

2.1 Leadership (I)

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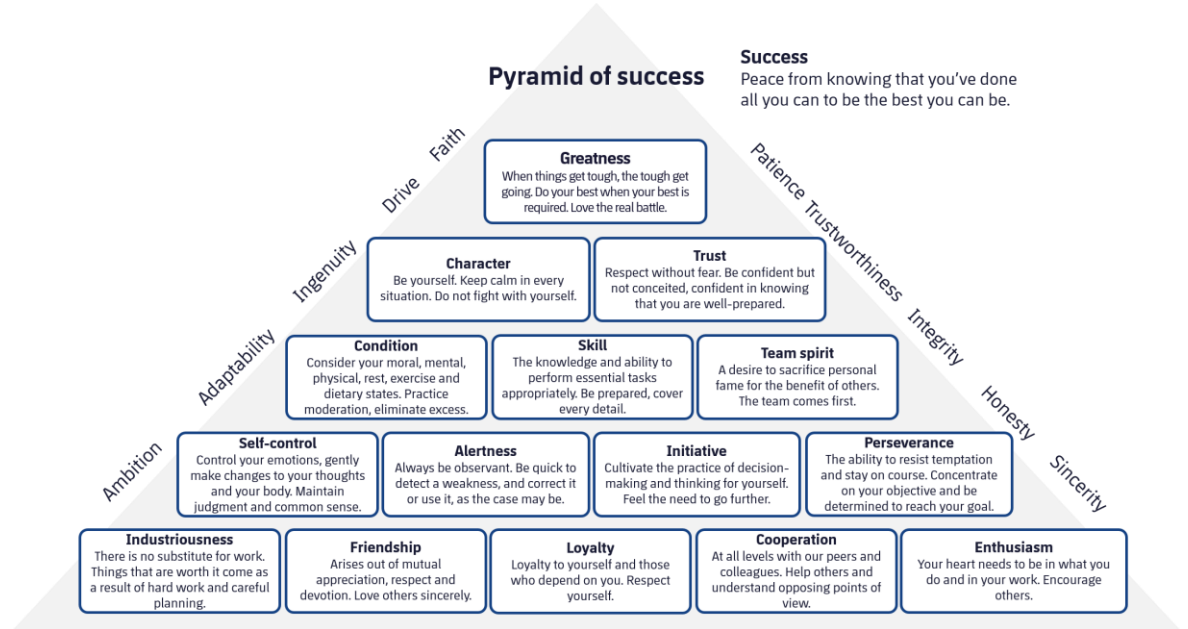
2.1.1. Introduction

A coach is the professional closest to an athlete throughout his or her career. Coaches have a privileged position where they can positively impact the athlete through interventions and interactions, and instill comprehensive healthy habits that will help to improve an athlete's well-being and therefore his or her performance. It is within the context of these interventions that we propose a close collaboration between the psychologist and the coach. Psychology has provided a framework for studying the skills that coaches should possess, including the relationship they must build with an athlete or sports group, as well as ways to improve their skills so they can develop a level of excellence and maintain it over time.

John Wooden, an excellent coach from the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), left us with some outstanding reflections and teachings on seeking excellence in sports performance. One of his most significant contributions was the **pyramid of success**, which has been widely used within many other disciplines besides sports, and which we think is an interesting starting point for introducing the main theme of this unit, which is leadership.



Figure 1: Pillars of success



Source: Prepared by the author based on <https://entrenadordebasquet.com/john-wooden/>

The Foundation

Industriousness: There is no other path to success than the one that is built through daily effort. Only that which has been achieved through ongoing hard work will last.

Enthusiasm: Wooden believed that industriousness went hand in hand with enthusiasm. If there is no reward without work, neither can there be work without enthusiasm for what one is doing. The heart and mind must drive our actions.

Friendship: In order to achieve success, a sense of friendship must always predominate; a feeling more powerful than any other, which strengthens the bonds of group unity, gives meaning to collective effort and drives enthusiasm for the task.

Loyalty: Loyalty must be given, and one must work firmly on issues to which we are fully loyal. If a person is not loyal, she will not be able to attain success because others will not trust

her. Alongside being loyal to oneself, the author also speaks of loyalty to others as a means of meeting a common goal.

Cooperation: Our work and our character must serve as a stimulus for our peers. We should always help our counterparts in order to create the strongest bond of unity among everyone. Similarly, Wooden speaks of respecting and understanding our opponents. (Wooden and Carty, 2006, p.. 3-9).

The central core of the pyramid is made up of:

Initiative: we must avoid waiting for things to simply happen, and instead must plan ahead and pursue. In other words, initiative comes from within, emerging from a starting point where having the courage to make decisions and take action is key. Stop acting out of a fear of failure; this must always be avoided. In order to draw closer to and achieve victory, one needs to act. The nature of this pyramid considers prior failure as part of the process, and therefore failure plays a part in success.

Intention: this involves always knowing that in order to begin doing something, or prior to action, it is essential to have a road map, meaning a plan that guides us and directs us towards our previously conceived goal. What is most important is to establish the objectives to be achieved in advance, which, along with perseverance and persistence, will be indispensable while pursuing our goal.

Self-control: according to the author, it is essential to maintain good judgment and common sense throughout the long climb up the pyramid. There is no doubt that tense moments will arise throughout the process, and this is when our strength fails and our lack of confidence tends to rear its head. For this reason, it is crucial not to lose sense of the reality around us.

Alertness: there is no greater threat than overconfidence. Wooden stated that success can only be obtained if we are always alert, monitoring our reality and adapting to changes that this reality produces. Overconfidence can therefore be detrimental, as well as getting too comfortable in the midst of success, which is why one must always be aware of change and be willing to learn.



Condition: It could be said that this is the start of the most important part of the pyramid. In this sense, Wooden is not referring to a condition that is strictly related to athletic values, but rather the idea has a much more global definition. According to the author, preparing ourselves physically, mentally and emotionally is of vital importance for achieving set goals. In this sense, it is necessary to prepare both the body and the mind for every situation.

Skill: all of the abilities that are necessary for optimal achievement through our actions. In other words, these abilities must be fine tuned and improved. According to the author, it is essential to not only know what you are doing, but also to be prepared to do so quickly and accurately.

