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Coaching Demands and Responsibilities of Expert Coaches

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- Practical experience, such as mentoring, being an athlete, observing coaches, or attending clinics, tends to be more critical than formal education in the development of expert coaches.
- Both Trait Theory and Behavioral Theory explain leadership, which is an important characteristic of expert coaches.
- The Multidimensional Model of Leadership suggests that the success of coaches results from the interaction between the coach and the athlete or athletes and is not based solely on what leadership the coach brings to the team.
- Although each athlete or team is unique, the Coaching Model provides a general structure that increases the likelihood of a coach being successful, including abilities to organize, train, and guide the athlete or team through all phases of competition.

Because people can see what coaches are doing during games, they agree that the best coaches are often effective strategists. Rarely, however, is the public privy to what coaches do before and after games or how much of their lives they give to the sport they love. For example, what personal sacrifices have they made? How much time do they spend preparing for games and practices? What are their views on building team cohesion? How do they analyze their games? These questions all lead to a larger one: "What are the most important demands and responsibilities of expert coaches?" This chapter will answer these questions. First, a number of recommendations will be listed for becoming a top coach, such as the importance of mentoring, hard work, strong leadership, and communication skills. This will be followed by a historical look at early forms of empirical research
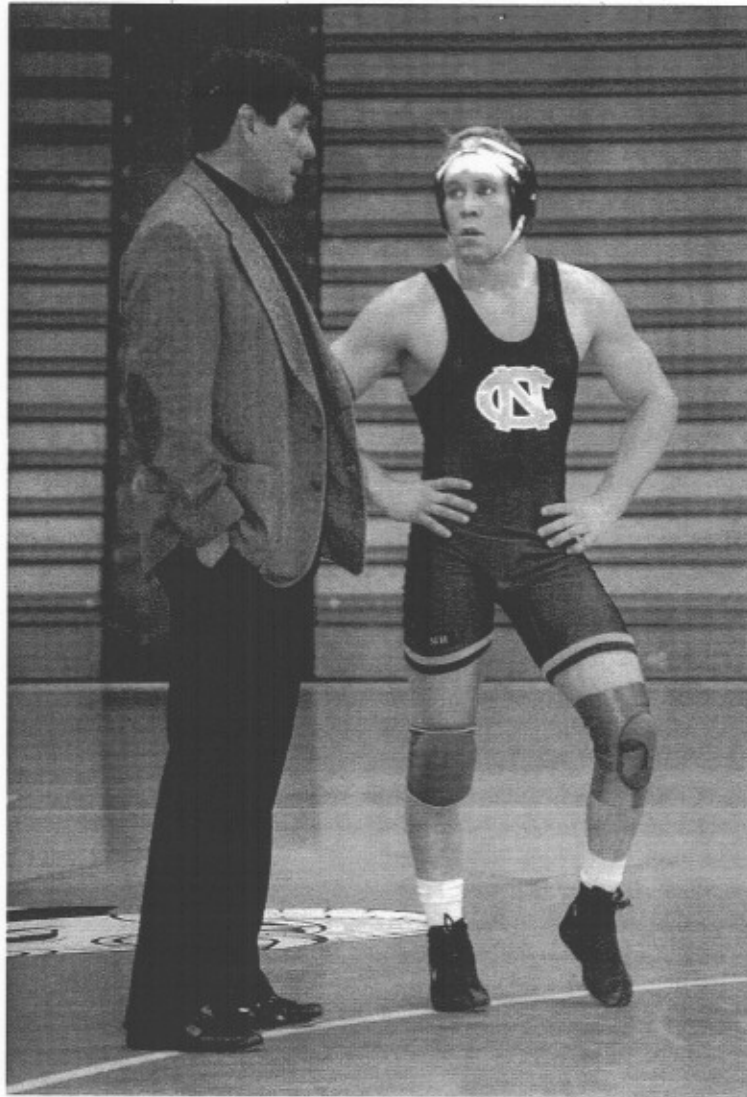
The relationship between the coach and the athlete should not be underestimated.

in the coaching domain, such as the work of Chelladurai and colleagues (e.g., Chelladurai, 1978, 1980; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978, 1980), as well as Smith and Smoll and their associates (e.g., Smith, Smoll, & Barnett, 1995; Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1978, 1979; Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977). After this, two recent bodies of coaching research will be explored; one focuses on individual sport coaches, and another examines team sport coaches. All the information in this chapter is intended to explain what it takes to become an expert coach, including the different demands and responsibilities of this noble profession.

Personal Preparation

A large number of children and adults probably wonder how they can increase the likelihood of becoming the next Vince Lombardi, Sparky Anderson, Pat Summitt, or Pat Riley. Unlike a doctor, lawyer, or university professor, there is no definite path to follow in the United States for becoming a top coach. In fact, Martens (1986) stated the estimated 3 million coaches in the United States actually receive very little formal education and training. Let's examine some recent literature on expert coaches to provide guidelines and suggestions for becoming a successful coach.

Coaches' Needs

Gould and colleagues (Gould et al., 1987, 1989, 1990) examined a number of elite coaches' needs in a series of studies that looked at areas such as coach education, coach development, and the use of psychological strategies. The data were gathered from two samples of top coaches: one of these consisted of 130 U.S. national, Olympic, and Pan American coaches from a variety of sports, and the other included more than 100 collegiate wrestling coaches. The methodology for the studies varied from an open-ended questionnaire that assessed the coaches' general information, educational background, participation in coaching science courses, and opinions about coaching and coach education to a questionnaire that assessed coaches' perceptions of athletes' psychological skills, such as self-efficacy, individual motivation, positive attitude, and mental toughness. All three studies using this data contributed important information that offered suggestions for improving the coaching profession as well as for future research in this domain.

One of the findings, which was particularly disturbing to most academics, was that coaching textbooks and seminars were the least important sources of coaching information (Gould et al., 1990). The elite coaches thought the two most important knowledge sources that helped them develop their coaching styles were coaching experience and observing other successful coaches (Gould et al., 1990). The coaches also believed there were no definite sets of concepts or principles to follow in their profession. On the other hand, the coaches "overwhelmingly supported" the need for a more structured coaching education program that would extend beyond coaching manuals and incorporate practical mentoring programs and the value of experiential knowledge. Finally, little or no differences emerged between male and female coaches and coaches of different sports. This led Gould and colleagues (1990) to conclude that elite coaches are a fairly homogenous group in terms of their background and needs.

Bloom, Salmela, and Schinke (1995) conducted a similar study to that of Gould and associates (1989), except they used a different methodology and their sample consisted of expert Canadian coaches. Bloom and colleagues interviewed expert team sport coaches to elicit their recommendations regarding the best methods for acquiring coaching knowledge. The results revealed that expert coaches believed that more emphasis was needed in the following four areas: (1) attending clinics, seminars, and symposia where coaches could interact and exchange ideas with other coaches, (2) learning through hands-on experience with more elite coaches, (3) passive observation of other coaches from the bleach-

ers, standing on the sidelines, or sitting within hearing distance of the coach, and (4) the creation of a structured mentoring program.

Many of the conclusions from their sample of expert Canadian coaches concurred with those reached by Gould and associates (1990) in their study of elite American coaches. One exception worth noting was Bloom and colleagues' emphasis on a structured and formalized mentoring program. The interviewed coaches said the most valuable and enriching coaching knowledge was acquired while they were being mentored by someone who was recognized as an expert in his or her sport. Many of the current and former national team sport coaches still referred to their mentor for advice, having developed a lifelong relationship with him or her. In sum, the research cited in this section reveals that coaching development programs still have a lot of work ahead of them in both Canada and the United States to formalize their approaches toward mentoring. However, this outlook can only improve if those who are at the top of their profession are continuously asked to offer their advice and also are willing to contribute their time to the worthy development of coach education.

Mentoring

The research discussed previously alluded to the importance of **mentoring** in the development of elite coaches, but it did not explicitly examine this phenomenon. Bloom and associates (1998) recently looked at the mentoring experiences of expert team sport coaches. More specifically, the intent of their study was to determine whether any of the current and past top university and Olympic coaches of Canada were mentored through their development as athletes and subsequently as coaches, and if in turn they mentored other athletes and coaches during their careers. It was believed that mentoring occurs when a coach willingly invests time in the personal development of the athlete, when a trusting relationship evolves, when needs and interests are fulfilled, and when imitation of behavior takes place.

