antrenörünün öğretimsel davranışlarını ve antrenman etkinlikleri incelenmiştir. İncelenen 70 antrenman sonucunda katılımcıların daha çok çalışma türü etkinliklerde zaman geçirdiğini (%65), oyun türü etkinliklerde ise az zaman geçirdikleri gözlemlenmiştir. Bu çalışmanın bulguları çocuk basketbol ortamlarında da benzer bir durumun varlığını ortaya koymuştur. Ford ve diğerleri (2010) çalışmalarının bulgularına bağlı olarak genç ve spora yeni başlayan bireylerin yoğun olarak oyun türü etkinlikler içeren ortamlarda bulunmalarının spora özgü beceri ile oyun performansı arasında ilişki kurmada daha yararlı olacağını tavsiye etmiştir.

Bir başka çalışmada Low ve diğerleri (2013) 9 ve 12 yaş aralığında bulunan rekreatif kriket oyuncularını ile 13 ve 17 yaş aralığında bulunan yarışmacı kriket sporcularının antrenman etkinlik türlerini incelemiştir. Çalışmanın bulguları her iki ortam için bezerlik göstermiş ve genel bulgulara göre kriket sporcularının antrenmanlarda çalışma türü etkinliklere (%69) oyun türü etkinliklerden (%31) daha fazla katıldığını göstermiştir. Low ve diğerlerin (2013) yaptığı çalışma bulgularında bu çalışmanın bulgularını destekler niteliktedir.

Deakin ve Colbey (2003) elit sporcular ile yaptığı çalışma da ise elit sporcuların antrenmanlarda oyun türü etkinliklere çalışma türü etkinliklere göre daha fazla zaman ayırdığını göstermiştir. Deakin ve Colbey (2003) tarafından yapılan çalışmanın bulguları elit düzey sporcuların antrenmanlarda daha çok taktiksel çalışmalar ile oyun çalışmaları yaptıklarını belirtmiştir.

Bu çalışmanın bulgularında antrenörlerin beceri öğretimi ve gelişimi sürecinde daha çok drill türü amaçlı alıştırımlar yaptıklarını göstermiştir. Ancak basketbol gibi takım oyunlarında bir becerinin veya tekniğin izole olarak öğrenimin oyun içi performansın tek belirleyici olmadığı, algısal ve zihinsel gelişimin de oyun ortamını algılama ve doğru karar vermede etkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Antrenman etkinliklerinde beceri gelişiminin yanı sıra algısal ve zihinsel gelişime destek veren oyun türü etkinliklerin özellikle çocuk yaş grubu antrenmanlarda daha fazla yer verilmesi gereklidir (Williams & Ford, 2013).

Antrenörlerin sergiledikleri davranışların da antrenman etkinlikleri kadar sporcu üzerinde etkili olduğu bilinmektedir. Bu çalışmanın bulguları antrenörlerin sergiledikleri öğretimsel davranışların hem basketbol okulu (%42.83) hem de kulüp takımı (%43.00) antrenmanlarında en çok gözlenen davranış olduğunu göstermiştir. Öğretimsel davranışları sırası ile destekleyici/cesaretlendirici davranışlar ve öğretimsel olmayan davranışlar izlemiştir.

Antrenör davranışlarını inceleyen çalışmalar büyük oranda elit düzey antrenörler ile birlikte yapılmıştır. Bu çalışmaların en bilineni Tharp ve Gilmore'un (1976) antrenör John Wooden 'nın davranışlarını inceledikleri çalışmadır. Bu çalışmanın bulguları Wooden'ın antrenmanlarda yoğun olarak öğretimsel davranışlar sergilediğini göstermiştir. Başka bir çalışmada ise Becker ve Wrisberg (2008) antrenör Patt Summitt'in davranışlarını incelemiştir. Çalışmanın bulguları, diğer elit düzey antrenörlerin çalışmalarına benzer olarak, antrenör Summitt'in antrenman esnasında en çok öğretimsel davranışlar sergilediğini göstermiştir. Bu çalışmanın bulguları alan yazındaki elit antrenör davranışlarını araştıran çalışmaların bulguları ile paralellik göstermektedir. Ancak bu çalışmada alt yapılarda görev yapan antrenör davranışları incelemiştir. Antrenör davranışlarının buldukları ortamın ihtiyaç ve hedeflerine uygun olması uzun vade de sporcuların gelişimine olumlu katkı sağlayacağı alan yazındaki çalışmalarda vurgulanmıştır (Côté ve diğ., 2005; Côté, ve diğ 2007).