Team spirit: In the words of the author, each individual must think collectively, meaning that each person is part of a collective whole. It is important not to put personal wants ahead of the group. The success of the group must come before an individual's personal goals. It is both the strength and the unity of the group that will lead a team to victory.

The apex of the pyramid corresponds to:

Poise: imperative for achieving success, this is the product of all previous work, encompassing both the collective whole and the individual. In a way it marks us as individuals. Wooden considered it key to avoid false imitations or acting. To the author, an individual with poise is an authentic individual. Furthermore, both individual and group poise are necessary since these types of attitudes must emerge when one is beset with opposition.

Confidence: only you yourself can be responsible for having faith in your own abilities. Wooden associates confidence with the ideas that arise out of our abilities. He states that pride, without falling victim to arrogance, is necessary as an initial reaction stimulus for subsequent action. In other words, we must have confidence in what we are able to do, and as such pave the way for others to trust us.



Competitive greatness: the difficulty of reaching the top will always be part of a project, but the challenge of meeting that goal will make its achievement that much more desirable. Wooden spoke of the necessity of knowing how to compete; in other words, growing through the difficult moments and being brave in response to those challenges. According to the author, in order to win one must know how to compete.

In this unit, we will review the importance of the leadership process when it comes to sport. We will examine different definitions of leadership and their corresponding theories and classification of leadership styles, and lastly, we will share some suggestions to help coaches explore and improve their personal leadership styles (Wooden and Carty, 2006, p. 9-11)

2.1.2. The Relationship between Leadership and Sports

John Wooden's teachings may well provide inspiration for the coaches completing this unit.

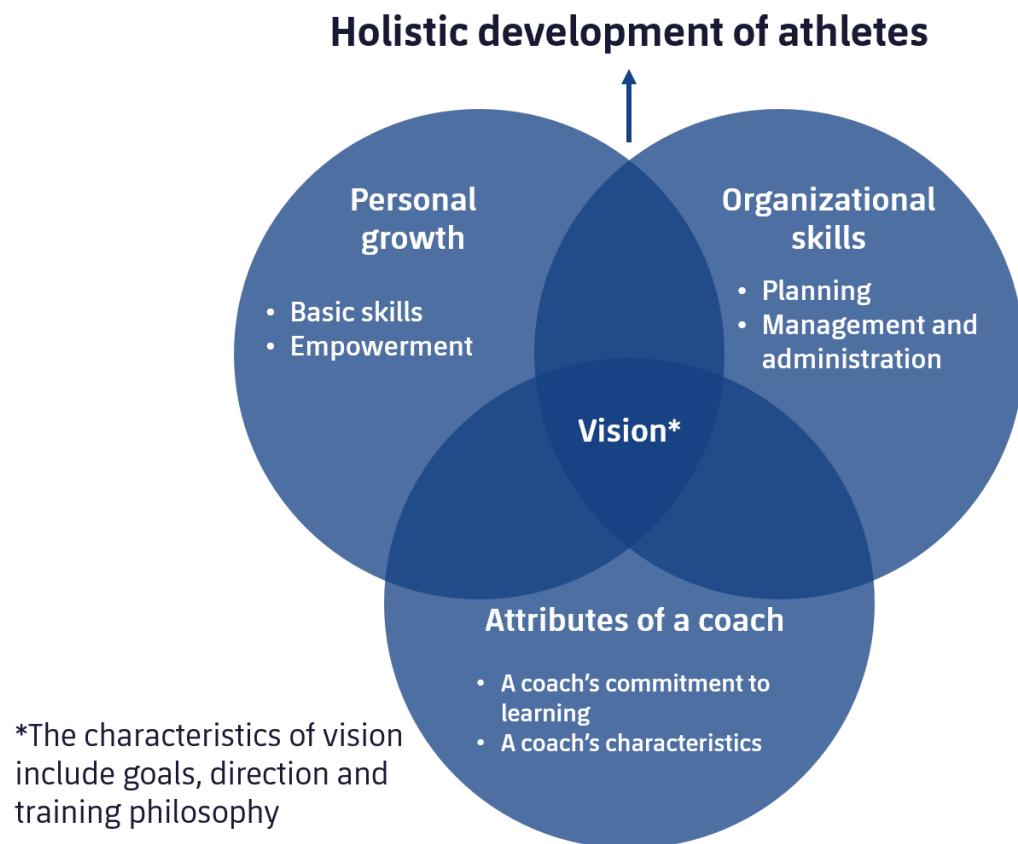
More and more often, coaches are demanding access to psychological tools in order to help athletes reach the goals they are working toward. They are also concerned about reaching an adequate level of performance, improving upon it, and not deviating away from the objectives that make up a sports career, thus helping them to achieve their desired success.

As previously mentioned, the coach is the one professional who is closest to the athlete throughout the course of his or her career. This allows coaches to build a direct relationship which, through optimal intervention, will instill the learning of new, healthy habits and values related to improvement, sacrifice and perseverance, as well as psychological skills to help improve the athlete's well-being, and thus their performance.

Figure 2 shows an intervention model proposed by Vallée and Bloom (2005), which focuses on the aspects that are most important to coaches.

It is interesting to present this from an approach that sees the role of the coach as based on his or her individual characteristics and the skills that are necessary for managing a sports group, placing the coach's **philosophy** at the center of the model.

Figure 2: Conceptual model of the perspectives of expert coaches when building a successful program



Source: Vallée and Bloom, 2005, p. 185.

This model, created with the help of university coaches, is based on the analysis of the concept of success in athletic performance, extrapolated into other areas of life. What is interesting about this model is that it incorporates the holistic model into athletic performance. The objective is to teach resources that develop people that have overall confidence. This is achieved by considering three key aspects:

- 1) **Promoting individual growth:** enhancing life skills and increasing the athlete's capacity for empowerment in all areas of their life (such as independence and autonomy, beliefs, personality, self-leadership, self-motivation, etc.).
- 2) **The qualities of the coaches:** through encouraging coaches to be committed to expanding their knowledge and desire to continue

learning. Another important aspect for coaches is to encourage concepts such as the coach's role, team spirit and leadership.