The results of their research showed that mentoring is an ongoing process in sport. Almost all these present expert coaches were mentored when they were young athletes and again later as beginning and intermediate coaches. The knowledge and experience they acquired from their expert coaches helped them shape their eventual coaching style and philosophy. Because of their positive experiences, these coaches were willing to mentor young athletes and coaches as well. Unfortunately, there was no set path for acquiring a mentor coach. According to these coaches, it was simply a case of being in the right place at the right time, which might explain why many expert coaches are supporting the need for more formalized mentoring programs.

Athletic Experiences

Two recent bodies of research (Miller, Bloom, & Salmela, 1996; Schinke, Bloom, & Salmela, 1995) examined the characteristics of expert Canadian coaches while they were still athletes. A look at these two studies reveals some variables that suggest that certain characteristics of future elite coaches are evident and developing while they are still performing as athletes.

Schinke and colleagues (1995) interviewed six elite Canadian basketball coaches of men and women to examine their evolution from their first athletic experiences to their present coaching positions. The results of their study revealed seven chronological career stages of these coaches, which were labeled as: (1) early sport participation, (2) national elite sport, (3) international elite sport, (4) novice coaching, (5) developmental coaching, (6) national elite coaching, and (7) international coaching. The first three stages related to the athletic careers of these coaches, and the latter four stages demonstrated the evolution process in the coaching ranks.

Early sport participation referred to the experiences of these coaches when they were beginner and early competitive athletes. They were influenced by their own initial love of sport, as well as parents, sport instructors, and their accessibility to physical resources. Because of their commitment and progression in sport, all these individuals progressed to the next level of development, defined as national elite sport. At this level, the athletes either represented their university or state in national level competitions or competed in the lower levels of professional basketball. Sport now became an obsession as opposed to a recreational activity. Most of the athletes' spare time was spent playing basketball or another team sport. The final stage of their athletic development was defined as international elite sport. To qualify for this stage, the performer had to be a member of their country's Olympic or national team. Two of the six coaches sampled in this study reached this level. According to the researchers, "While it could not be inferred that performing at this level was a prerequisite for future coaching success, the high level of commitment required at the international level apparently contributed to the progression of these coaches" (Schinke, Bloom, & Salmela, 1995, p. 55). An important conclusion that can be gathered from this study is that the acquisition of coaching knowledge follows a fairly consistent developmental process that is rooted in the early athletic experiences of the participants. Although these coaches were not superstar athletes, they did attain high levels of athletic success that undoubtedly influenced their coaching style and philosophy.

While the previous study outlined the stages of athletic development of expert coaches, Miller, Bloom, and Salmela (1996) identified three distinct categories of athletic leadership that were found among a group of twenty-one expert Canadian team sport coaches who were interviewed for their study. First, the expert coaches exhibited strong personalities as athletes that were accentuated by a tenacious work ethic in training. Many of these future coaches were wholeheartedly committed to the pursuit of excellence in all areas of their sport. Second, many of the coaches had been assistants or team captains with their youth and competitive teams. In fact, their own coaches, who often gave them considerable responsibility, recognized many of their leadership skills. Finally, many of these individuals began to coach younger teams as they advanced to higher levels of competition. This usually began in high school, when many would return to assist their local or community coaches. While in college, some returned to help their high school coaches. The skills that these individuals were acquiring would help promote their initiation to high-level coaching positions. The results of this study show that it is never too early for aspiring coaches to acquire the skills and experiences needed to reach a higher level of standing within the coaching domain.

Although there may not be a clear and definitive path for aspiring coaches to follow, this section has identified a number of ways by which one can enhance the likelihood of becoming a coach. They include the importance of being mentored, acquiring hands-on

coaching experience, engaging in high levels of competition as an athlete, exhibiting a strong work ethic, and volunteering time as an assistant coach for youth sport teams. Having identified the personal preparation of a coach, it now becomes important to examine some of the models relating to all areas of coaching.

Info Box

Although academic training may be of some benefit in coaching, it does not seem to measure up to practical experiences. Experiencing coaches as an athlete, being mentored, discussing ideas with current coaches, passively observing coaches on the job, or actually engaging in coaching all increase the likelihood of becoming a successful coach.

Historical Research in Coaching

Coakley (1990) reported the word *coach* first came into existence following the American Civil War. Before that time, *coach* was an English word that described a person who taught manners and academic subjects (Coakley, 1990). Since the 1870s, coaching sports has emerged as a profession in which winning and making money for wealthy owners and universities have become a top priority for many organizations (Michener, 1980). On the other hand, some profiles of successful coaches have shown that there can be much more to coaching than winning games and making money for team owners (Walton, 1992; Wooden, 1988). Martens (1990) stated that although coaches historically focused on tactics and techniques, they have recently expanded their knowledge bases to include areas such as sport psychology, sport pedagogy, sport physiology, and sport management. Some of the first forms of empirical research on coaching in the sport psychology domain will now be summarized, beginning with trait versus behavioral models of coaching.

Trait Versus Behavioral Models

One of the most repeated questions by young and aspiring coaches is: "Are certain individuals born with characteristics that predispose them toward a career in coaching?" Although the answer to that question is negative, the topic has led to some interesting debates among academics and nonacademics. The most important characteristic for coaches is leadership. Like a university dean, company president, or ranking army officer, a successful coach is expected to be a good leader. Walton (1992) noted that football coach Woody Hayes felt this component was so important that he always carried with him a list of what he considered to be the ten virtues and characteristics of a good leader (see Fig. 22.1 on page 444).

Many of the early researchers who studied leadership felt that individuals were born with a set of universal personality and leadership qualities and characteristics that are essential for (coaching) success. These theorists supported **trait theories of leadership.** Other theorists believe that leadership characteristics can be learned and developed and that they depend to a large extent on the current situation. These individuals support the

FIGURE 22.1 *Woody Hayes' Ten Virtues and Characteristics of a Good Leader.*

Positive image, character and integrity
Mental toughness, to endure and rebound
Communication skills
To not underestimate the role of the leader
To know your limits and be yourself
Preparation, including anticipation
Accessibility and visibility
Confidence
Ability to inititate interaction
To not underestimate the spiritual power of people

behavior theories of leadership. This section of the chapter examines the opposing views of coaching leadership.

Trait Theory.   Traits have been defined as "stable internal structures that served as pre-dispositions to behavior and could therefore be used as adequate predictors of behavior" (Sherman & Fazio, 1983, p. 310). Although the trait theory cannot guarantee that a person will respond in a certain way every time, it does suggest an increased likelihood of predict-ing certain recurring behaviors or responses across situations and over time. From a sporting context, proponents of this theory believe that certain individuals are born to coach because they display specific personality profiles that distinguish them from other individuals.

Trait theories of leadership originated in the 1920s, when scientists and civilians were interested in the makeup of great leaders in business and industry. The prevalence of war probably had a great deal to do with this curiosity. At the time, many people both in and outside academia wanted to believe that all you had to do was administer a personality inventory to find out who would be a successful leader. The ramifications of this way of thinking about sports could be highly detrimental. Imagine if team owners chose their head coaches based solely on the results of personality tests. Fortunately, after World War II many academics began to disassociate themselves from this thought process.

At that time, the most thorough and in-depth review of the research on the trait theory of leadership came from Stodgill (1948). In reviewing more than 100 research stud-ies, Stodgill concluded that there was little support for personality variables, such as intel-ligence, independence, and self-confidence, as they relate to trait theory of leadership. Many have suggested that Stodgill's comprehensive review convinced the scientific com-munity to abandon their support of the trait theory of leadership. Furthermore, from a trait theory perspective, few consistent findings in the sporting domain have emerged for ideal coach or athlete leadership skills. In other words, John Elway and Brett Favre, two of the NFL's premier quarterbacks in the 1990s, displayed opposite styles of athletic leadership and still led their teams to Super Bowl victories. Elway prefers a more even-tempered and

calm approach to the game, and Favre is seen as someone who exhibits a "looser" style of leadership and shows more emotion and excitement.

