Chapter 11
Coaching Psychology
Gordon A. Bloom

Chapter Objectives
After reading this chapter, you should be able to do the following:

1. Describe the coach education structure and process in Canada and abroad.
2. Identify the steps to become an elite coach.
3. Describe the common characteristics and coaching principles of youth-sport coaches.
4. Describe the components of Chelladurai’s sport leadership model and its relationship to coaching.
5. Define the different components of the coaching model.
6. Describe the coaching model and its relationship to effective coaching.
7. Explain the athlete-centred approach adopted by many non-professional Canadian coaches.
8. Explain the model of coaching efficacy.
Coach C, an aspiring third-year coach of an elite women’s basketball team, could not sleep for the past week. She was thinking about her team competing in the upcoming playoffs without her top player and league most valuable player (MVP). With this player, Coach C’s team had been ranked as high as first in the province and fifth in the country. They were on a roll, and the playoffs were just around the corner. Coach C wanted to win to establish her reputation as an up-and-coming elite coach.

The loss of this key player was not due to injury, attitude, or academics; rather, it was due to an ethical dilemma that would create the defining moment of this young coach’s career. If this athlete played one more game during the season, then she would forfeit a year of eligibility at a NCAA Division 1 university in the United States, for which she was being heavily recruited. Playing at an American Division 1 university would allow this athlete to realize her dream of competing against the best women basketball players in the world and possibly playing basketball for the Canadian national team upon her graduation.

The day before the playoffs began, Coach C received a text message from her athlete indicating her desire to continue playing this year. Would Coach C lessen her chance of coaching a national championship team by not encouraging her star athlete to play in this game? The answer is “yes”; Coach C convinced her league MVP not to play in the game, and the team subsequently lost a close game in the first round of the playoffs. Coach C knew her star athlete’s heart was with the team but that deep down she was uncertain and nervous about the consequences of playing and forfeiting a year of NCAA-playing eligibility. Coach C believed that the value of a sound education for a student was far more important than adding a notch to her coaching resume.

This scenario indicates how a coach’s decision and behavior affect many people in different ways. Thus, it is not surprising that research on expert performers in domains ranging from the arts and sciences to sport have found that the quality of teaching or coaching is an important factor contributing to an individual’s rise to prominence (Bloom, 1985; Salmela & Moraes, 2003). This may also explain the large amount of time, effort, and energy that some parents of gifted children spend searching for the right coach or teacher to help their child realize his or her potential.

Given this information, why then is so little respect afforded to many of Canada’s greatest coaches by both the media and the general population? Possibly with the exception of professional or national team coaches in ice hockey—where the exploits of Toe Blake, Scotty Bowman, Danielle Sauvageau, and Mike Babcock are lauded—many of our elite-level Canadian coaches have received little acclaim or public adoration. For example, how many people in Canada are aware of the accomplishments of former Olympic basketball coaches Kathy Shields or Jack Donohue, or of current national team coaches Michel Larouche in diving and Allison McNeill in basketball, or Paralympic coach Peter Eriksson in athletics?

The relative anonymity of these great coaches leads to many interesting questions: Do people value and understand the importance of a good coach? As well, is there a recipe for coaching development and knowledge acquisition? And, what knowledge is used by coaches to develop successful and well-balanced athletes?
Common Myths about Coaching Psychology

MYTH: Outstanding athletes have an advantage in becoming excellent coaches.

MYTH: Aspiring coaches must emulate the most successful coaches in their sport, regardless of their own personality, beliefs, or philosophy.

MYTH: All elite-level coaches are focused solely on winning at the expense of athlete growth and development.

MYTH: Coaching confidence is determined solely by one's innate personality.

INTRODUCTION

Information presented in this chapter falls under Gilbert and Trudel's (2004) term coaching science, which "comprises research on the coaching, learning, and instructional processes as directed by coaches" (p. 389). Gilbert and Trudel compiled and analyzed a database of 611 studies on coaching science published in English-language journals between 1970 and 2001. Among their findings are the following points:

1. Coaching science research has increased significantly since 1970, now averaging approximately 30 published articles per year.
2. There is a relatively small core of authors who have developed a significant line of research in coaching science.
3. Research has branched from solely examining coaching behaviours to looking at coaching behaviours in combination with coaching cognition.
4. There is no single resource that lists and evaluates the assessment tools created to study coaching practices.
5. Coach gender issues are one of the most frequently studied topics in this field; as well, coaching effectiveness (knowledge) and career issues (e.g., burnout) are starting to receive increased attention.
6. Coaching science research has seen a continuous increase in qualitative research studies, especially those incorporating an interview technique.
7. There is a virtual absence of studies of coaching science that include athletes, parents, and sport administrators.
8. Most coaching scientific studies have focused on both team-sport and school-based coaches; however, this excludes the youth and professional levels of coaching.
9. Ninety percent of the studies have not used any criteria of coaching effectiveness.

COACH EDUCATION

The value and impact of coaching has grown tremendously since the word coach first came into existence following the 1860 American Civil War (Coakley, 1990). Yet, the path for becoming a coach is not as clearly laid out as it is for other professionals, such as a teacher, lawyer, or nurse. In Canada, coach education and development is governed by
Figure 11.1  The new coaching education structure in Canada

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community Sport stream</th>
<th>Competition stream</th>
<th>Instruction stream</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Initiation Comp-Int</strong></td>
<td><strong>Introduction Comp-Int</strong></td>
<td><strong>Beginners Inst-Beg</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Ongoing participation Comp-Ong</strong></td>
<td><strong>Development Comp-Dev</strong></td>
<td><strong>Intermediate performers Inst-Bnd</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Initiation context
Participants of all ages are encouraged to participate in the sport and introduced to sport basics in a fun, safe, and self-esteem building environment regardless of their ability.

Ongoing participation context
Participants of all ages are encouraged to continue participating in the sport for fun, fitness, skill development, and social interaction.