- 3) **The area of group management, administration and planning:** planning the season, rest periods, player highs and lows, match analysis, match preparation, etc.

The level of demand to which coaches are subjected in relation to the continuous updating of their technical, tactical and physical training has been growing increasingly. On top of this is the need to manage a group, in other words, the availability of resources that would allow them to lead that group towards meeting their goal. During this process, coaches focus on their most direct objectives, as well as those of their athletes and the sports organization.

Within this context, and as seen in the literature, the most effective skills for leading a sports group are leadership, motivation and communication, as suggested by Balaguer (1994) and shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3: The skills of a coach



Source: Balaguer, 1994, p. 67.

As suggested by Hernández-Mendo and Canto (2005), "a leader with a true calling to leadership does not want subordinates or subjects, but rather followers who believe in him."

The coach is the head of a group of athletes, responsible for establishing the objectives to be achieved and the plan of action that will bring those objectives to fruition. Additionally, the coach attempts to optimize the performance of the athletes.

The coach acts as a leader with the responsibility of directing others towards goals that they set and that are also set for them (by athletic organizations, clubs, federations, etc.).

This can be achieved in various ways based on the coach’s leadership style, the definition of the role that they want to fill and their personal characteristics (see Table 1).

Table 1: Coaching roles

1.- Technical instructor	Leading training.
2.- Teacher	Teaching knowledge
3.- Motivator	Creating a positive focus.
4.- Judge	Designing and legislating.
5.- Director-Leader	Leading the athletes.
6.- Administrator	Solving bureaucratic issues.
7.- Public Relations	Dealing with the press and the public.
8.- Advisor	Giving advice.
9.- Friend	Sharing
10.- Parent	Supporting.
11.- Scientist	Analyzing, evaluating, etc.
12.- Actor	Changing roles.
13.- Politician	Supporting.
14.- Student	Listening, learning, studying.

Source: Hardy, 1985, in Balaguer, 1994, p. 201.

Although we have placed our focus on the coach’s leadership, there also tend to be very influential figures within an athletic group. In many cases, this role could be taken on by team captains, while some players also have significant influence over their teammates due to their worth as an athlete, charisma or experience. This information is very important, seeing how in most cases the coach is a **formal leader** chosen by the athletic organization (federation, club, etc.), rather than an **informal** leader who spontaneously emerges as a result of the interaction between group members.

For this reason, it is worth revising the previously mentioned coaching roles, so that coaches can reflect on the role they want to take on when becoming a leader for their team. We also suggest reading an example that emphasizes taking on more than one role as well as distributing roles. As a leader with the responsibility to delegate, it is very important to distribute the other roles.



Example 1

A football team whose coaching staff is made up of a head coach, an assistant coach, the physical trainer and the team delegate. The head coach is typically responsible for distributing the various roles of the coaching staff; these roles are accompanied by concrete actions and tasks from the coach.

Let's imagine a team where a player, who has spent a long time sidelined due to injury, receives instructions about new elements that need to be practiced in order to integrate themselves into the new playing style. The instructions are given by the head coach who provides the player with feedback throughout the training session when their actions are correct.

When the training match begins, it is the assistant coach (a decision made by the head coach) who takes on the responsibility of observing the player's actions and evaluating correct actions.

Here we have an example of role-sharing and delegation, as well as teamwork between the head coach and the assistant coach.

In this case we can observe that:

1. In the first instance, the head coach is taking on the role of **instructor** (the primary role held by most coaches), as well as the role of **teacher** (guiding the athlete's learning) and **motivator** (promoting an environment where the athlete can improve). At the same time, the head coach takes on the role of **director-leader** for the rest of the group.
2. At a later time, the head coach passes on the primary roles of **instructor**, **motivator** and **teacher** to the assistant coach, whom he delegates in order to facilitate the injured athlete's process,
3. and the head coach can therefore focus on **directing** and **leading** the team.

In summary, from this example we would like to introduce the following diagram (Figure 5).

Coach/collaborator relationship

Leader (head coach) → **Collaborator** (assistant coach)

Makes decisions/manages/plans ↔ Carries out instructions



Gives advice/Carries out ↔ Carries out

Controls/supervises/carries out ↔ Carries out

Source: FC Barcelona Department of Sports Psychology (undated).

According to Carron (1988), as a formal leader, the coach has two types of responsibilities.

On the one hand, they focus on ensuring that organizational demands are met,

and on the other hand they guarantee that group members are comfortable with their needs and expectations.

Moving on, the author suggests that when group members feel comfortable and the team is in turn successful, a formal leader of a sports team (coach) is associated with being an **effective leader**.

There is no set of firm characteristics that make up effective leadership, but we will lay out some important points to remember below, as proposed by González (1997):

1. True leadership depends on how one responds to specific situations. As a result, some leaders work better in certain situations than others.
2. Leadership styles can change. Relationship-oriented leaders focus more on interindividual relationships with their players, while those who are more task-oriented focus more on performance objectives and meeting goals.
3. Depending on the situation, leaders may change from a relationship-oriented style to one that is more task-oriented, or vice versa.

4. With such a wide variety of parameters, it is important to adapt based on the group and the circumstances. One style is not necessarily better than the other (as we will see later on). What is most important to keep in mind are the characteristics of each of the team members (staff and players) as mentioned in almost every theory, as well as how the leader adapts to the circumstances and conditions of the athletes while still keeping their needs and expectations in mind. Moya Morales, J. (2004). <https://www.efdeportes.com/efd74/lider.htm>

2.1.3. Defining Leadership

It is generally quite complicated to establish a unique definition of the concept of leadership, since leadership occurs within various environments and contexts.

Likewise – with the intention of shaping the different processes that a coach goes through in a particular context – leadership, according to Antonakis, Cianciolo & Stenberg is the process of influence, a dynamic interplay between a leader's individual characteristics and behaviors, the perception of the group and the context in which this process occurs. (Antonakis, Cianciolo & Stenberg 2004, in Robbins, 2009).