Behavioral Theory.   Trait theories pose that great leaders are born. Behavior theories propose the opposite, that great leaders can be made or developed simply by learning the necessary skills of other great leaders. The latter approach would obviously be the one favored by most coaches, because it suggests that anyone can learn to be a great leader. The surge of research on behavioral leadership came from Ohio State University in the early 1950s, resulting in two significant contributions. The first was the identification of two important underlying factors that characterize the behaviors of leaders: consideration and initiating structure. Through **consideration** a leader displays behaviors such as trust, friendship, respect, two-way communication, and concern for subordinates. **Initiating structure** refers to more task-oriented behaviors. Leaders are concerned with setting up rules, methods of production, means of communication, and organization to achieve team goals. Although these two behaviors are considered to be independent of one another, aspiring coaches might want to consider incorporating elements of both behaviors into their coaching repertoires.

The second major contribution from Ohio State researchers was the development of a scale, named the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), for measuring behavior research. The LBDQ is completed by athletes or subordinates to describe how they feel about their leaders' or coaches' behavior in certain situations, such as their levels of communication and consideration. The LBDQ has exhibited high rates of validity and reliability (Schriesheim & Stodgill, 1975) and has been used in a number of sport-related studies (e.g., Danielson, Zelhart, & Drake, 1975; Snyder, 1990).

Coaching Leadership

Chelladurai's (1978, 1980) pioneering work on leadership in sport led to the creation of the **Multidimensional Model of Leadership** (see Fig. 22.2 on page 446). Created specifically for athletic situations, Chelladurai's model conceptualizes leadership as an interactional process. In his model, three forms of coaches' behaviors affect team performance and satisfaction: required behavior, behavior preferred by athletes, and actual behavior. The three variables are influenced by "antecedent" variables, which include characteristics of the situation, the coach, and the athletes (members). Ideal performance and athlete satisfaction are positively related to the degree of congruence among the three forms of coach behaviors.

Required behaviors are those that are expected of coaches and that adhere to certain standards or norms. For example, coaches are expected to behave in a certain respectful manner toward the media or opposition players and coaches. However, a head coach at Brigham Young University, because of its religious affiliation, is required to adhere to the same moral standards as all other employees within the university. **Preferred leader behaviors** occur when coaches learn to act in a certain way based on either the athletes' preferences or on the past history of the organization for which they work. Thus, head coaches who work for team owners such as Al Davis, George Steinbrenner, or Jerry Jones understand ahead of time that the owner likes to have a say in all team matters, including coaching decisions. Athletes on George Steinbrenner's baseball team know that Steinbrenner is
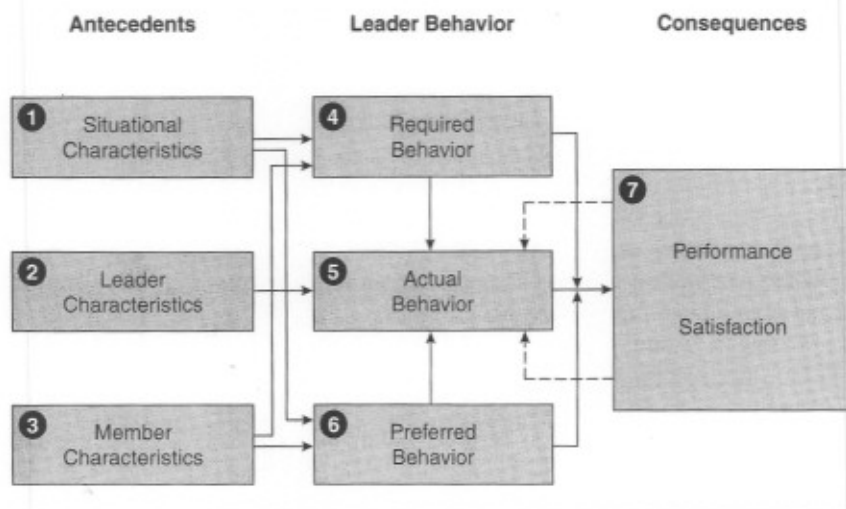
Antecedents	Leader Behavior	Consequences

1 Situational Characteristics

2 Leader Characteristics

3 Member Characteristics

4 Required Behavior

5 Actual Behavior

6 Preferred Behavior

7 Performance

Satisfaction

FIGURE 22.2 *Multidimensional Model of Leadership.*

likely to publicly criticize them if they do not perform to his expectations. Athletes and coaches on these teams must understand and respond to this style of leadership if they are to succeed. Finally, **actual leader behaviors** are the behaviors that the coach exhibits, regardless of team standards. This form of behavior also provides the opportunity to explain how antecedent variables influence actual coach behaviors. For example, the same coach might act differently if he or she is coaching professional athletes rather than recreational or high school athletes. Professional athletes are expected to devote themselves wholeheartedly to their sport; if they don't, the coach can release or punish them. Along the same line, the athletes behave differently at these levels, which in turn influences the manner in which the coach behaves. In sum, the characteristics of the situation, the coach, and the athletes all have an impact on the three types of required leader behaviors.

Over the years, researchers have tested a number of hypotheses stemming from the Multidimensional Model in some very interesting and unique ways. One of them focused on the **Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS)** (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978, 1980), a reliable sport-specific instrument used to test the applicability of the Multidimensional Model of Leadership. The LSS provides information in three areas: the athletes' preferences for specific coaching behaviors, the athletes' perceptions of their coaches leadership behaviors, and the coaches' perceptions of their own behaviors. The large number of studies using the Multidimensional Model is one indication of its relevance in the sport setting. Another is that it has been translated into Finnish, French, Japanese, Korean, Portuguese, and Swedish. The LSS consists of the following five dimensions of coaches' leadership behaviors:

1. *Training:* Coaching behaviors geared toward improving the performance of the athlete through a rigorous and structured training program.
2. *Democratic behavior:* Coaching behavior that gives the athlete a greater say in decisions pertaining to leading the team (during games and practices).

3. *Autocratic behavior:* Coaching behavior that gives the coach sole responsibility for running the team.
4. *Social support:* Coaching behavior that includes a general concern for the well-being of the athletes.
5. *Positive feedback:* Coaching behavior used to reward and praise athletes for their work.

A number of studies have used the LSS to examine different outcomes of the coach/athlete relationship, such as the athlete's satisfaction with the coach's performance (e.g., Chelladurai, 1984; Chelladurai et al., 1988; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990). Dwyer and Fischer (1990), for example, looked at leadership styles of wrestling coaches as a predictor of athlete satisfaction. An important finding was that wrestlers were most satisfied with their coaches' leadership behaviors if the coaches were perceived to exhibit greater amounts of positive feedback and training/instruction and lower levels of autocratic behavior. It should be noted, however, that athletes' satisfaction with their coaches' leadership skills varies by sport and by the skill level of the athlete. One general conclusion can be drawn: compared to their lower-skilled counterparts, highly skilled athletes prefer their coaches to act as teachers/trainers and providers of positive feedback, and they prefer coaches who have a democratic style. The LSS has also been used to examine cross-cultural differences in coaching behaviors. Chelladurai and colleagues (1988) examined differences in coaching behaviors and satisfaction between Canadian and Japanese athletes. The results of their study indicated that male Japanese athletes preferred autocratic behavior and social support from their coaches, but Canadian athletes preferred training and instruction-type behavior. These preferences may indicate that culture plays a crucial role in understanding effective leadership.

Another interesting dimension of the LSS concerns the outcome of team performance. Weiss and Friedrichs (1986) are among the few researchers who have examined this issue. They solicited 251 American collegiate basketball players and 23 coaches to study a number of variables related to team performance, as measured by win-loss record. The results, which surprised the authors, showed that only the dimension of social support was significant, but in a negative fashion. Thus, higher levels of social support were associated with lower winning percentages. It could not be concluded, however, that higher levels of social support caused the team to lose. Perhaps teams that perform poorly require more social support from their leaders. The authors cautioned that more work is needed in this area.