Introduction context
Children and/or adolescents are taught basic skills and athletic abilities in a fun and safe environment and are typically prepared for local and/or regional level competitions.

Development context
Adolescents and young adults are coached to refine basic sport skills, to develop more advanced skills and tactics, and are generally prepared for performance at provincial and/or national level competitions.

High performance context
Advanced performers are coached to refine advanced skills and tactics and are typically prepared for performance at national and international level competitions.

Beginners context
Participants of all ages, with little or no sport experience, are taught basic sport skills.

Intermediate performers context
Participants who have some experience and proficiency in the sport, are taught to refine basic skills and introduced to more complex techniques.

Advanced performers context
Participants who are experienced and already proficient in the sport are taught to refine advanced skills and techniques.

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the Coaching Association of Canada (CAC; www.coach.ca), which was created in 1970 following a task force recommendation on sport in our country. The CAC's mission is to provide the foundation of skills, knowledge, and attitudes needed to ensure effective coaching leadership for Canadian athletes. In 1974, CAC created the National Coaching Certification Program (NCCP) to meet the needs of all coaches, from beginner to most experienced. Through a series of workshops, the NCCP trains and certifies coaches in more than 60 sports. Most sources have credited Canada's NCCP as being the first widely adopted national coach education program in the world.

The structure of the NCCP has recently been re-developed. The original model was a knowledge- and course-based program run by the CAC with five levels of certification. The new model is structured around a competency-based approach to coach training and education that places more emphasis on coaches' abilities to meet the needs of their participants. As well, more emphasis is placed on the environment or context (particular level) in which the coach is coaching. In layman's terms, the CAC has moved from a "what a coach should know" approach to a "what a coach should do" approach.

The new NCCP model is divided into three streams (see Figure 11.1 and www.coach.ca/eng/certification/nccp_for_coaches/nccp_model.cfm):

1. Community Sport Stream: This stream focuses on broad-based participation at introductory levels of sport (e.g., house league). Coaches in this stream are instructed to introduce sport for fun, to develop skills, and to foster social interaction and life-long participation.
2. Competition Stream: This stream focuses on skill development for participation in competitive contexts (e.g., high-school sport and higher). The coaches are instructed in all areas of athlete training, including physical, technical, tactical, and mental.

3. Instruction Stream: This stream focuses on skill proficiency in non-competitive situations (e.g., tennis camp, golf instructor).

Additional coach education and development information in Canada can be acquired through either the educational system or the National Coaching Institutes. Regarding the former, some universities in Canada (i.e., Victoria, Alberta, and Laval) offer specialized training in coach education. Perhaps the most well known is the Master of Education in Coaching Studies program at the University of Victoria (www.edc.uvic.ca/phed/med_coaching.html). This two-year, non-thesis program caters to those with a particular interest in coaching science and offers both courses and co-operative work terms. It is geared to those with a specific interest in elite coaching. Although not a postgraduate program, Université Laval offers a Baccalauréat en Intervention Sportive (BIS; www.bse.ulaval.ca/reseau-bis) that is also divided into distinct stages that provide both theory (classroom setting) and practical experiences (apprenticeships).

Canada presently has National Coaching Institutes (NCIs; www.coach.ca/eng/institutes/index.cfm) located in seven provinces across the country whose mission is to enhance the training environment for high-performance coaches (and athletes) through a variety of services. Successful completion of this program grants students a diploma in High Performance Coaching, which attests to expertise in three main areas: (1) planning, designing, and implementing a sport program that fits within the context of their athletes, (2) knowledge on practical coaching, and (3) leadership skills and ethical coaching strategies. The NCIs integrate classroom study with a coaching apprenticeship under the guidance of a highly qualified master coach. Overall, the program aims to improve one's critical thinking, communication skills, and overall philosophy on coaching elite athletes.

Similar in many ways to Canada, both Australia and the United Kingdom have coach education systems that are fewer than 35 years old and were developed in part with government participation and assistance. Created around the same time as Canada's program, Australia's program (www.ausport.gov.au/participating/coaches) ensures that its 84,000 accredited coaches have received training in coaching principles. The National Coaching Accreditation Scheme (NCAS) is an initiative of the Australian Sports Commission (ASC) and is a progressive coach education program offering courses at various levels, with over 70 sports participating. The ACS has developed an initiative to encourage inexperienced coaches to enter their program and has launched the Beginning Coaching General Principles, a free basic skills course to assist beginner coaches in Australia.

The United Kingdom’s coach education program began in 1983 with their National Coaching Foundation, which then changed its name to sports coach UK (www.sportscoachuk.org). Its mandate is to guide the education and development of coaches at every level and to promote and establish coaching as a profession. In 2006, sports coach UK was asked to develop The UK Coaching Framework, an initiative that was designed to enhance the quality of coaching at all levels and to be a world leader in coaching development by 2016. One of the developments of this group is the UK Coaching Certificate
(UKCC), a coach education program in which 21 sports are currently taking part (www.ukcoachingcertificate.org).

A different approach to coach training and education has taken place in the United States. Unlike the three countries already mentioned, the United States does not have one government-based national coaching organization for training its many volunteer and professional coaches, and coach education programs are rarely mandatory. Instead, several coaching development programs were created around the same time as the NCCP and NCAS. For example, the American Coaching Effectiveness Program, founded in 1976, evolved into the American Sport Education Program (ASEP; www.asep.com) and is the most widely used program in the United States (Trudel & Gilbert, 2006). ASEP currently certifies coaches in two streams: volunteer and professional. Positive Coaching Alliance (PCA) is another American organization that is responsible for educating coaches (www.positivecoach.org). Founded in 1998 at Stanford University, PCA provides research-based training workshops and practical tools for coaches.