On the other hand, authors like Shaw (1981), propose a different conceptualization of what it means to be a leader. According the author:

- It is the leader who directs the group, considered to be the most influential person, and the individual who generates the greatest number of interactions
- The leader is the person who is able to lead the group towards their goals.
- Thought of as the head of the group.
- The leader will have the support of group members and will have the ability to positively influence the group

Others, such as Bass (1990) in Hernández-Mendo (2005), group the various definitions of leadership into 11 categories:

1. Leadership as the axis of group processes.
2. Leadership as the product of the personality of the leader and their impact on followers.
3. Leadership as the art of inducing compliance.
4. Leadership as action or behavior.
5. Leadership as the exercise of influence.
6. Leadership as a form of persuasion.
7. Leadership as a power relation.
8. Leadership as an instrument to achieve group goals.
9. Leadership as an effect of interaction.
10. Leadership as a differentiated role.
11. Leadership as initiation of structure.

More definitions could be mentioned in this regard, but at this point it is necessary to highlight, and thus add to, the existing concepts between a director and a leader.

The Department of Psychology at FC Barcelona considers it essential to point out the differences between these concepts:

A **director** is in charge of planning, organization, budgets, athlete selection and contracts.

A **leader** performs the same actions as the director, and is also responsible for determining the group's philosophy, setting objectives to be achieved and the "how" (action plan) and guiding the group towards attaining these goals.

In summary, for this section, a leader is considered to be a person who knows the group's goals and provides the necessary direction and resources to group members in order to achieve objectives.

In the words of authors such as Weinberg and Gould (1996), coaches are good leaders when they orientate the objectives to be achieved as well as the methods and procedures required to achieve them.

"A good leader must be close, feel passion for what they do, have experience, plan, but always with one foot on the ground and, above all, enjoy what they do."
(Guardiola 2012
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v= LoDoTs CAS8>).

“Talent wins games, but teamwork and intelligence wins championships” (Jordan, M. 1995, p. 23)

2.1.4. Leadership Styles

Leadership, understood to be a process of the influence that occurs between a leader and her or his followers, implies a whole series of activities and duties on the part of the leader or leaders, as pointed out by Hernández Mendo (2004) in what he calls “cooleadership.” When we talk about leadership, we are generally talking about making decisions that have positive results for the group, problem-solving, managing social skills, etc., (Gil and León, 1998), which must be interpreted and accepted by the group due to the fact that they have accepted and recognized a person in the group as the leader (Hunt, 1991). (Tapia Flores and Hernández Mendo, 2004 <https://www.efdeportes.com/efd147/direccion-de-equipos-de-futbol-teoria-experiencia.htm>)

Some authors, based on psychosocial leadership theories (Lewin, Lippit and White, 1939, cited by Hernández and Canto, 2005) have suggested three types of leaders:

1. Authoritarian: in this leadership style, the coach is the only leader in the group. They make all the decisions about every aspect of work and organization without having to justify themselves, share with or delegate to any other member of the coaching staff or sports team. There is a lack of knowledge regarding the criteria that the leader uses to make his decisions and communication is one-way. The coach himself defines the policies to be followed and the tasks and activities to be carried out.

2. Democratic: in this model, the leader makes decisions after assessing, sharing with the group, listening to and accepting their opinions. The criteria for their actions are explicit and clear and they offer various alternative solutions so the group can make a decision together. Organization, objectives to be achieved and action plans are created as a group; they encourage a unanimous or majority decision from the group. The leader

gives the group freedom to choose their practice partners and the possibility to work in subgroups; in a small sided 3-on-3 match, for example, the coach will let the players freely choose their teammates. The leader tends to have an objective view when it comes to both success and failure, and in the critical development of a positive and constructive character.

3. ***Laissez-fair* or “let it be”**: in this style, the leader takes on a passive role and allows the group to make all the decisions; however, the coach does have the necessary means to take control of the group. She does not judge or evaluate the contributions of any members; she has total freedom and support from the leader in both her actions and her decision-making. As an example, in a training session focused on executing goal scoring situations, the coach does not give instructions or outline specific routines. If a goal is not scored, the coach not get angry and looks for reasons through reflection.

Below we have laid out a summary of the various leadership styles and their most significant consequences in terms of the group.

Figure 4: Leadership styles in relation to the group

Authoritarian

- Substandard performance level when the leader is absent
- Conflictive motivational climates (including loss of interest or excessive aggressiveness among group members)

Democratic

- Group performance does not decline when the leader is not present.
- Supports autonomy, responsibility and greater satisfaction when faced with a task.

Laissez-faire

- Group performance is not dependent on the leader’s presence or absence.
- Unproductive groups, low cohesion and satisfaction due to inadequate tasks.

Source: FC Barcelona Department of Psychology (u.d.).

As described above, different roles and leadership styles have distinct levels of effectiveness when it comes to leading a group. These profiles, so different in their manners of acting and relating to others, will result in different reactions to the leader herself. Therefore, with an authoritarian leader we may find apathy, aggressiveness, weak cohesion or internal tension. Without their presence, however, performance, intensity and effort levels all tend to decrease.

With a democratic leader on the other hand, there is no decrease in performance when the leader is not present. The team has greater autonomy, responsibility and a higher degree of satisfaction in their work, which lowers internal tension.

Lastly, with the “let it be” leader, performance levels are not dependent on the coach’s presence or absence. Groups may be unproductive due to an inferior motivational environment, with low commitment levels and little cohesion or satisfaction.

Table 2: Characteristics of the coach-leader

Characteristics of the coach-leader		
Authoritarian	Democratic	Permissive
Provides discipline Rule-driven Regular punishment in order to enforce rules. Cold personality. Does not allow other points of view. Motivates using threats. Looks down on the weak.	Allows the players to enjoy playing. Is concerned for the players’ problems. Uses reinforcement as motivation. Is open to other playing and training systems.	Passive, relaxed and distant during competition More improvisation than planning Controls their emotions Appears to control the situation by improvising as events take place.
Advantages		
Disciplined team. Strong, tough and aggressive team Good organization Favors physical fitness Good atmosphere following a victory.	Players perform better than expected Relaxed team that enjoys competition Good group cohesion Players with issues, more effective.	Little control over the athletes (seems “cold”) No hard work. A sense of independence among the players in relation to the coach. Players are receptive in the absence of repressive measures.
Disadvantages		
Sensitive players cannot keep up with demands Problems after defeat Athletes are tense, under pressure and do not feel needed. The coach is feared	Judged as weak Problems managing lazy athletes. May lose insecure players who need a “tough” coach	Appears disinterested in the sport Failures typically blamed on the coach. Low physical fitness. Players are unprepared for competition No respect for the coach.