Organize spor etkinliklerine katılımın sağladığı faydalar arasında çocukların olumlu gençlik deneyimleri kazanması önemli bir yer tutar. Ancak, artan imkanlar ve kalabalıklaşan nüfusa bağlı olarak spor ortamlarındaki rekabet her geçen gün daha küçük yaş gruplarına doğru inmektedir. Alt yapı basketbol faaliyetleri arasında yarışmacı gruplar için erken dönemlerde uzmanlaşma ve yoğun antrenmanlar gözlenir durumdadır. Bu rekabetçi ortam ve yoğun antrenmanlar spor ortamlarındaki antrenörleri, sporcuları ve velileri de etkilemekte buna bağlı olarak çocukların edindikleri yaşam deneyimlerinde farklılıklara da neden olabilmektedir. Rekreatif katılımı temsil eden basketbol okulu sporcuları ile yarışmacı grubu temsil eden kulüp takımlarının birbirlerinden bu anlamda farklılaşması beklenmektedir. Çalışmanın bulguları sporda edinilen gençlik deneyiminin olumlu alt boyutlarına her iki grup arasında bir farklılık olmadığını fakat olumsuz deneyimler alt boyutunda istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir farklılığın olduğunu göstermiştir. Olumsuz gençlik deneyimi alt boyutunda gözlenen farklılığın bir nedeni kulüp takımı sporcularının basketbol okulu sporcularına göre daha fazla sayıda ve daha uzun süreli antrenman yapıyor olması kaynaklı olabilir.

Bireylerin spora katılımı sürdürmesinin en önemli unsurlarından birisi de yapılan etkinlikten zevk almaktır (Scanlan ve diğerleri, 1992). Çocuk ve gençlerin spora katılımdan zevk almaları önlerin geleceğin elit sporcuları veya rekreatif katılımcıları olmalarına olanak sağlayacaktır. Bu çalışmanın bulguları da her iki ortamda spor yapan çocukların katıldıkları organize spor etkinliklerinden aldıkları zevk kaynakları bakımından anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir. Her iki grup bireylerinin verdikleri puanlar incelendiğinde çocuklar ailelerinin spor deneyimlerine olumlu katkısından zevk aldıklarını göstermiştir. Ancak başkalarından iyi olma, gelişim için çaba saf etme, yarışmalarda iyi oynama gibi diğer zevk kaynaklarına verdikleri puanların bireysel gelişim ve akran ilişkilerinin önüne geçmiş olması buldukları ortamların ne kadar rekabet içerdiğinin bir göstergesidir.

Tükenmişlik spor ortamının istenmeyen sonuçlarından birisidir ve genellikle etkinlikten keyfi almama sonucu katılımın bırakılması olarak tanımlanır (Smith, 1986). Tükenmişliğin başlıca nedenleri arasında aşırı sportif yüklenme, aşırı stres ve yorgunluk gelmektedir. (Coakley, 1992; Gould, Tuffey, Udry, & Lochr, 1996; Schmidt & Stein, 1991). Readake (1997) tükenmişlik durumlarını duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik, başarıma arzusundaki azalma ve değer kaybı olarak gruplamıştır. Bu çalışmanın bulguları basketbol okulu ve kulüp takımı sporcularının tükenmişlik durumları arasında başarıma arzusundaki azalma ve değer kaybı alt boyutlarında anlamlı bir olmadığını ancak duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik alt boyutunda istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermiştir. Raedeke'nin (1997) çalışma bulgularına göre genç sporcularda tükenmişlik durumunun en sık gözlemlendiği ortamlar sporcuların yoğun antrenman dönemlerinde olduğunu gösterir. Katılımcıların verdikleri puanların ortalamaları incelendiğinde duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik boyutu için kulüp takımı sporcularının ortalama puanlarının basketbol okulu sporcularından daha yüksek olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Kulüp takımı sporcuları basketbol okulu sporcularına göre daha fazla sayıda ve uzunlukta antrenman yapıyor olması bu durumun nedeni olabilir.

Özetleyecek olursak spordan edinilen gençlik deneyimleri, spordan keyif alma kaynakları ve sportif tükenmişlik düzeyleri arasındaki benzerlik her iki ortamda yapılan antrenman faaliyetlerinin ve antrenör davranışlarının benzer olmasından kaynaklanırken, SEGDO'nün olumsuz davranışlar ve STÖ'nün Duygusal ve Fiziksel Tükenmişlik alt boyutlarında gözlenen farklılık kulüp takımlarının daha fazla sayıda antrenman yapmasından kaynaklanmış olabilir.

Spor olumlu gençlik deneyimlerinin kazanılmasına en uygun ortamı sağlamaktadır (Fredricks & Eccles, 2006). Ancak spor ortamındaki birçok