Recent efforts from the National Association for Sport & Physical Education (www.aahperd.org/naspe), a non-profit organization established in the 2000s, led to the creation of the National Council for the Accreditation of Coach Education in the United States. Its goal is to facilitate the development and accreditation of all coaching education/certification programs based on domain standards that are set across several levels. This project has been endorsed by the United States Olympic Committee, several key youth-sport organizations, and many universities offering coaching education studies.

The government-funded and -supported coaching education programs in Canada, Australia, and the United Kingdom demonstrate that coaching is becoming recognized as an important field that can assist the growth and development of today’s amateur and professional athletes. Coach education has grown tremendously in the last 40 years since certified programs were introduced. Presently, coach education is aided by the International Council for Coach Education (ICCE; www.icce.ws), whose mission is to improve the quality and exposure of coaching at all levels around the world. Based at the Wingate Institute for Physical Education and Sport in Israel, the ICCE has a membership that includes contacts in over 25 countries. ICCE’s mission has undoubtedly been enhanced by the creation of several journals that are particularly geared toward coaching science: International Journal of Coaching Science, International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching, Journal of Coaching Education, Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research, and Practice. The rapid progress and restructuring of coach education programs around the world, combined with different avenues to disseminate information, indicates that people are beginning to understand and value the importance of the coach in the growth and development of athletes.

Coaching education programs offered by national organizations (e.g., NCCP), National Coaching Institutes, and higher education institutions can facilitate coaching effectiveness.
Canada, the United Kingdom, and Australia have well-developed coach education programs that were partly developed with government participation and assistance. What do you think are the advantages of structured coaching education programs? Can you think of any possible drawbacks?

COACH DEVELOPMENT

Despite the efforts of the ICCE and various coach education programs, there has historically been a lack of scientific research on ways of becoming a successful (Canadian) coach. In the last 15 years, a group of Canadian researchers have begun identifying common developmental pathways and characteristics that shed light on what it takes to become a top-level coach in this country (e.g., Carter & Bloom, in press; Erickson, Côté, & Fraser-Thomas, 2007; Gilbert, Côté, & Mallett, 2006; Schinke, Bloom, & Salmela, 1995). As athletes, all of the elite Canadian coaches reported living active and successful sporting lives that began with a love of sport that was often fuelled by the encouragement of family members and accessibility to physical resources. They played and excelled in a number of sports as youths (both team and individual) and often had many leadership positions throughout their athletic careers. Not surprisingly, some researchers have found that elite athletic experiences were found to be an important aspect of expert coaches’ career development, knowledge, and perhaps even career success (Cregan, Bloom, & Reid, 2007; Erickson et al., 2007; Gilbert et al., 2006; Schinke et al., 1995). The question that remains unanswered is how much athletic experience is required.

Gilbert and colleagues (2006) found that successful high-school and elite sport coaches accumulated a minimum of several thousand hours of athletic participation, across several sports, for at least 13 years. Erickson and associates (2007) also found that expert coaches had accumulated highly competitive sport experiences. Despite this, neither study was able to identify a minimum standard of athletic excellence required to reach an elite level of coaching, although it was implied that they were “elite” athletes. Carter and Bloom (in press) offered a different viewpoint on the necessity of elite athletic experiences for becoming an expert coach. More specifically, their sample consisted of successful university team-sport coaches who had not competed as athletes at the university level or higher. The coaches in their study demonstrated that, with persistence, it was possible to acquire coaching knowledge without having been an elite athlete. Interestingly, most of their recommendations for acquiring coaching knowledge were similar to other studies on expert coach development (except for the elite athletic experiences):

- Volunteering in the community, either at camps or at youth-sport practices
- Gaining experience as an assistant coach
- Frequently interacting with other coaches
- Observing other coaches
- Studying kinesiology and physical education at university
- Attending coaching clinics
- Reading coaching books and acquiring coaching information via the Internet

One additional area that may be the most important factor in coaches' growth and development is mentoring. There are many professions in which mentoring is a common and expected process. For example, pilots, doctors, and police officers spend years refining their skills with the assistance of experienced and knowledgeable colleagues who ensure that they are allowed to grow and develop in an environment designed to minimize errors and build knowledge and confidence.

An empirical examination of mentoring by researchers Bloom, Durand-Bush, Schinke, and Salmela (1998) found that all of the 21 expert coaches in their sample were mentored both as athletes and as developing coaches by well-respected individuals. The knowledge they acquired from their mentors helped mold their coaching ideas and philosophies. Interestingly, these coaches noted that it was important for them not to imitate everything about their mentors; rather, their own beliefs and personalities affected their coaching style. The importance of mentoring has also been highlighted by researchers in both the United States (Gould, Giannini, Krane, & Hodge, 1990) and the United Kingdom (Jones, Armour, & Potrac, 2003).

Although the NCCP values the importance of receiving advice and training from a respected mentor, a question still remains: How much of an impact does good mentoring have on the growth and development of aspiring coaches? The answer to this question may never be known; however, an examination of the pedigree of some of sport's greatest coaches clearly shows the importance of solid mentoring. Former NHL coach Scotty Bowman learned from the greatest predecessor of his time, Toe Blake. Interestingly, many of Bowman's proteges have assumed top leadership roles in hockey, from Jacques Lemaire to Bob Gainey to Ken Dryden. Likewise, Bill Walsh, the successful coach of the San Francisco

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**Canadian Profile**

**Kathy Shields**

No discussion about coach and athlete mentoring in Canada would be complete without mentioning Kathy Shields—a former member of our Olympic basketball team, as well as former assistant coach and head coach for our national basketball team. She finished her coaching duties as head coach at the University of Victoria in 2005, where she compiled an astounding 865 winning percentage over her 25-year coaching career. She received the Order of British Columbia in 2008, the province's highest recognition of excellence. Certified as a master coach in 1986 by the CAC, Shields has influenced nearly all of Canada's elite coaches and athletes in women's basketball for the last 30 years. No fewer than eight of her former players and assistant coaches are or have been head coaches of university teams.

Kathy Shields has influenced many of Canada’s athletes and coaches in basketball for more than 30 years.