Source: González, 1997, p. 186.

In contrast, authors such as Bass (1985), cited by Hernández-Mendo and Canto (2005), propose an alternative concept, suggesting a difference between **transactional and transformational leaders**.

Table 3: Transactional and transformational leaders

<p>Transactional leaders: this leader establishes a transition between herself and her followers. She is recognized by her followers as an authority figure since she is able to provide the group with valuable resources.</p>
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<p>Transformational leaders: also known as charismatic leaders. These are leaders who want to be seen by their followers as disagreeing with what has been established, motivating the group to change and develop new proposals. These leaders have the ability to excite and convince their followers; they use innovative means to achieve these changes, bringing out their athletes' potential to take personal risks.</p>
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Source: adapted from Hernández-Mendo and Canto, p.11. 2003.

In the first case there is mutual benefit, meaning that when an exchange takes place, both parties obtain a correlation; on the one hand, the leader establishes the objective set out from the beginning, and on the other hand the players gain a reward from it. Both the objectives and the structures (tools) for achieving these objectives, as well as the leader's expectations for group members (players), is what will develop athletes' confidence in themselves and in their leaders. This confirms the importance of a leader establishing standards from the beginning. In this way, respect, commitment and order are established after the work has been done and in accordance with the results to be achieved, since the relationship associated with rewards increases motivation.

Table 4: Imposition and transaction: advantages and drawbacks

	Imposition (myself without others)	Transaction (myself and others)
Advantages	<p>More control in short-term situations.</p> <p>Clear rules, justice, consistency</p> <p>Reassures the hesitant, convinces those who have doubts, impresses detractors, requires submission.</p>	<p>Optimizes the cost-benefit ratio.</p> <p>Encourages exchanges.</p> <p>Strengthens partnerships.</p> <p>Opens space for dialogue, creates incentives.</p>
Drawbacks	<p>Disregards the risk of failure.</p> <p>Radicalizes the positions of opponents or rebels: unites them against the leader.</p> <p>Abolishes all initiative.</p>	<p>Gives in when imposition would be better.</p> <p>Appears soft and unreliable.</p> <p>Weakens indecisive individuals</p> <p>Creates turbulent environments: greater disorder.</p> <p>Loses sight of goals.</p>

Source: Vives, 2011, p. 67.

On the other hand, the leadership styles of transformational leaders are associated with team building. In this case goals and incentives are established with the objective of raising increasingly high performance levels. In this way, leaders look to share opportunities for personal and professional development as well as growth for every team member.

Moving forward with leadership processes, authors **Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard** (1967) created a model with the purpose of explaining the leadership process they call **situational leadership**. This begins by analyzing the various needs that arise in any given situation, keeping in mind the maturity level of team members. The leadership style is adapted to the environment and the characteristics and needs of the athletes. The style is very flexible and adaptable.



Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson state that leadership is “the process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in an effort to reach a goal in a certain situation.” (1998, p.99)

There are two management styles, which can be identified as follows:

one style is more supportive or collaborative (supportive behavior) and the other is more managerial (directive behavior).

- *Directive behavior* refers to the leader who defines duties and tasks and who also determine how to carry out said duties and tasks. Additionally, they are also in charge of controlling the result.
- On the other hand, in what is known as *supportive behavior*, the leader holds a role in which they encourage participation from all team members.

As we will see, the leader may use both types of management styles (directive or supportive) in varying degrees based on the maturity level and abilities of the group members. This results in **four levels:**

Level 1: the leader controls: The leader establishes goals as attainable and realistic tasks. At this level, group members present a high degree of motivation, but at the same time their ability level as well as their knowledge and experience are low. As a result, the leader is the one who must create and manage various tools that allow members to gain the skills necessary for optimal task performance.

Level 2: the leader supervises. In this case, the group members have poor competition levels and their motivation varies depending on the difficulties they are facing. Here, the leader’s support is associated with an increase in support for group members so they can develop the knowledge and skills related to the roles and duties they hold. The leader is the one who redefines goals, and is perceptive in recognizing various difficulties. At the same time, they also encourage participation and cohesion.

Level 3: the leader advises. At this level, the effort and performance of group members are essential since the leader encourages each individual to achieve increased proficiency.