These studies present the results of only a small fraction of the many examinations of the LSS relating to important components of the coach–athlete relationship. It can be concluded that team performance and athlete satisfaction is highest if the three types of leader behavior agree or are congruent. In other words, a coach will excel if he or she exhibits leadership qualities that are in line with his or her particular situation. A modern sport example would be Phil Jackson, the former head coach of the Chicago Bulls basketball team. It wasn't until Jackson brought his own style of leadership, one that stressed team success, that the Bulls began to win their string of world championships. Although this was certainly not the only reason for the Bulls' success, it can reasonably be concluded that it did have an impact. In fact, it appears that once the athletes accepted, and even embraced, Jackson's leadership style, the team's satisfaction and performance increased. Nevertheless, Chelladurai (1993) has referred to the research in this area as "piecemeal," primarily

because all segments of the multidimensional model have yet to be explored. It was suggested that future studies more closely examine causal linkages of the results, the experiences and insights of both coaches and athletes, and the operational definitions of some leader behaviors, specifically when the team is the unit of analysis.

Info Box

An important characteristic of effective coaching is leadership. In general, effective coaches integrate the ability to provide a rigorous training structure with democracy, support, and positive feedback. However, coaches must find a balance that provides for cultural and situational considerations.

Coach–Athlete Interactions

A related area of research to Chelladurai's is the work of Smith, Smoll, and colleagues, who conducted several studies dealing with the relationships and interactions between youth sport coaches and athletes (Smith, Smoll, & Barnett, 1995; Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1978, 1979; Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977). Smith and Smoll were initially interested in a number of coach–athlete interactions, such as what coaches do and how often they exhibit the behaviors of encouragement, punishment, instruction, and organization. A major difference between this line of research and the preceding one was the measurement. While Chelladurai and colleagues used questionnaires, Smith, Smoll, and associates observed and recorded coaches' behaviors through the development of a standardized scoring system. Although this research deals with youth sport coaches, it provides important information about ideal behaviors that can be useful for coaches at all levels.

Smith and Smoll's research led to the creation of the **Coaching Behavior Assessment System** (CBAS), probably the most well-known behavior observation instrument for coding coaches' behaviors during games and practices. In the first of many studies, Smith, Smoll, and Hunt (1977) developed the CBAS from direct observation of youth sport coaches and unveiled twelve behavioral dimensions that can be classified into two categories. The first, the coach's **reactive behaviors,** included immediate coach reactions to player or team mistakes, desirable performances, or misbehaviors. The second category, the coach's **spontaneous behaviors,** dealt with either relevant or irrelevant behaviors exhibited during a game that were not in response to an observable preceding event.

The purpose of their research was to create a training program for youth sport coaches based on the results of the CBAS. In the first of their studies, Smith, Smoll, and Curtis (1978, 1979) observed fifty-one little league coaches over 201 games and approximately 1,000 behaviors of each coach. A total of 542 players, aged 8–15, were also interviewed. The strength of this research was that it emphasized actual coach behaviors by allowing athletes the opportunity to assess and recall the coaches' behaviors and their overall sporting experiences. Smith, Smoll, and Curtis then trained seventeen observers over a 4-week period to use the CBAS to measure and observe coaches.

One particularly interesting finding from their research was that the coach was an important factor in the development of young athletes. For example, two observed behavioral dimensions from the CBAS, supportiveness and instructiveness, were positively re-

lated to the players' attitudes toward their coach, sport, and teammates (Smith, Smoll, Curtis, 1979). Their research also revealed that trained and untrained coaches differed in their behaviors. Trained coaches communicated more effectively than untrained coaches, were evaluated more positively by players, and saw their players acquire significant increases in self-esteem from the previous year.

Smith, Smoll, and their colleagues have continued to use adapted versions of the CBAS to study a variety of youth sport coaches in different areas, such as coaches' effect on athlete enjoyment (Smith et al., 1983) and coaches' effect on athletes' self-esteem (Smith & Smoll, 1990). In the first of these two studies, it was found that, in general, coaching behaviors had a significant impact on players' enjoyment of their sport, team solidarity, evaluation of coaches, and self-esteem (Smith et al., 1983). Furthermore, coaches who provided more mistake-contingent technical instruction, less punishment, less general feedback, and who engaged in fewer controlling behaviors were rated more positively by athletes. In the second study cited, Smith and Smoll (1990) found that children who were low in self-esteem responded more favorably to coaches who were reinforcing and encouraging and negatively to coaches who were not supportive.

In conclusion, the work of Smith, Smoll, and their colleagues has added a great deal of practical knowledge to the training methods of youth sport coaches. While this section only summarized a small segment of their work, it can be seen that certain ideal behaviors exist for youth sport coaches (remain positive, encouraging, and stress fundamentals) and that youth sport coaches can be trained to exhibit these ideal behaviors.

Recent Research in Coaching

The 1990s have witnessed a growth of empirical research in the coaching domain, much of which was influenced by the preceding bodies of research. Sport psychologist John Salmela, his colleagues, and graduate students at the University of Ottawa have led a great deal of the current research on coaching. This research has followed a qualitative format, one that involved in-depth interviews with a coach and the researcher. This method allowed the coaches to express their thoughts, feelings, emotions, and knowledge in a nonthreatening and unstructured manner. For example, Côté, Salmela, and colleagues (Côté, 1993; Côté & Salmela, 1996; Côté, Salmela, & Russell, 1995; Côté et al., 1995) studied the knowledge of expert individual (i.e., gymnastic) coaches; Bloom, Salmela, and collaborators (Bloom, Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 1997; Bloom et al., 1998; Bloom, Schinke, & Salmela, 1997; Miller, Bloom, & Salmela, 1996; Schinke, Bloom, & Salmela, 1995) investigated similar information of expert team sport (i.e., basketball, volleyball, field hockey, ice hockey) coaches. Recently, John Salmela supervised research of Luiz Carlos Moraes (1998) that examined expert coaches of combat (judo) sports. Although the two research projects had different goals and looked at different sports, there were a number of similarities. This included categorizing coaches' demands, responsibilities, and knowledge into three primary and three peripheral topics. Each of these six categories will be addressed in this part of the chapter, including differences between individual and team sport coaches. This section will also include a discussion of the Coaching Model (Côté, 1993; Côté et al., 1995) and an explanation of the Coaching Process (Bloom, 1997). Before proceeding, it is necessary to provide a brief overview of the structure of these two bodies of research.

Research on Expert Individual Sport Coaches

Jean Côté, John Salmela, and their colleagues (Côté & Salmela, 1996; Côté, Salmela, & Russell, 1995; Côté et al., 1995) interviewed 17 Canadian high-performance gymnastic coaches with a framework that allowed them to explore and conceptualize the structure of the coaches' knowledge without imposing any boundaries on what or how the coaches responded. All coaches had accumulated a minimum of 10 years of coaching experience, produced at least one international and two national level athletes, and were identified by their national coaching association as the top in their country. An analysis of this data resulted in the creation of the **Coaching Model (CM)** consisting of three primary components of coaching, labeled as organization, training, and competition, as well as three peripheral components, labeled as coach's characteristics, gymnast's personal characteristics, and contextual factors. Two other factors, the coach's goal and belief in the athlete's potential, completed the model (Fig. 22.3).