Photograph courtesy of University of Victoria News.
49ers dynasty of the 1980s, apprenticed under a master coach, Paul Brown. Walsh then mentored a number of successful NFL head coaches, including Mike Holmgren, Dennis Green, and George Seifert.

Despite the effort of Kathy Shields and other top women coaches in our country, the data on high-level head coaching positions in Canada indicate that women are underrepresented. More specifically, an unofficial tally of the number of head coaches in Canadian Interuniversity Sport (CIS) in 2008 revealed that only 10% to 15% were women. The data also revealed a clustering effect of coaches in the sports of women’s basketball, ice hockey, rugby, and volleyball. While many men were coaching women’s teams, only two women were head coaches of men’s teams in the CIS in 2008 (i.e., Brenda Willis, volleyball, at Queen’s University and Olga Hrycak, basketball, at the Université du Québec à Montréal). At the Olympic level, women are also dramatically underrepresented. For example, women comprised only 21% of Canada’s head coaches at the 2002 Salt Lake City Winter Olympics and 10% at the 2000 Sydney Summer Olympics.

REFLECTIONS 11.2

The chapter on motivation (Chapter 4) discussed several factors related to developing confidence in sport. How do you think mentoring fits into enhancing coaching confidence for less-experienced coaches?

YOUTH-SPORT COACHING

Up to this point in the discussion, most information has been slanted toward coaches of elite sport. The context of youth sport has many interesting nuances that distinguish it from other levels of coaching. More specifically, the role of the coach in youth sport may have more important global implications than it does for elite sport. For example, physical inactivity usually begins at a young age; the medical and economic impact of physical inactivity accounts for $5.3 billion in Canadian health-care costs (Katzmarzyk & Janssen, 2004). Only two in every five Canadian children are defined as being active enough for optimal growth and development, and the proportion of children who are overweight has tripled since the 1970s (Cragg, Cameron, Craig, & Russell, 1999; Strong et al., 2005). One way to increase physical activity is to focus on factors that increase motives for youth-sport participation, specifically the nature of the environment surrounding the learning and implementation of physical skills (see Chapter 9 for more details). The person who is responsible for creating this positive youth-sport environment is the coach.

Characteristics of Youth Coaches

Trudel and Gilbert (2006) outlined a number of characteristics of youth-sport coaches:

- Most are male.
- Most are in their mid-30s.
- As few as 10% of these coaches continue coaching for 10 years or more.
Almost all of these coaches competed in sport, and most were above-average athletes.

Most of these coaches acquired athletic experience for five years or more in the sport they now coach.

Love of the sport, wanting to remain associated with the sport, a desire to help young people develop skills, and a desire to serve as a leader and supervisor for young people were the main reasons for coaching.

Most coaches had a child of their own on the team they coached.

Just over half of the coaches were university educated.

Research at the University of Ottawa has examined the acquisition and sharing of knowledge of youth-sport coaches (e.g., Culver & Trudel, 2006; Lemyre, Trudel, & Durand-Bush, 2007; Wright, Trudel, & Culver, 2007). Interestingly, this research found that many youth-sport coaches were reluctant to share coaching knowledge with their peers for fear of giving away their secrets. On the other hand, many youth-sport coaches have complained that they operate in isolation and that there are few opportunities to meet and engage with other coaches at their level of competition. These findings support Lemyre et al.’s suggestion that more empirical attention be given to the factors affecting youth-sport coaches—in particular, ways to acquire and share knowledge.

Ideal Behaviours of Youth Coaches

Ideal behaviours for youth-sport coaches have been studied extensively by Smith and Smoll (2002a, 2002b). These researchers believed in the importance of training youth-sport coaches to ensure young athletes had fun, enjoyed being a part of a team, learned skills, and developed and increased their self-esteem. Their research over the past 35 years can be divided into two phases. The first phase involved the development of the mediational model of leadership and the coaching behaviour assessment system (CBAS) to categorize coaching behaviours (Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977). Findings from their research using the CBAS demonstrated that coaching behaviours influenced children’s self-perceptions, anxiety, and adherence levels. In addition, Smith, Smoll, and colleagues noted that coaching behaviours could be modified through structured coach training and education programs.

These findings influenced the second phase of their research, which involved the implementation of an intervention program called coach effectiveness training (CET), and the subsequent testing of the program in the youth-sport setting. Applied research using the CET has demonstrated that children playing for trained coaches, as opposed to untrained volunteers, had significant increases in self-esteem, had decreases in anxiety levels, enjoyed their sporting experience more, and evaluated their coach and teammates more favourably, regardless of the win–loss record (Smith & Smoll, 2002a). Results also indicated that children who played for trained coaches were also more likely to return the following season (Smith & Smoll, 2002a). Table 11.1 summarizes the researchers’ key recommended coaching behaviours.

Lasting approximately three hours, a CET workshop follows five coaching principles (Smith & Smoll, 2002a; Smoll & Smith, 2002). The first principle is to create a healthy climate that is enjoyable and is focused on mastering skills instead of trying to beat an opponent. As well, coaches must understand that their success or failure is not dependent
Table 11.1 Effective Practices for Coaching Youth Sport

| Reinforce effort as much as results. |
| Give encouragement after a mistake but in positive and encouraging ways. |
| Establish clear expectations; involve athletes in behavioural guidelines and work to build team unity in achieving them. |
| Set a good example of behaviour, encourage athletes to be supportive of each other, and reinforce them when they do so. |
| Always give instructions positively and do so in a clear, concise manner. |
| Foster two-way communication, and respond to the needs of individual players appropriately. |


on the outcome of the game or the win–loss record, but rather on their ability to get their athletes to give maximum effort. The second principle is to utilize a positive approach to coaching that involves positive reinforcement, encouragement, and appropriate instruction. Punitive behaviours are highly discouraged. The third principle is to establish norms that emphasize athletes’ obligations to help and support one another, thereby increasing cohesion and personal commitment to the team. Coaches must also model and support these behaviours. The fourth principle is to include athletes in decision-making roles regarding team rules and compliance. The fifth principle is to engage in self-monitoring and assessment in order to focus on positive coaching behaviours.