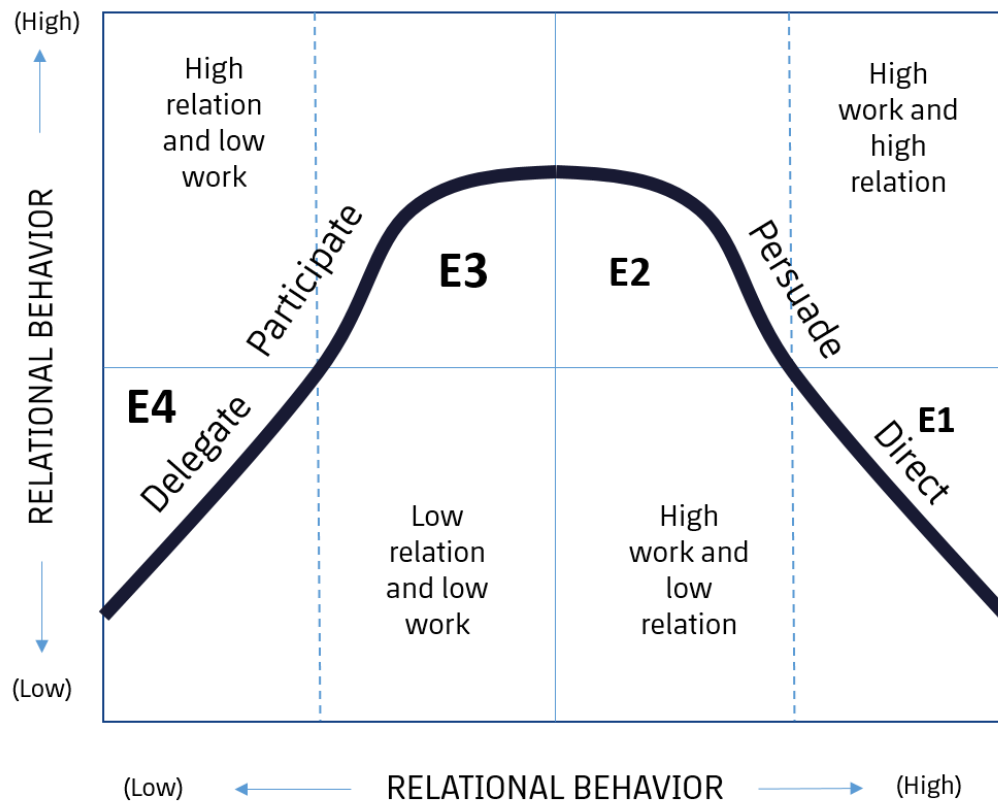


The leader starts to relinquish control over decisions and pushes both participation and responsibility among group members, who have now reached a greater capacity for adapting to situations.

Level 4: the leader delegates. This is where we see the final phase of development; the leader must lower the intensity of follower and directive behavior, since the athletes now perform at a high level, demonstrating the necessary motivation in what they do.

Below we will demonstrate the relationship between the maturity level of the group members and the leadership style chosen by the leader.

Figure 5: maturity of the team members



Source: Sánchez Santa-Bárbara and Rodríguez Fernández. p. 27, 2009.

Figure 6: Leadership styles and team maturity

High	Moderate		Low
M4	M3	M2	M1
They can They want to	They can They do not want to They are insecure	They are unable They want to	They are unable They do not want to or are insecure

Source: Sánchez Santa-Bárbara and Rodríguez Fernández. p. 27, 2009.

1. M1 Maturity Level: This refers to an athlete or athletic group that has little skill in terms of carrying out a task and/or is insecure, with little experience.

Example

A new player is added to the team. It is important to reduce the time it takes for this player to adapt to the playing system and take on their new role. The coach must focus on two things:

- 1) Describe the player's new role in detail (provide technical instructions associated with the new role).
- 2) Manage and provide positive feedback for the actions taken by the player that correspond with what the coach wants.

Applied leadership style: directive, instructive, giving orders, guiding.

2. M2 Maturity Level: ability is low but motivation is high. (Sánchez Santa-Bárbara and Rodríguez Fernández. p. 30, 2009).

Example

Let's go back to the previously described situation: the player is becoming aware of and successfully executing the steps taught by the coach. This shows the player's ability to concentrate on a task and correct errors, as well as the willingness to learn.

The **applied leadership style: persuasive**, through explanations, clarification and convincing.

3. M3 Maturity Level: In this case the athlete is able to move forward with a task, albeit with a certain degree of insecurity, although there is a willingness to learn.

Example

Once again using the same athlete:

1. Master the task without automatism. Attentive to all of the coach's instructions.
2. Proactive, exchanges opinions and feelings with the coach.

Applied leadership style: participation, the athlete works together with the leader, shares ideas and facilitates decision-making.

4. M4 Maturity Level: in this phase the athlete is highly skilled, willing and has high levels of confidence. In other words, they are highly skilled and highly motivated (Sánchez Santa-Bárbara and Rodríguez Fernández. p. 30, 2009).

Example

The athlete has mastered the task and has incorporated it into the team's game tactics. The athlete has reached the desired level and has incorporated their new role, carrying out the actions that correspond to the assigned task.

At this level:

1. The athlete is able to act independently.

2. The coach can see the athlete's progression and incorporation into the team and, lastly, can envision the team as a whole.

The **applied leadership style: delegation**. In this case, the leader observes and monitors but barely intervenes in task execution. This is a phase where the athlete participates in decision-making, adds value and works together with the team.



2.2 Leadership (II)

2.2.1. Introduction

For a long time, sports psychologists have studied the behavior of coaches and have adapted leadership models to specific sports situations. The influence of leadership models has made it easier for psychologists to create their own models, enriching the theoretical landscape of this construct.

Accordingly, the **Coaching Behavior Assessment System** (CBAS) was created by Smith, Smoll and Hunt (1977). This model attempts to identify and code the behaviors of coaches within their sports environments. The model identifies 12 behaviors which are classified by type and frequency. The twelve behaviors are divided into **reactive behaviors** (in response to an action performed by the athlete) and **spontaneous behaviors** (by the coach's own initiative).

We would also like to present the **multidimensional model** developed by Chelladurai (1990), which thinks of leadership as an interactional process and teaches that leadership is associated with the situational characteristics of each group member, whether that be the coach or those who make up the group.

This model will be developed throughout this unit. We will explore the most significant characteristics of the model as well as how it applies to sporting contexts.

2.2.2 Chelladurai's Multidimensional Model of Leadership

The Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1980) essentially takes into account a leader's behavior, the precedents to that behavior, the influence of the transformational leadership style and the effects that the leader's behavior has on the sports group. The hypothesis of the model is that athlete performance and satisfaction are positively related to the degree of congruence between the preferred behavior, the required behavior and the actual behavior, as we will discuss below. (Marcén Muñío, C., Gimeno Marco, F. and Gómez Bahillo, C., 2016, p.22).



This model explains that the characteristics of a leader's personality and the components of the sports group interact with other aspects such as the type of task and the environment. It was designed specifically for sports situations. It maintains that leadership behaviors vary according to situations, the characteristics of the athletes and the coach as well as changes in their environment. It focuses on what is called *situational leadership*, also known as a leaders' ability to adapt their style to the current situation (García Ucha, 2006, p 16).

Understanding this model will allow a coach to have influence over the group and encourage a positive environment among its members. In order for this to happen, the following three aspects of Chelladurai and Saleh's (1980) Multidimensional Model of Leadership should be considered.