faktör olumlu gençlik deneyiminin edinilmesini etki eder. Yapılan spordan keyif alma bireyin spor ortamında daha fazla kalmasına ve olumlu gençlik deneyimlerinin kazanılmasına olanak sağlarken, sportif tükenmişlik bireyi spor ortamından uzaklaştırarak olumlu gençlik deneyimlerini kazanmasını sınırlandırmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın bulguları, alt yapı basketbol ortamlarında çocukların fiziksel gayretlerinin desteklenmesinin ve uygun yarışma ortamlarının sağlanarak arkadaşlık duygusunun pekiştirildiği ortamların sağlanması halinde çocukların bireysel ve sosyal gelişimlerinin destekleneceğini göstermiştir. McCarthy ve Jones (2007) ile Wiersma (2001) tarafından yapılan çalışmalarda yarışma heyecanının yetişkinleri olduğu kadar genç ve çocukların da olumlu gelişimlerine katkı sağladığını göstermiştir. Ayrıca Smith ve diğerleri (2007) ile Weiss ve Williams'ın (2004) yaptığı çalışmalar akran ilişkilerinin çocuk ve gençlerde olumlu gençlik deneyimlerini desteklediğini bulmuştur. Altyapı basketbol ortamında spor yapan çocukların bilişsel gelişimlerini ile ailenin olumlu desteği ve yarışma heyecanı katkı sağlarken olumu bir ilişki varken, duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik ile başarı arzusundaki azalma ile olumsuz bir ilişki olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Çalışma bulguları ailelerin çocuğu cesaretlendirici, destekleyici ve kabullenici tutumu ile antrenman veya müsabakaları takip etmesi çocuğun spordan keyif almasına (Leff & Hoyle, 1995; Scanlan & Lewthwaite, 1986), performansına değer vermesine (Smith, Zingale, & Coleman, 1978) ve kendine değer vermesine (Coopersmith, 1967) katkı sağlamaktadır. Antrenmanlarda harcanan efor ile yarışmaya karşı duyulan heyecan çocuk ve gençlerin hedef belirlemeye yönelik deneyimlerini olumlu yönde etkilemektedir. Çocuk basketbolcularda girişimcilik olumlu aile desteği ve akran bağlılığı ile desteklenirken dış kaynaklı yeterlik çocukların girişimcilik deneyimlerini olumsuz yönde etkilemektedir. Alt yapı basketbol ortamlarında karşılaşılan olumsuz deneyimler iki ortam arasında farklılık göstermekle beraber çocukların antrenman ve müsabakalarda sergiledikleri efor ve beraberinde olumlu aile desteği çocukların olumsuz deneyimler kazanmasını engellerken duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik ile başarı arzusundaki azalma olumsuz deneyimler yaşama ihtimallerini artırmaktadır.

Genel olarak Olumlu gençlik deneyimleri yarışma heyecanı, efor harcama, akran bağlılığı, olumlu aile desteği gibi faktörlerle açıklanırken; duygusal ve fiziksel tükenmişlik ve başarı arzusundaki azalma daha çok olumsuz deneyimler faktörleri olumsuz deneyimleri açıklamıştır. Ayrıca basketbol için kullanılan bu araçlar başka spor dallarında da kolaylıkla uyarlanabilir ve farklı spor türünden ve seviyeden antrenörlerin davranışları incelenebilir.

SONUÇ VE ÖNERİLER

Bu çalışmada kullanılan antrenör davranışlarını değerlendirme aracı ile antrenman etkinlikleri belirleme arası antrenörlerin bireysel olarak kullanabileceği ve bulgular aracılığı ile yansıma yaparak bireysel gelişimine katkı sağlama imkanı sunmaktadır. Ayrıca basketbol için kullanılan bu araçlar başka spor dallarına da kolaylıkla uyarlanabilir ve farklı spor türünden ve seviyeden antrenörlerin davranışları incelenebilir.

Çalışma bulguları antrenör davranışlarının ve antrenman etkinliklerinin her iki altyapı basketbol ortamında benzer olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu çalışma ve gelecekte yapılacak çalışmalarla sporcuların yaşına, gelişime ve spora katılım amacına yönelik olarak ideal davranış şekillerinin oluşturulması ve bununla beraber uygun antrenman etkinliklerinin geliştirilmesi mümkün olacaktır.

Çocukların spor ortamından edindikleri olumlu gençlik deneyimlerinin artırılması için organize spor etkinliklerinin eğlenceli ve zevk verici hale getirilerek sportif tükenmişliğin azalmasını sağlamak amacıyla bu çalışma bulguları bir çıkış noktası niteliğindedir.

Çalışmaya katılan çocuklar gerek spordan keyif almalarını sağladıkları gerekse olumlu gençlik deneyimlerini destekleyen en önemli unsurlardan birisini olumlu aile katılımı olduğunu göstermiştir. Ailelerin çocukların spor ortamında en üst seviyede fayda sağlaması için gereken bilgiler doğrultusunda bilgilendirilmesi çalışma bulgularınca önerilmektedir.

Spor kulübü ve basketbol okulu yöneticilerinin çocuk spor ortamlarındaki farklı spor ortamlarından oluştuğunu göz önünde tutarak antrenör görevlendirmelerini ve bu ortamın ihtiyaçları ve amacı doğrultusunda hizmet vermeleri hususunda gerekli desteği sağlamaları çalışmanın bir diğer önerisidir.

Bu çalışma çocukların altyapı basketbol ortamlarında görev yapan olan antrenörlerin antrenörlük pedagojilerine, bilişsel gelişimlerine önemli katkılar sağlayacağı gibi, antrenör yetiştiren kurumlara da önemli bilgiler sunmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın bulguları ve devamında gelecek olan çalışmalar, yetişen ve gelecek nesilleri yetiştirmede çağdaş yaklaşımların alan uygulamalarıyla buluşmasında yol gösterici olacaktır.

Comparison of Practice Activities, Coaching Behaviors, and Athletes' Psychosocial Outcomes in Two Youth Basketball Contexts

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