Smith, Smoll, and Cumming (2007; Smoll, Smith, & Cumming, 2007) recently modified the CET program and renamed it the Mastery Approach to Coaching (MAC). The philosophy of the program remains the same, which is the promotion of team cohesion and a positive coach–athlete interaction that creates an atmosphere that allows for skill development and reduces the fear of failure. As well, the goal of both programs is to increase intrinsic motivation in young athletes. Among the key changes, the five principles
in the CET were reduced to two themes: emphasizing reinforcement in positive ways and measuring success based on maximum effort. Other differences include the length (75 minutes compared to three hours) and the delivery of material (lecture-based rather than discussion-based).

In summary, many of today’s successful high-profile coaches have gone through common developmental patterns that began during their athletic careers and continued as they moved through the coaching ranks. While they were athletes, most of these experts acquired leadership skills and knowledge from their coaches. As well, most acquired information through the NCCP and supplemented this information with a developmental pattern that included exposure to positive role models (mentors). Their initiation into coaching, combined with the encouragement of their own coaches and their burning desire for sport, helped them excel as elite coaches. Although research on youth-sport coaching is comparatively lacking, some common characteristics and ideal coaching principles have been forwarded by experts in this field. As the importance of the youth-sport coach becomes more apparent in the overall physical activity level of adults, one can expect more research on this overlooked sector of coaching.

COACHING KNOWLEDGE

This section will focus on the knowledge of coaches, including their goals, roles, and responsibilities, as well as the extent to which they can affect the learning and performance of their athletes. In order to present this information, three bodies of literature in coaching psychology will be examined: (1) Chelladurai’s sport leadership model, (2) Feltz and colleagues’ coaching efficacy model, and (3) Côté et al.’s coaching model.

Sport Leadership

Leadership has been defined as “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (Northouse, 2001, p. 3). Given its apparent practical appeal, it is not surprising that leadership has been one of the most studied areas in industrial and organizational psychology (Northouse, 2001). Leadership has been defined, constructed, and researched from numerous theoretical frameworks, such as trait theories or behavioural approaches (Klenke, 1993). In spite of the rich background of research on leadership, this concept is one of the least understood phenomena because almost every finding about leadership (e.g., personality characteristics, gender differences) can be contradicted by other results (Klenke, 1993). In sport, effective leadership has been cited by athletes and coaches as a vital component of achievement (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998; Dupuis, Bloom, & Loughead, 2006) and athlete satisfaction (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995). At present, most sport leadership research has focused on coaching effectiveness by identifying personality traits, behavioural attributes, and situational determinants.

Several models of sport leadership have been advanced, the most noteworthy being Chelladurai’s (1978, 1993) multidimensional model of leadership (MML), a linear model comprising antecedents, leader behaviours, and consequences (see Figure 11.2). Created specifically for sport situations, Chelladurai’s MML conceptualizes leadership as an interactive process, and thus it allows researchers to evaluate leadership effectiveness through team member satisfaction and performance of athletes (consequences). These
consequences are directly affected by the degree of congruence among the three states of leader behaviours, called required, preferred, and actual. Required leader behaviours are those that are expected of a coach. For example, coaches are not allowed to make physical contact with their athletes. Preferred leader behaviours are how a coach acts and are generally based on the athletes’ preferences. For example, most professional coaches do not socialize with their players after games. Finally, actual leader behaviours are the behaviours that a coach exhibits, regardless of team standards. These leader behaviours are influenced by antecedent factors, which can be classified into situational (e.g., team goals, norms), leader (e.g., leader’s experience or personality), and team-member characteristics (e.g., gender, ability). To date, the majority of research using this model has been for individuals rather than teams.

Chelladurai’s model benefited coaching research because it attributed coaches’ success to more than great leadership skills. It stressed that success was a function of coaches’ capacity to display actual leadership behaviours that responded to a combination of demands from the environment, the players, and the coaches themselves. Furthermore, successful coaches were able to adjust to these demands by incorporating the required and preferred behaviours into their actual behaviours. The majority of research using the MML has primarily focused on the leadership behaviours of adult coaches of elite sports.

**Figure 11.2 Multidimensional model of leadership**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Antecedents</th>
<th>Leader Behaviours</th>
<th>Consequences</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Situational</td>
<td>Required Behaviour</td>
<td>Athlete Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics</td>
<td>Actual Behaviour</td>
<td>Athlete Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader Characteristics</td>
<td>Preferred Behaviour</td>
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<td>Athlete</td>
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<td>Characteristics</td>
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**REFLECTIONS 11.3**

Who was your favourite coach that you played for? What were his or her actual leader behaviours? Did all players prefer these behaviours? Does the multidimensional model of leadership help explain your own experiences with this coach?
Outside of sport psychology, research in leadership has begun to focus on the nature and effects of transformational leadership in organizations. A series of papers and writings published by Bass and Avolio (Avolio & Bass, 1991; Bass, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994) suggest that transformational leaders were, among other things, inspirational motivators who were able to elevate the interest of their followers. Transformational leadership contains four leader behaviours that have been shown to influence followers' values, needs, awareness, and performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The applicability of this model for understanding coaching leadership styles is apparent. Transformational leadership has slowly begun to enter applied sport psychology research (Charbonneau, Barling, & Kelloway, 2001; Rowold, 2006; Vallée & Bloom, 2005; Zacharatos, Barling, & Kelloway, 2000). So far, the results are encouraging, showing improved athlete functioning in areas such as intrinsic motivation, commitment, and satisfaction for those who were coached by transformational leaders. As well, Vallée and Bloom found that the expert coaches in their sample, who also met the criteria of being transformational leaders, had the ability to elicit extraordinary outcomes from their athletes. The expert coaches accomplished this by investing in their athletes' personal growth and development, articulating a vision for their team, and having their athletes buy into that vision. In summary, while research on transformational leadership in sport is still in its infancy, the success of research using this theory in non-sport settings, combined with its intuitive leadership appeal and applicability to coaching, indicates that this may be a growing area of research in coaching psychology.