Figure 7: Elements of the multidimensional model

- Precedents to leadership progress
- Leader behavior
- Effects of leadership

Source: Prepared by the author based on Chelladurai and Saleh (1980).

a) Precedents to the leadership process

Continuing with this theory, Chelladurai (1990) describes:

- **Situational characteristics:** these include all of the coach's situational particularities that could be used to measure their behavior. A crucial detail here is the particular type of sport – whether individual or group – that is being played. However, we must also take into account the athletic discipline and associated traditions, the

history of the sports organization, the composition of the group, the size of the sports group, the rules of play and technical regulations.

- **Leader characteristics:** this refers to the coach's various qualities such as intelligence, assertiveness, self-confidence, persuasion, flexibility, intrinsic motivation, locus of control, optimism and charisma. The coach's personal experience, age, culture and how much time they commit are also important.
- **Member characteristics:** this refers to the athletes' various qualities. This could include gender, age, experience, athletic skills, how they view competition, motivation and the self-esteem of the athletes that make up the group, etc., which could have an influence on the coach's leadership style (Balaguer, 1994).

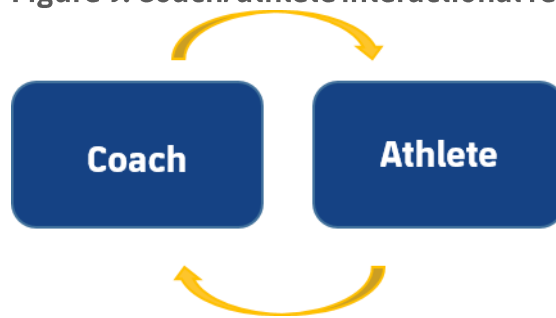
Figure 8 Precedents to the leadership process



Source: Prepared by the author based on Chelladurai and Saleh (1980).

An important point to keep in mind is that while the leader influences the athletes, the athletes also influence the leader. We must remember that this is an interactional relationship (Figure 12).

Figure 9: Coach/athlete interactional relationship



Source: Prepared by the author.

b) Leader behavior

This model suggests three types of leader/coach behavior that we will outline below:

- **Required behavior:** this refers to behaviors that the leader is expected to exhibit. In other words, within diverse situations the coach is expected to act in a way that meets the previously established expectations for their behavior. This is the behavior that best serves the needs of the athletes.
- **Actual behavior:** behavior that is based on the coach's characteristics such as their personality, skills and experience, which directly influences how they train or manage. The coach's perception of this type behavior and the athlete's perception may not always be the same.
- **Preferred behavior:** this refers to behavior that the coach would modify according to the needs or wants of the athletes. This type of behavior is based more on athletes' characteristics and the situation. In many cases, this has little to do with actual and required behavior.

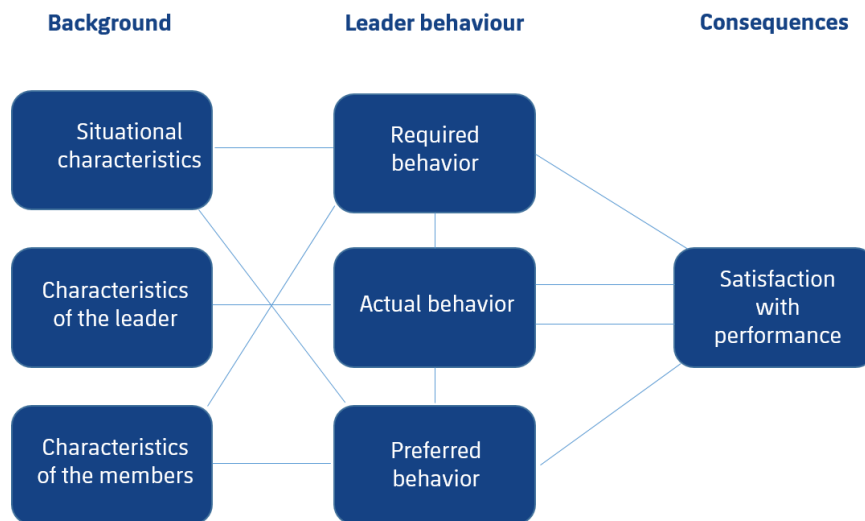
c) Consequences of leadership

This is the result of interactions with previously exhibited behaviors and reflects on athletes' performance as well as their level of satisfaction with their activities and how they are executed.

- **Performance:** the way in which athletes progress, as well as the quality of their execution, improvement and learning.

- **Satisfaction:** an athlete's level of satisfaction with the various leadership aspects and the results achieved over a set period of time (Olmendilla Zafra, A, Andreu Alvarez, M, Redondo, A, 2005).

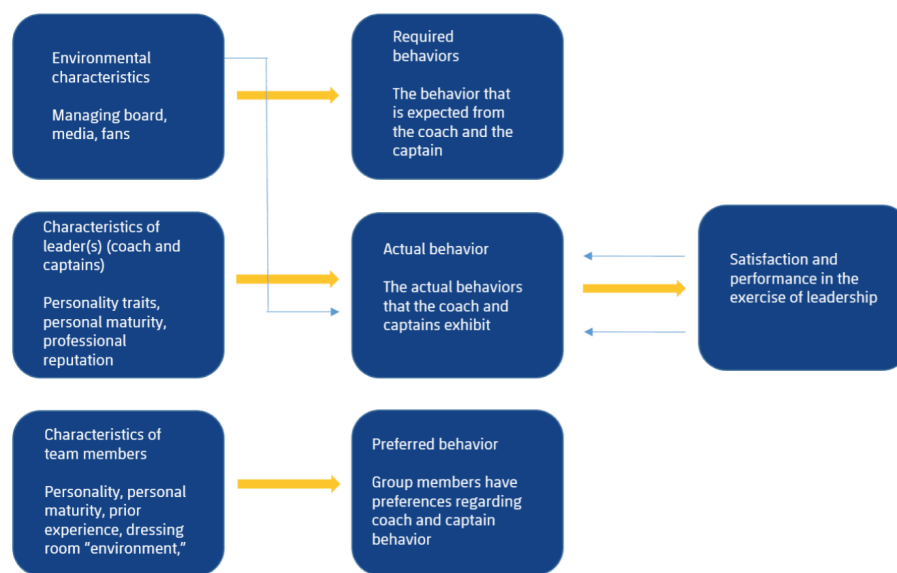
Figure 10: The Multidimensional Model of Leadership in sports



Source: Hernández Mendo and Canto Ortiz, 2005, p.16 Balaguer, 1994, p. 16.