The Coaching Model. Côté and colleagues' (1995) creation of the CM was significant because it was the first theoretical framework for explaining which factors were most important for coaches as well as the relationships among these factors. While earlier research from Chelladurai (1978, 1980, 1984) and Smith, Smoll, and their associates (1977, 1978, 1990) identified models to investigate forms of coaching, such as leadership and the coaches' interactions during training and competition, they did not provide a conceptual framework that included broader variables involved in coaching. This point was alluded to in the results of an earlier study that listed the educational needs of American coaches (Gould et al., 1990, p. 342). In particular, Gould and associates found that "one disconcert-
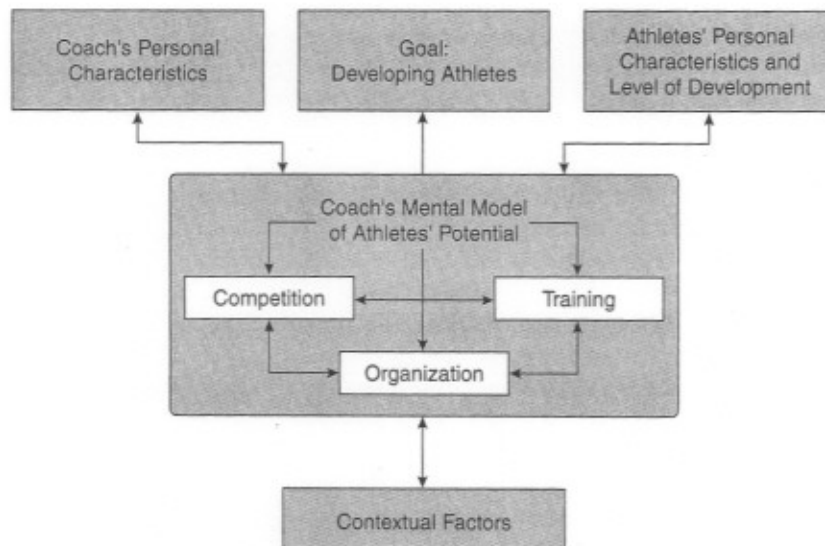

FIGURE 22.3 *The Coaching Model*

ing finding was that less than half of the coaches sampled felt that there exists a well-defined set of concepts and principles for coaches." Côté and colleagues (1995, p. 2) noted further that "without a general model of coaching, the knowledge accumulated through research remains disconnected information related to how and why coaches work as they do." It seems safe to surmise, therefore, that the CM will have a significant impact on all future forms of research carried out in the coaching domain.

Research on Expert Team Sport Coaches

John Salmela (1996) and Gordon Bloom (1997) led research at the University of Ottawa on expert team sport coaches. Salmela (1996) interviewed 22 of Canada's leading team sport coaches using an interview technique similar to the one employed by Côté and colleagues. The intent of Salmela's research was to uncover each coach's knowledge, including whether commonalties emerged across coaches and sports. He was interested in their evolution from athlete to novice coach to expert coach. Moreover, what experiences and opportunities did these coaches share and what were their common philosophies in the areas of organization, training, and competition? The coaches were chosen by international sport governing bodies based on a number of criteria, including coaching for at least 10 years, producing top athletes and teams, and achieving recognition from peers. The coaches were involved in the sports of ice hockey, field hockey, volleyball, and basketball, and represented men and women who had coached at the professional, Olympic, and collegiate levels. Bloom (1997) also examined team sport coaches; however, this research did not include any athletic or early coaching experiences. It focused on identifying the characteristics, knowledge, and strategies of expert coaches, and then conceptualizing the relationships between these categories.

Primary Categories of Coaches Knowledge

Research from both individual and team sport coaches identified three primary categories of a coach's knowledge: organization, training, and competition. The following discussion will explain and define each of the primary categories, including their internal makeup and any differences between individual and team sport coaches.

Organization

Organization is a prerequisite step to help coaches prepare for training and competition. It is the coaches' organizational skills that allow a season to be seen from the broadest perspective and then to sequence events through a planned process. Côté and Salmela (1996, p. 250) defined organization as "the knowledge used by coaches to establish optimal training and competition conditions by structuring and coordinating various coaching tasks."

Organization always has been represented as an important component in the success of teams or athletes, even if the exact term has not been used in most coaching textbooks, empirical studies, or autobiographies. For example, Douge and Hastie (1993) reviewed five approaches for examining coaching effectiveness, and all of them included what could be labeled as organizational tasks. Lacy and colleagues (Lacy & Darst, 1985; Lacy & Goldston,

1990) examined the behaviors of successful coaches during practice sessions. Through the use of a systematic observation procedure, they revealed two important categories of knowledge for top high school coaches: instruction and organization. Martens' (1990) textbook on coaching provides one of the best accounts of organization because it devotes two chapters to the planning skills of coaches. Coaches were encouraged to invest time in planning their activities, and three steps were listed for effectively developing a seasonal plan. First, coaches should establish their instructional goals. Second, they should select the subject matter needed to achieve each goal. Finally, they should organize the subject matter for instruction. After the coaches mapped out their plan for the season, two final steps were recommended. Coaches first should evaluate their athletes' initial level of skill and knowledge, and then they should orient their drills toward areas that need improvement.

The studies from Côté, Salmela, Bloom, and their colleagues all explicitly listed organization as a crucial variable for the success of any individual or team sport. The internal makeup of this category differed somewhat with these studies, which probably had more to do with the different demands inherent with team and individual sports than with a different understanding of the term. In their study of individual sport coaches, Côté and Salmela (1996) listed five subcomponents of organization: (1) working with parents, (2) working with assistants, (3) helping gymnasts with personal concerns, (4) planning training, (5) monitoring weight and esthetics. Salmela (1996) and Bloom (1997), on the other hand, listed eight organizational components of team sport coaches in their research: (1) the vision, (2) planning, (3) team selection, (4) goal setting, (5) team rules, (6) building team cohesion, (7) administrative concerns, (8) working with support staff.

The research on individual sport coaches listed categories that dealt with one-on-one relationships between coaches and their athletes. For example, working with parents, helping gymnasts with personal concerns (e.g., relationships with family members, personal and social lives, education, and retirement from sport), and monitoring weight/esthetics (only discussed by coaches of female gymnasts) all require a large amount of a coach's time and energy, something that probably isn't possible if dealing with a team of anywhere from 10 to 60 athletes. This difference also might be explained by the age of elite gymnasts, usually much younger than top performers from other sports. Gymnastic coaches, therefore, must have a great deal more interaction and communication with the athletes' parents compared to most other elite sports.

The main similarity between individual and team sport coaches was the importance placed on planning. All coaches felt it was important to plan ahead; this included quadrennial plans for Olympic coaches as well as seasonal, monthly, weekly, and daily plans for all coaches. The seven other organizational categories mentioned by team sport coaches directly relate to the dynamics involved with team sports, beginning with "the vision."

The Vision.   The most important subcomponent of organization for team sports was labeled as "**the vision.**" All team sport coaches felt very strongly about beginning any season or championship quest by clearly outlining the mission for their team and the steps necessary to achieve success. Without an explicit plan or vision from the coach, the team is unlikely to excel. Although basketball coach Phil Jackson is most known for implementing the Triangle Offense in helping lead the Chicago Bulls to a number of NBA championships

in the 1990s, what many individuals fail to realize is the vision that he first had for his team in relation to Michael Jordan, their star player.

> I flashed back to 1989 when I took over as head coach and had talked to Michael about how I wanted him to share the spotlight with his teammates so the team could grow and flourish. In those days he was a gifted young athlete with enormous confidence in his own abilities that had to be cajoled into making sacrifices for the team. Now he was an older, wiser player who understood that it wasn't brilliant individual performances that made great teams, but the energy that's unleashed when players put their egos aside and work toward a common goal. (Jackson & Delehanty, 1995, p. 21)

Former Northwestern University head football coach Gary Barnett provides another example of the importance of setting a vision for your athletes. Barnett took over a floundering football program in the early 1990s, one that set a record of 49 consecutive losses. Within 4 years, Barnett had led his Northwestern Wildcats football team to the Rose Bowl.

> Early on, we also created two Mission Statements that we now print in our media guide, which also is for recruiting.
>   Our mission is to take the student-athlete where he cannot take himself. We will foster an environment that teaches young men to:
>
> 1. Relentlessly pursue and win The Big Ten Championship!
> 2. Appreciate and embrace cultural diversity.
> 3. Achieve an exemplary foundation of leadership and academic success.
>
>   Our mission is based on the values of family, successful attitudes, and team chemistry. We believe in honesty, integrity, strength of character, care, and confidence. We embrace a commitment to excellence, loyalty, selflessness, trust, and humility. We teach overcoming adversity, establishing priorities, goal setting, and the value of diversity. (Barnett & Gregorian, 1996, p. 19)

Although setting a clear vision is very important for team sport coaches, motivating the athletes to buy into this vision is equally as important (Bloom, 1997; Salmela, 1996). When the athletes buy into their coaches' plan or vision, and the talent is present, the results are likely to end up as they did with Phil Jackson and the Chicago Bulls (i.e., winning many championships). Consider the following quote from one of the ice hockey coaches in Salmela's (1996, p. 70) research:

> One of the things I now feel is important is to try and make sure you can create the same vision in the minds of all your players. I have heard some people talk about it, saying "There is the North Star, we all want to follow the North Star." With the National Junior Team we wanted to win the gold medal. Once we had established the goal, I tried to make sure my athletes knew there were lots of different paths to that gold medal, that there was no set way of doing it. The key to getting there is the decision as a group that we are going to follow one way, and the guy who has been designated to set that direction is the coach.