Coaching Efficacy

Sport psychology practitioners now generally believe that confidence levels can be changed and improved over time. Thus, the experts would argue that star athletes, like Wayne Gretzky, Clara Hughes, Steve Nash, and Chantal Petitclerc, were not born with exceptionally higher levels of confidence than their competitors. The same analogy can be made with elite coaches. In fact, the topic of confidence has recently been applied to the coaching psychology literature under the title of coaching efficacy. This term is defined as "the extent to which coaches believe they have the capacity to affect the learning and performance of their athletes" (Feltz, Chase, Moritz, & Sullivan, 1999, p. 765). The authors have identified four key dimensions at the core of their model:

1. Game strategy: This refers to the degree to which coaches believe they can effectively coach (i.e., devise strategies) during competitions.
2. Motivation: This refers to the degree to which coaches believe they can effectively affect their athletes' psychological attributes.
3. Technique: This refers to the degree to which coaches believe they can teach the effective skills and techniques of their sport and recognize talent.
4. Character building: This refers to the degree to which coaches believe they can instill a sense of respect or fair play in their athletes.

Those coaches who scored high in each of these four areas were said to have teams that performed better with higher winning percentages, were more committed to their profession, used more praise and encouragement, and had more satisfied athletes who had higher levels of confidence. Furthermore, a coach's level of efficacy was affected by
four sources: previous experiences and preparation, previous level of success, perceived skill of the athletes, and the level of community support (see Figure 11.3). The most important of these sources was prior success; coaches who had experienced success as either coaches or athletes felt more confident, especially in devising strategy and motivating athletes.

Since the creation of the conceptual model of coaching efficacy, a group of researchers have begun investigating the effects of coach education courses on a coach’s level of efficacy (e.g., Campbell & Sullivan, 2005; Maletz & Feltz, 2000; Sullivan & Gee, 2008). Among their conclusions, it was found that coaches who completed a coach education course showed an increase in all four dimensions of coaching efficacy. These findings demonstrate how an important coaching dimension (efficacy) can be learned and improved through coach education programs.

As a parent of two athletic, high-school-aged children, you have volunteered as a member of the hiring committee for the new girl’s high-school basketball coach. The committee has been unable to reach consensus on the best candidate for the job. They disagree on what characteristics or attributes are most important for a new coach, often looking at winning percentage, number of championships, and/or number of provincial all-stars.

You are growing increasingly frustrated with the committee’s lack of progress and decide to take a leadership role. Having taken a class in sport psychology, you recall the value and importance of coaching efficacy. Using the content presented in this chapter, particularly the model of coaching efficacy, draft a one-page summary for your committee that will provide guidance and direction in helping to choose the next coach.
Coaching Model

Côté and colleagues (Côté, Salmela, Trudel, Baria, & Russell, 1995) created a coaching model that allows for connections to be established between the accumulated knowledge of how and why coaches perform as they do (see Figure 11.4). The coaching model infers that coaches begin their job by developing a mental model of the potential of their athletes or teams. This mental model is influenced by three peripheral components: coach’s personal characteristics, athletes’ personal characteristics, and contextual factors. Coaches integrate these three peripheral components into their operational strategies to determine which of the three primary components—organization, training, and competition—must be used to maximize the development of the athlete and the team. The primary components of the coaching model are what distinguish it from other more specific models of coaching, including the MML. Moreover, the coaching model proposes that success includes more than a specific set of personality traits, organizational behaviours, or interpersonal skills of the coach. Overall, coaching success appears to be related to various interpersonal, cognitive, and operational aspects of leadership.

Research for the coaching model was carried out on expert individual-sport coaches in gymnastics (Côté, Salmela, Trudel, et al., 1995). The components of the coaching model were supported in a single case study of an elite university team-sport coach (i.e., hockey coach; Gilbert & Trudel, 2000). Finally, Moraes (1998) used the coaching model as a framework to study expert coaches of combat (martial art) sports. Given this information, it is

Figure 11.4 Coaching model

not surprising that the coaching model has served as a theoretical framework for much research on expert Canadian coaching.

Overall Goal of Coaching Too often, we read the horror stories of coaches who put winning above all else. For example, the coach of a novice hockey team who has a power-play unit for the most skilled players or the youth softball coach who always bats the same two players at the bottom of the batting order. Although this winning-first philosophy may ultimately produce more victories, it certainly does not build the confidence and self-esteem of all the young players. In Canada, a body of research on successful university and Olympic coaches reveals that their main goal of coaching has a very positive, athlete-centred approach (e.g., Côté, Salmela, Trudel, et al., 1995; Gilbert & Trudel, 2000; Miller, Salmela, & Kerr, 2002; Vallée & Bloom, 2005). More specifically, although winning was important to these coaches, they were at least equally concerned with developing their athletes’ personal and academic skills.

It is difficult to determine if this holistic approach to athlete development is specific to Canadian amateur sport, from which athletes rarely enter the professional setting (except perhaps for ice hockey). Two coaching books would suggest otherwise (Walton, 1992; Wooden, 1988). Gary Walton (1992) recounted the careers of six great coaches (five Americans) in a variety of sports: John Wooden, James “Doc” Counsilman, Woody Hayes, Vince Lombardi, Brutus Hamilton, and Percy Cerutty. Walton poignantly noted that although this group compiled extraordinary win-loss records and contributions to technical advances in their sports, they were more concerned about their contributions as educators and role models. In the same vein, John Wooden (1988) wrote, “I often told my players that, next to my own flesh and blood, they were the closest to me. They were my children. I got wrapped up in them, their lives, and their problems” (p. 62). Wooden’s philosophy is even more impressive, considering the on-court success of his UCLA basketball teams: they set all-time records with four perfect 30-0 seasons, 88 consecutive victories, 38 straight NCAA tournament victories, and 10 national championships, including seven in a row.