Carrascosa (2003) gives a real example which we have provided below.

Figure 11: Multidimensional Model



Source: Adapted from Carrascosa, 2003, p. 79.

2.3. Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS)

In this section, we would like to mention the Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS), a tool developed by Chelladurai and Saleh in 1978 which has proven very useful for studying and evaluating sports leadership. The aspects of the Leadership Scale for Sport (Moya Morales, 2004, p. 5) can be seen in Table 5.

Table 5: Leadership Scale for Sport

Subscales	Description
Instruction and training behavior	Coaching behavior aimed at improving athletes' performance by emphasizing and facilitating hard and strenuous training; instructing players in the skills, techniques and tactics of the sport; clarifying the relationship among the members.
Democratic behavior	Coaching behavior that allows greater participation by the athletes in decisions pertaining to group goals, practice methods as well as game tactics and strategies.
Autocratic behavior	Coaching behavior which involves independent decision-making (by the coach) and stresses personal authority.
Social support behavior	Coaching behavior characterized by a concern for the welfare of individual athletes, positive group atmosphere and warm interpersonal relationships with members.
Positive feedback behavior	Coaching behavior which reinforces an athlete by recognizing and rewarding good behavior.

Source: Moya Morales, J, 2004, p. 6.

The Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS, Chelladurai and Saleh, 1980; Chelladurai, 1990) is made up of five subscales containing a total of 40 items that are answered using a 5-point Likert scale. (Marcén Muñío, Gimeno Marco and Gómez Bahillo, p. 22).

The five subscales, as seen in Table 5

- a) Training and instruction.
- b) Democratic behavior.
- c) Autocratic behavior.
- d) Social support.
- e) Positive feedback.

According to Loughhead and Hardy (2005) these subscales can be grouped into three factors:

- task-related factors (training and instruction).
- style of decision-making factors (autocratic vs. democratic behavior).
- motivational factors (positive feedback and social support).

This research leads us to confirm that the five subscales mentioned above are closely linked in terms of athlete satisfaction and intrinsic motivation, perceived skill and performance (Chelladurai, 1993).

This tool was translated into Spanish (Crespo, Balaguer y Atienza, 1993; 1994) for a study with tennis players, and has been adapted for other sports such as swimming (Gosálvez, 1996). There have also been other adaptations for judo (Crespo et al., 1994), football (Ruiz-Barquín and De la Vega-Marcos, 2015) and handball (Torres, 2015).

Table 6: My coaching preferences

I prefer it when my coach

1. Wants players to train to the best of their abilities.
2. Asks for opinions from players about techniques they have used during matches.
3. Helps players with personal problems.
4. Congratulates a player in front of others when they play well.
5. Explains tennis techniques and tactics to each player.
6. Plans training sessions without considering the opinions of the players.
7. Helps players to fix problems within the group.
8. Pays special attention to correcting player errors.
9. Has the support of the players before implementing important aspects.
10. Tells a player when they have done something well.
11. Ensures that all of the players understand his functions as a coach.
12. Does not need to give explanations for their decisions.
13. Cares about the personal well-being of the players.
14. Works individually with each player on tennis technique.
15. Allows players to give their opinion when making decisions.
16. Ensures that a player is rewarded for playing well.
17. Plans what must be done in training ahead of time.
18. Encourages players to make suggestions about how training is carried out.
19. Does personal favors for the players.

20. Explains to each player what they should and should not do when training.
21. Allows players to set their own goals.
22. Is warm and appreciative towards players.
23. Expects each player to carry out their obligations to the most minute detail.
24. Allows players to do things their own way even if they make mistakes.
25. Encourages players to speak openly and have confidence in their coach.
26. Points out and works on each player's strengths and weaknesses.
27. Refuses to change their mind and imposes their own views.
28. Shows appreciation to a player when they play well.
29. Gives precise instructions to each player about what they need to do in each situation.
30. Asks the players for their opinions when it comes to important training issues.
31. Has a close and informal relationship with the players.
32. Wants to coordinate player workload.
33. Allows players to train in their own way.
34. Keeps their distance and does not connect much with the players.
35. Explains how each player contributes to group functioning.
36. Has a friendly relationship with players off the court.
37. Recognizes a player's achievement when deserved.
38. Gives details about what they expect from their players during training.
39. Allows players to decide which tactics they will use during a match.
40. Speaks with an authoritarian tone and does not give players a chance to ask questions.

Source: Crespo, Balaguer and Atienza, 1994, p. 206.

The items corresponding to each of the previously mentioned subscales are identified below, according to Hernández Mendo and Canto Ortiz (2005):

Training and Instruction: 1,5,8,11,14,17,20,23,26,29,32,35,38

Democratic Behavior: 2,9,15,18,21,24,30,33,39

Autocratic Behavior: 6,12,27,34,40

Social Support: 3,7,13,19,22,25,31,36

Positive Feedback: 4,10,16,28 and 37

Throughout this unit we have seen how coaches have different roles, functions and objectives when it comes to the athletes they train. They also have a high level of influence since they are role models for their athletes, which demonstrates the significant value that a coach has from a technical, training and educational standpoint (Cox, 2009) as well as in terms of athletic performance.

We have also seen that one leadership style is not better than the others, and we addressed the importance of situational variables, athlete characteristics, and, in particular, the coach's characteristics. Finally, we would like to clarify that this analysis is key for coaches so they can decide which leadership style applies in each moment in order to create the most optimal conditions for their team.

In summary, we believe that training athletic groups requires leaders to:

- Understand that leadership is a process.
- Know that one leadership style is not better than another; what is important is the ability to adapt to the characteristics of the athletes and the specific conditions of a sports group.
- Respect individual differences within the team.
- Develop the team's technical, tactical, physical and psychological resources that can enrich the coach's leadership.
- Being a leader is not just constantly managing a team;
- it means creating a work environment where we can consistently enjoy ourselves, learn and have fun.

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