The other six categories mentioned by the team sport coaches—team selection, team rules, team cohesion, goal setting, administrative concerns, dealing with support staff—all

relate to factors that will help the team function as a more complete and synchronized machine. The only category that might not be easily understood is administrative concerns. This dealt with money issues, finding housing for athletes, recruiting, athletic scholarships, and interactions with the university and/or sport governing bodies. In conclusion, coaches who are organized will have solid foundations from which to begin their seasons, including more effective training sessions.

Training

Quality training or practicing is an important time for most coaches. This is an opportunity to display their knowledge and skills to help their athletes prepare for competition. An old saying supports the significance of effective training time: "Practice doesn't make perfect; perfect practice makes perfect."

A great deal of research has been carried out in the sport sciences to look at different components or aspects of training. A popular method of gathering data in this area is known as **systematic observation.** Tharp and Gallimore (1976) carried out the first sport study using this method when they examined the practice sessions of legendary basketball coach John Wooden. Tharp and Gallimore (1976, p. 75) noted that although some successful college coaches "see their roles mostly as group facilitators or emotional managers, or even administrators, Wooden's system of basketball requires teaching and learning, everything from complex set-offense options to how to pull up your socks on right." They also found that most of Wooden's comments were instructional, meaning they were verbal cues relating to the basic fundamentals of playing basketball. Furthermore, Wooden seldom used positive statements in coaching although his negative statements were consistently followed by instructions, and he rarely used physical or negative punishment.

Lacy and associates (Lacy & Darst, 1985; Lacy & Goldston, 1990) used a similar methodology for acquiring data on the practice sessions of high school head coaches. They concluded that half of the coaches' behaviors were instructional in nature. More recently, Bloom, Crumpton, and Anderson (1999) coded the coaching behaviors of Fresno State basketball coach Jerry Tarkanian throughout the course of a season. Using a modified version of Tharp and Gallimore's (1976) instrument that further divided the instruction category into technical, tactical, and other measures, Bloom, Crumpton, and Anderson found that tactical instructions represented almost one-third of Tarkanian's coaching behaviors during practices. The next closest category, called hustles, where the coach was encouraging his players to work harder, had a frequency that was almost half that of tactical instructions.

It is important to consider that all of the coaches observed in these studies used their practice sessions to improve various elements of their athletes' technical and tactical skills. The old school of thinking, one that involves an extensive physical training component and excessive verbal abuse, appears to have been replaced by more effective, learner-friendly training sessions.

Although the studies on individual and team sport coaches defined training in a similar manner, the subcomponents contained within this category differed. In Côté, Salmela, and Russell's (1995) work on expert gymnastic coaches, training was broken down into the following five categories: (1) technical skills, (2) mental skills, (3) intervention style, (4) simulation, (5) coach involvement. Salmela (1996) and Bloom (1997) divided training into four

equally important categories that are the most commonly recognized: (1) physical training, (2) technical training, (3) tactical training, (4) mental training.

Physical Training. **Physical training** is the area in which athletes' respiratory, energy, and muscular systems are prepared from aerobic, anaerobic, flexibility, and strength perspectives. The sole purpose of this component is to train the athletes' physical strength, endurance, and conditioning so they will perform well in competition. Coaches are adamant in their feelings about the importance of hard, strenuous training, using practices that are up-tempo and fast-moving (Bloom, 1997; Salmela, 1996).

Tactical Training. The area that deals with teaching the cognitive strategies used by coaches to outsmart their opponents is known as **tactical training.** It was apparent that the coaches carefully crafted their practice environment with plays and strategies. An important part of tactical training was simulating the game situations of their opponents (Bloom, 1997; Salmela, 1996).

Technical Training. A third element of training, technical aspects or the skill-based dimension, appears to be the most obvious pedagogical part of coaching. **Technical training** occurs when coaches provide instruction to their athletes that will enhance the learning of individual motor skills or interactive team maneuvers. It was important to these coaches that all their players received some form of individual attention to help them reach their athletic potential (Bloom, 1997; Côté, Salmela, & Russell, 1995; Salmela, 1996).

Mental Training. A final segment of training included **mental training.** The brain is trained to think and react optimally in pressure situations. The expert coaches all incorporated some form of mental training into their athletes' regimens, although some gave it more priority than others. Many of the coaches felt it was important as well to hire a sport psychologist to work with their team on the finer aspects of mental training, such as motivation, controlling anxiety, and visualization techniques (Bloom, 1997; Côté, Salmela, & Russell, 1995; Salmela, 1996).

Competition

It should come as no surprise to see competition listed as one of the three primary categories of coaching, along with training and organization. This category relates to those tasks that take place throughout the day of competition. While early research on competition focused on youth sport coaches (e.g., Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1978, 1979; Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977), recently some empirical sources on expert coaches have contributed to the body of knowledge in this area (e.g., Bloom, Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 1997; Côté, Salmela, & Russell, 1995; Salmela, 1996).

Côté, Salmela, and Russell (1995) broke down the competition category for expert gymnastic coaches into the competition site, the competition floor, and trial competitions. Competition site included all the time spent by coaches during a competition day, weekend, or week that was not spent immediately before, during, or after an event. The competition floor encompassed all of the time spent by the gymnasts immediately before, during,
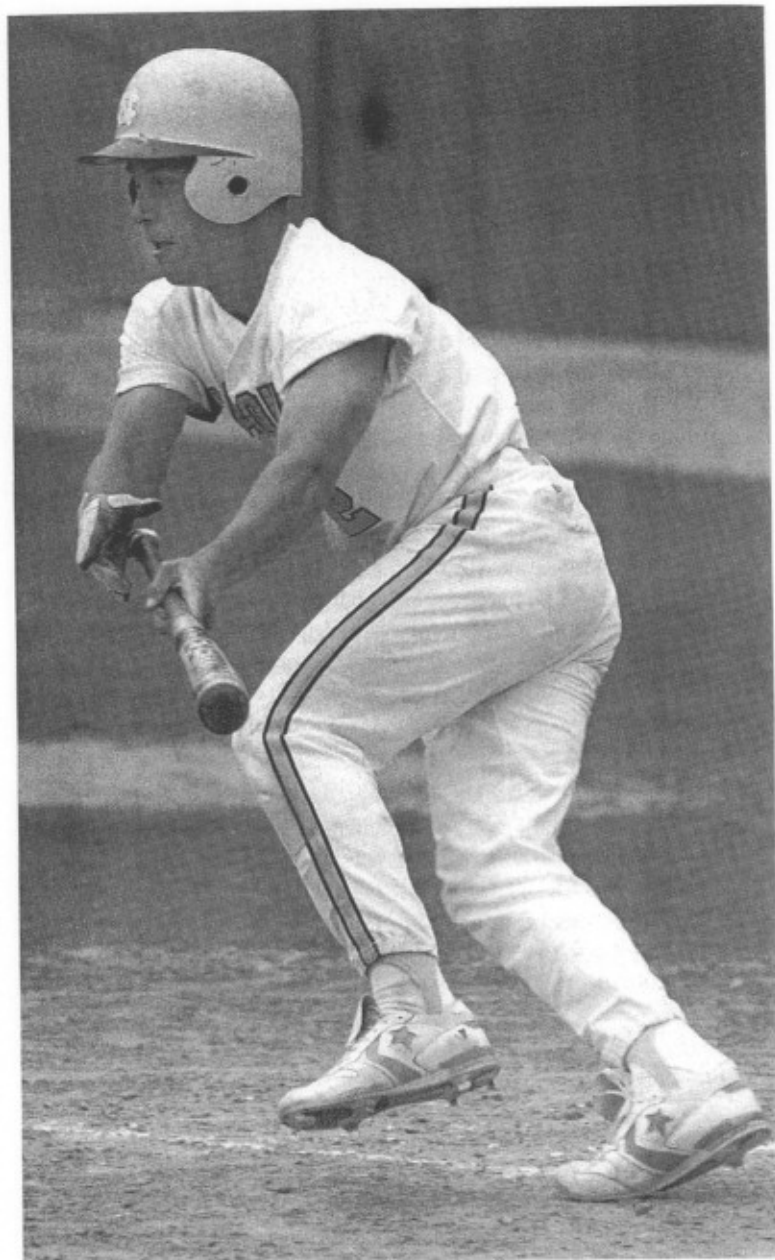
Attention to the finer points of the game is often the responsibility of the expert coach.

or after an event. Trial competitions were defined as "real competitions" in which the gymnasts participated that would help them become more confident and technically strong.