Wooden’s secret to success undoubtedly lies in his pyramid of success (www.coachwooden.com), which explains the necessary steps to achieve success in basketball and in life. Wooden once explained that no building is better than its structural foundation, and no man is better than his mental foundation. Two foundations at the bottom of the pyramid are industriousness and enthusiasm, which stress the value of each player’s consistent hard work in games and practices. These two mental components are linked with teamwork principles, such as loyalty, friendship, and co-operation. Wooden’s pyramid also highlights the value of establishing clear and realistic goals. As well, it shows that poise and confidence will be achieved only after hours of conditioning and drills in practice and a commitment to proper behaviour off the court. At the top of the pyramid is success, which is defined as knowing you did your best to become the best that you are capable of becoming. In other words, each block constitutes specific principles that must be in place in order to move up the pyramid.

Pat Summit, head coach of the University of Tennessee Lady Vols, is perhaps the most widely recognized women’s head coach in North America. Besides being a co-captain of the 1976 silver-winning US women’s Olympic basketball team, Coach Summit has won more national basketball championships than any other coach, man or woman, since John Wooden. Further to this, she holds the all-time NCAA record for most wins by a
basketball coach, with a win–loss record of 983-182 (www.coachsummitt.com).
Interestingly, she has attributed her coaching success to a change of coaching philosophy
that involved adopting a more athlete-centred approach, about 10 years into her coach-
ing career. She recounts,

Then, in 1987, we won our first title. And four more in the next ten years. What changed? For one thing, me. Over the years, I matured and learned from my experi-
ences. I was forced out from behind my desk to deal with drugs, alcohol, injury, bro-
ken hearts, and emotional breakdowns of every other description. I was confronted by
unwanted pregnancies, drinking problems, a player in a near-fatal car wreck, and
countless instances of love gone wrong . . . . I was learning that a coach is far more
than a strategist or a disciplinarian. You are a peculiar form of crisis counselor and

Perhaps it can be concluded that all non-professional coaches in Canada should
adopt an athlete-centred approach that includes their athletes' social, academic, and ath-
etic pursuits. As well, an examination of both Pat Summitt’s and John Wooden’s philos-
ophies clearly indicates that it is also possible for an elite amateur coach in the United
States to follow a similar approach, even though media coverage and pressure to win are
often greater than they are in Canada.

Primary Components of the Coaching Model Organization Côté, Salmela,
Trudel, et al. (1995) stipulated that organization involves “applying one’s knowledge
towards establishing optimal conditions for training and competition by structuring and
coordinating the tasks involved in reaching the goal” (p. 9). Desjardins (1996) alluded to
the multitude of organizational tasks of team-sport coaches. These included the following
seven tasks: creating a vision, establishing a seasonal plan, selecting a team, setting goals,
developing team cohesion, working with support staff, and attending to administrative
matters. By contrast, Côté and Salmela (1996) identified the following five organizational
tasks for their group of expert gymnastics coaches: working with parents, working with
assistants, helping gymnasts with personal concerns, planning training, and monitoring
gymnasts’ weight and aesthetics.

Whether in individual or team sports, organizational tasks are present before, during, and
after the season and represent the foundation of the coaches’ knowledge base. Moreover, a
coach’s ability to organize the season and to deal with organizational issues reveals much
about his or her coaching and management skills. If a coach is organized, there will be a solid
foundation from which to build a championship team. This should lead to more effective
training sessions that, in turn, might improve the team’s success at competitions.

One of the fundamental elements of organization is creating and selling a coaching
vision. Desjardins (1996) found that expert coaches began coaching their teams with a
vision of where they could go and how they could get there. This vision involved both
the long-term goal of program growth and development and the short-term goal of what
the coach believed each athlete or the entire team could achieve in any given season.
Desjardins stated that once the vision was established, the expert coaches transformed
this vision into a mission statement, a tangible written statement that gave the team
direction for the upcoming year. The mission statement then influenced the seasonal
plan, daily practices, training regimens, team selection, and goal setting. Desjardins also
mentioned that expert coaches drew up a complete plan for the upcoming season, taking
into consideration the mental, physical, tactical, and technical aspects of training. In other words, a mission statement was not merely a target to aim for—it was the team’s absolute reason for being.

Further evidence about the need for a solid mission statement can be found in a Canadian study on expert university basketball and volleyball coaches (Vallée & Bloom, 2005). The participants in this study all took over losing programs, and, in a short time, they turned the teams into perennial contenders with excellent reputations on and off the court. Although these authors also found that the primary goal of these coaches was the holistic development of their athletes, they found that it was important for the coaches to possess strong organizational and interpersonal skills, including a vision for the team (highlighting personal growth and development). Early on in their appointments, coaches worked at changing past philosophies, setting higher standards and goals, and leading the team in a new direction. Coaches also emphasized the importance of the athletes buying into the vision for the team to achieve success.

**REFLECTIONS 11.4**

You are asked to develop a vision for a high-school basketball team. What would it be? What factors would you need to consider in developing this vision?

**Training** Training encompasses the knowledge coaches utilize to maximize their athletes’ ability to acquire and perform various skills during practice. Training has been found to include coaches’ application of technical training, physical training, mental training, tactical training, and intervention style (Côté, Salmela, Trudel et al., 1995; Durand-Bush, 1996).
Tharp and Gallimore (1976) performed a classic study on the technical skills of expert coaches by observing and analyzing coaching great John Wooden during basketball practice sessions over the course of one season. Results revealed that the majority of Wooden's cues were technical. He was focusing on the basic fundamentals of playing basketball, which in a recent re-analysis accounted for his apparent lack of positive praise (Gallimore & Tharp, 2004). This seemingly successful approach led to a new way of seeing coaching success. According to Tharp and Gallimore, Wooden was successful because of the quality of his teaching, interventions, and instructions. Additionally, research revealed that technical instructions were the most common form of instruction, and coaches stressed the importance of sound technical training to ensure their athletes were prepared for games and practices (Côté, Salmela, & Russell, 1995; Durand-Bush, 1996; Lacy & Darst, 1985).