Research on team sport coaches' interactions before, during, and after competitions has been even more extensive than research on individual sport coaches (e.g., Bloom, 1997; Bloom, Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 1997; Salmela, 1996). This probably can be attributed to the complexity and importance of team sport coaches' activities before, during, and after competition. In team sports, for example, coaches play an active role during competition, whereas in individual sports (skiing, equestrian, figure skating, or gymnastics) coaches act more as passive observers, because there are no athlete substitutions, time-outs, and few interactions with officials. It seems safe to surmise that although studies on individual and team sport coaches defined competition in a similar manner (pre-, during, and postcompetition), only data from team sport coaches necessitated a more in-depth analysis of this area of coaching.

Precompetition.   Precompetition routines of team sport coaches involve their tasks from the moment they wake up on the morning of game day until they arrive on-site. These duties are further divided into those related to the team and those related to the coaches themselves. In the former, coaches focus on the early morning routines of their athletes, helping them mentally prepare for the game and organizing team meetings. Early morning routines refer to such activities as pregame meals, transportation, and team routines, all thought by coaches to increase the closeness of the team.

Another area within precompetition was the personal preparation coaches provided for themselves. The quality of their coaching performance often was affected by the amount of preparation accomplished earlier in the day. It was found that expert team sport coaches had their own routines on game day, including preparing their minds and bodies early in the day, mentally rehearsing for the upcoming game, arriving early at the competition site, and adhering to specific procedures during the pregame warm-up of their players. The following two quotes from Salmela (1996, pp. 147–149) highlight these points:

> I do a lot of things, like a daily run. On game day, that run is very important to me because it is my quiet time to think. No phones and nothing but me and my dog. He doesn't talk; he just runs. That's great....

> I have a specific plan for myself during the game. During my preparation, I try to go through the things I think I am going to do. It is like practicing my game plan. I try to run through some scenarios, saying, "If this doesn't work, then I will do this." I don't get too locked in because too many things can happen.

Two final areas contained within the precompetition routines of expert team sport coaches were the pregame warm-up and the pregame pep talk. With respect to the warm-up, the coaches stressed the importance of having one that was well-run, professional, and cohesive. They wanted their athletes to use this time to mentally prepare themselves for the upcoming contest. During the time of their team's warm-up, the coaches either scouted their opponents or rested in the coaches' room. The second category contained within precompetition was the pregame pep talk. While many individuals still believe in the old rah-rah

inspirational type of pep talk, one that was made famous by Knute Rockne's "Win one for the Gipper" speech, these coaches felt otherwise. Like Martens (1987) and Cox (1994) earlier, the results of these studies (Bloom, Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 1997; Salmela, 1996) revealed that coaches preferred a calm, even-tempered pregame pep talk. They believe their athletes have individual needs and arousal levels that would be differentially affected by a high-spirited pep talk. The coaches' final words were process-centered and reviewed three or four of the most important points stressed in the previous week's preparation.

During Competition.   Salmela's (1996) textbook revealed a number of important areas once the competition began. In fact, it was found that team sport coaches still had significant responsibilities because the slightest edge might make the difference between victory and defeat. The information related to the strategic use of time-outs and substitutions, judicious interactions with game officials, providing athletes with appropriate playing time, and the effective use of intermission breaks. The coaches' understanding of sport went beyond the basic textbook strategies. They reported what might be considered an uncanny ability, while reading the game, to notice what few others did. Most of the factors just listed do not apply to coaches of individual sports because they generally take a passive approach during competition.

Postcompetition.   Postcompetition activities of expert team sport coaches dealt with four areas: how the coaches handled the outcome, how they coped with their own emotions, what they did and said in the locker room, and their postgame evaluation (Bloom, Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 1997; Salmela, 1996). The content and focus of the postcompetition meeting depended both on the outcome and on the coaches' perceptions of whether the team played well or poorly. For example, when the team won and played well, coaches emphasized effort and performance, not just outcome. Second, when they won but played poorly, coaches stressed areas needing improvement and acknowledged those individuals who gave a solid effort. Coaches felt that winning was the priority, and whenever the team won, the athletes should savor it, no matter how poorly the coaches thought they had played.

Losses depended on whether the coaches felt the players performed up to their capabilities. For example, when the team lost but played well, the expert team sport coaches said it was important to remain encouraging, focusing on the positive aspects of their performance. However, when the team lost and played poorly, most of these coaches felt it was best to say little to their players because the players usually weren't in a receptive mode and they themselves worried about saying something they would later regret. The coaches had to hold back their natural tendency to correct any flaws or errors that they noticed during the game. They felt the best time for this was at the next training session, not immediately after a game.

After the contest, the expert team sport coaches also had to deal with their own emotions before entering the locker room. Many chose to take some time for themselves in order to "wind down." This is another significant difference between individual and team sport coaches. While the former are generally unobtrusive observers, the latter play an active role in the contest and often experience the same emotions as many of their athletes. After gathering their thoughts, the coaches were ready to enter the locker room. Most coaches said very little because they realized that both they and their athletes still were

very emotional. They especially were aware that they shouldn't single out any individual player. One reason for not analyzing the game in the locker room was that the coaches wanted to complete a thorough postgame evaluation, something that took place within 24 hours of the match. The expert team sport coaches were cognizant of the importance of consulting a number of resources, such as videos of the contest, statistics, and assistant coaches, before finalizing the postgame evaluation.

Info Box

Knowledge about training athletes physically, technically, tactically, and mentally is the responsibility of the coach, as is approaching competition and leading the athlete or team through it. However, organizational abilities are even more crucial in coaching. Developing a season-long strategy, slamming individual practice days, and preparating for competition require the coaches to establish a "vision" of what their team has the potential to accomplish.

Peripheral Categories of Coaches Knowledge

Côté and colleagues' (1995) CM detailed the importance of the three primary categories of organization, training, and competition. It also explained how the primary categories are directly affected by their interactions with three peripheral components called the coach's characteristics, athlete's characteristics, and contextual factors. These three categories will now be defined and explained.

Coaches' Characteristics

Côté and associates (1995) defined the **coaches' characteristics** as any variables that are part of the coach's philosophy, perceptions, beliefs, or personal life that could influence any or all of the three primary categories. Bloom (1997) and Salmela's (1996) coaches' characteristics dealt with the coach's continuing passion for acquiring knowledge, the maturation process of coaching, the necessity of hard work, and the ability to find the right coaching style.

A common trait to emerge from team sport coaches was their continued quest for acquiring more coaching knowledge (Bloom, 1997; Salmela, 1996). No matter how long they had been coaching, there was consensus that one never should stop learning. Attending coaching clinics, gaining coaching experience, and interacting with peers were some of the most important methods of learning. Along the same line, the coaches in both Bloom and Salmela's research explicitly stated the value of a strong work ethic. Many of these coaches noted how they work in a very competitive field, and the only way to succeed is by working harder than their colleagues work. This may mean sacrificing a long weekend with one's family to recruit or not going to the movies because the only film these coaches have time to watch are game films. Finally, the coaches discussed the importance of developing a personalized coaching style. Coaches felt that to succeed, they had to develop a coaching style that best suited their personality. Emulating other successful coaches was not always the best way to proceed.

Athletes' Characteristics

Côté and colleagues (1995) defined the **athletes' characteristics** as any variables relating to the athlete's stage of learning, personal abilities, and other personal characteristics that could affect the three primary categories. Bloom's (1997) and Salmela's (1996) understanding of this category was similar in many respects. In particular, athletes characteristics dealt with the importance of helping athletes' grow both inside and outside of sport, respecting athletes, the type of (professional) relationship coaches have with their athletes, and ways to establish the ideal learning environment for athletes.

An important finding from both of these studies of expert coaches was that they sought to improve their athletes' lives both inside and outside of sport, in other words to develop the whole person. The coaches were concerned about the personal success of their athletes once their sporting careers were over. The following quote illustrates this point:

> The idea is you want to develop independent thinking, creative, responsible individuals who can make decisions when they leave. Clearly, it's incumbent upon the athlete to develop self-discipline and properly manage their time and priorities. There will be ups and downs, pitfalls along the way, but in the end, if they've survived a rigorous, demanding, and intense athletic involvement, and if they've also done well academically, achieving their degree, what more rewarding experience could you ask for? (Salmela, 1996, p. 50)

In contrast to the similarities, there were some differences between the individual and team sport coaches in this category. Not surprisingly, the difference is directly attributable to the different demands of individual and team sports. Whereas individual sport coaches can divert all of their attention to one athlete all of the time and thus create more personal decisions around a single athlete, team sport coaches must be aware of how their interactions relate to the overall organization and effectiveness of the team.

Contextual Factors

Côté and associates (1995, p. 12) defined **contextual factors** as "unstable factors, aside from the athletes and the coach, such as working conditions, that need to be considered when intervening in the organization, training, and competition components." These also could be defined as situationally specific variables. Bloom (1997) and Salmela (1996) have listed a number of contextual factors that include the university, the professional, and the family context. Depending on the advantages or disadvantages inherent within each of these components, a coach or team's win–loss record could be greatly influenced. For example, a team in the university setting can gain a significant advantage over other schools if it receives more to fund scholarships and to purchase new equipment.

The team sport coaches alluded to a number of different variables or constraints that were present in different environments, such as the collegiate, international, professional, or Olympic contexts (Bloom, 1997; Salmela, 1996). For example, when traveling internationally overseas, the coaches must prepare their teams with more than just tactics and techniques. They also must study the culture, food, and political climate. Other interesting scenarios greeted coaches of professional sport teams. Many of these coaches found themselves dealing with athletes who were making more money than they were, and, in some

cases, who had more control or power over team decisions than they did. They also had to deal with management who sometimes wanted certain players to receive more playing time due to their contractual status. These were variables that often received little or no attention in the minor league or collegiate contexts.

One final area was the influence of the family on the lives of the coaches. In fact, Salmela (1996) provides one of the most candid portrayals of the problems facing coaches—trying to establish a solid family life. Many of these coaches were divorced or chose not to get married because many of them traveled for 200 days of the year. This was a sacrifice they chose to make, and one that they believed helped them progress up the coaching ranks. On the other hand, there was a glimmer of hope provided by the coaches who remained married. Most of them stated that marrying a former athlete or fellow coach was the ideal solution or marrying a spouse who clearly understood the sacrifices that they would have to make.

The Coaching Process

An important contribution from the research on expert coaches (Bloom, 1997; Côté, Salmela, & Russell, 1995) was the way it explained the relationship between the primary and peripheral categories. The term "**coaching process**" refers to the manner in which the six categories affect one another. Although Côté and associates' (1995) results were analogous to those carried out on expert team sport coaches, there were some differences other than those dealing with the dynamics between the two types of sports. The most important related to the primary objective of the two studies. Côté and colleagues' research examined factors affecting the knowledge of coaches for developing elite gymnasts, which ultimately led to the creation of the CM. The CM did not provide a detailed analysis of how the coaches' interpersonal characteristics, such as their quest for knowledge and personal growth, affected their interactions in the other five categories. Thus, a primary goal of the research on expert team sport coaches was to uncover the characteristics that made these coaches special, including how the characteristics explained the coaches' interactions within the organizational, training, and competition elements, as well as athlete interactions and adaptations to different coaching contexts (Bloom, 1997).

Bloom (1997) found that the coaches' interpersonal characteristics infused energy and directed the other five categories. These coaches were totally possessed with all aspects of their profession, including becoming the best coach possible. Although this was labeled as a peripheral category, it is very important because it affects such crucial areas as how coaches acquire coaching knowledge and how it has shaped their interactions with athletes and other individuals involved within their sport. For example, if coaches are rigid and unwilling to learn, they are likely to encounter problems in the central areas of organization, training, and competition. On the other hand, coaches who choose to attend clinics, seminars, and symposia to update their knowledge and who regularly exchange information with their peers will probably have more interesting practices, more detailed seasonal plans, and more success at competitions. In addition, coaches with more intricate personal approaches to coaching, such as working harder and communicating more effectively, should have happier players who will produce better results during competition (Bloom, 1997).

Conclusion and Recommendations

This chapter has explained the demands and responsibilities of expert coaches, including how coaches can begin to acquire coaching knowledge when they are athletes and beginner coaches. Côté and colleagues' (1995) CM helped to identify the primary and peripheral aspects of a coach's profession, especially coaches of individual sports. Bloom's (1997) and Salmela's (1996) research on team sport coaches found that although the larger picture remained unchanged with the same six categories emerging, some differences did exist. Most prominently, Bloom's (1997) research outlined how the coaches' personal characteristics are a starting point for understanding how the coaching process works. Expert team sport coaches were driven by a persistent quest for personal growth, learning, and development. This drive and determination often led to achievement in their profession.

Although research in coaching has progressed significantly in the last decade, there is still much more to be accomplished. With the increase in salaries of such professional coaches as Rick Pitino and Pat Riley in basketball, Tony LaRussa and Jim Leyland in baseball, Scotty Bowman in hockey, and Bill Parcells in football combined with the recent empirical surge of studies in sport psychology, one can expect research in this unique domain to continually move forward. Until that time, the following recommendations and key points are offered:

1. Developing coaches should acquire hands-on coaching experience, observe other successful coaches, attend clinics, seminars, and symposia, and, most importantly, acquire a mentor coach.
2. The acquisition of coaching knowledge begins with one's athletic experiences.
3. A balance among the three types of coaching leadership (required, preferred, actual) produces ideal team performance and athlete satisfaction.
4. Youth sport coaches can be trained to exhibit the ideal characteristics for athlete performance and satisfaction.
5. Recent research has indicated that top coaches are not born with certain leadership qualities; these characteristics can be learned.
6. The CM represents an important development in the research on coaching psychology because it is the first theoretical framework for explaining which factors are most important in this domain.
7. Strong organizational skills are important assets for coaches of all levels.
8. It is important to have a plan or vision for the team that is verbally expressed to the athletes at the beginning of each season.
9. It is necessary to master knowledge of the physical, tactical, technical, and mental components of training.
10. Coaches meticulously prepare both themselves and their athletes for upcoming competitions.
11. Coaches prefer an even-tempered pregame pep talk.
12. Coaches assess their team's performance based on the outcome and their perception of the team's effort.
13. Coaches say very little to their team at the completion of the contest, preferring to first thoroughly analyze the match.

14. Coaches stress the importance of continuous learning.
15. Successful coaches attribute a great deal of their success to hard work and dedication.
16. Coaches are concerned with the personal development of their athletes.
17. Successful coaches are able to adapt to different contexts.
18. Marriage and family for successful coaches requires great sacrifices that need to be clearly outlined to a potential spouse.
19. Coaches' interpersonal characteristics plays a large part in their interactions and adaptations to the different areas of their profession.

Key Terms (in order of appearance)

mentoring	actual leader behavior	systematic observation
trait theories of leadership	Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS)	physical training
behavior theories of leadership	Coaching Behavior Assessment	tactical training
consideration	System (CBAS)	technical training
initiating structure	reactive behavior	mental training
Multidimensional Model	spontaneous behavior	coaches' characteristic
of Leadership	Coaching Model (CM)	athletes' characteristic
required behavior	organization	contextual factor
preferred leader behavior	"the vision"	"coaching process"

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