Physical training focuses on the athletes' physical strength, endurance, and conditioning. With regard to physical training, expert coaches have commented on the uniqueness of each athlete and how they often created individualized training programs to meet their athletes’ needs (Durand-Bush, 1996). Many of these coaches have utilized strength and conditioning specialists to work with their teams.

Over the years, there have been mixed messages, both anecdotally and empirically, about the use and importance of mental training by high-level coaches. Some elite coaches have given mental training less attention than physical and technical training (Durand-Bush, 1996). In contrast, some expert coaches have perceived mental training as an equally important component of training (Côté, Salmela, Trudel, et al., 1995; Wrisberg, 1990). These coaches felt that it was beneficial to use a sport psychologist to work with their team on the more specific aspects of mental training, such as motivation, visualization, and controlling anxiety. As well, there are instances of Olympic and professional teams hiring sport psychologists. Thus, it appears that expert coaches are beginning to realize that in order to get the best out of their athletes, they must incorporate mental training, and perhaps the best way to do so is by utilizing the assistance of a sport psychologist.

Research has shown that many expert coaches spend a large portion of practice time on tactical training—offensive and defensive strategies—as well as on creatively inventing drills to improve tactical difficulties (Bloom, Crumpton, & Anderson, 1999; Durand-Bush, 1996). According to Durand-Bush, elite coaches are knowledgeable about their sport and are able to adjust each practice to fit the current needs of their athletes.

Research has revealed that an authoritative intervention style was not present among top-level Canadian gymnastics coaches (Côté, Salmela, & Russell, 1995). However, two European studies present very different perspectives from that of Canadian coaches. For example, d'Arripe-Longueville, Fournier, and Dubois (1998) reported that French judo coaches were not only authoritarian with their large number of World and Olympic champions, but they also used sarcasm and divisive training strategies to increase rivalry, and they created hostility among players; however, this was associated with great international success. In another European study, Chantal, Guay, Dobreva-Martinova, and Vallerand (1996) found that elite Bulgarian athletes, while being self-determined, were not motivated by needs of inner fulfillment and ownership, but rather by external rewards and medals. In Brazil, especially in soccer, the primary goal is winning; for coaches, the consequence for losing is immediate dismissal (Salmela & Moraes, 2003). Thus, while more research is
needed to reach any global conclusions, it appears that Canadian Olympic and university coaches use a different coaching style than some of their European and Brazilian counterparts. As well, there are likely differences based on the sport itself.

**Competition** This primary component relates to the coaching knowledge applied throughout the day of competition and the tasks performed. Researchers have reported that elite coaches developed pre-match routines for both themselves and their athletes, mastered the contingencies that they could control during a match (e.g., time outs, rapport with officials), and dealt with emotions following the match to better deal with their athletes' performances (Bloom, 1996; Bloom, Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 1997; Côté, Salmela, Trudel et al., 1995). This section on competition will focus on team-sport coaches because of their active role on game day, compared with a more passive approach for individual and combat sport (martial art) coaches.

Pre-competition tasks involve coaches' activities leading up to their arrival on site. Research has indicated that these expert coaches are very meticulous in their plans for both themselves and their athletes on game day. With respect to themselves, coaches need time alone to mentally prepare and rehearse for the game. Often this occurred by taking a game-day jog. With respect to their athletes, coaches wanted them to have set routines so that they were not wasting energy thinking about what to eat or how to get to the competition site. As well, coaches preferred that their athletes spend time together as a way of improving team cohesion.

An interesting finding from the research on expert Canadian coaches focused on the pre-game pep talk (Bloom, 1996; Bloom et al., 1997). Likely because of Hollywood's preoccupation with sensationalizing the pre-game talk (e.g., Knute Rockne's "win one for the Gipper" speech), many outsiders expect coaches to fire up the team prior to every competition. Nothing could be further from the truth, according to the expert Canadian coaches. These coaches preferred a calm, even-tempered pre-game pep talk. The coaches' final words were process-centred and reviewed three or four of the most important points stressed in the previous week's preparation.

Bloom's (1996) research revealed a number of important factors for expert team-sport coaches once competition began. Their coaching required attention to detail, an even-tempered demeanour, and an ability to out-think the opposing coach. This was accomplished in many ways: through strategically using time outs and substitutions, relaying two or three important points of information during intermissions, developing productive relationships with officials, and providing athletes with appropriate playing time. The coaches' understanding of sport went beyond the basic textbook strategies. Some have compared expert team-sport coaches with grand chess masters because both have to think many steps ahead of the opposition. For example, while watching the game, these coaches put their players in the right position to maximize their strengths and minimize their opponents' strengths, and they regularly monitored their own behaviours, all with the goal of helping their team achieve success.

Post-competition 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 what their post-game evaluation was (Bloom et al., 1997). The content and focus of the post-competition meeting depended on both the outcome and the coaches' perceptions of whether the team played well or poorly. Most coaches gave their teams a few pointers, saving the in-depth analysis for the next practice
or team meeting. Winning was the easiest outcome to handle. When the team played well and won, coaches emphasized effort and performance, not just outcome. When the team played poorly but won, coaches stressed areas needing improvement and acknowledged those individuals who gave a solid effort. The coaches did not want to spoil the thrill of victory, no matter how poorly they thought the team had played.

Losses were more demanding on the coaches. Most importantly, they had to decide if their players performed up to their capabilities. For example, when the team played well but lost, the expert team-sport coaches said that it was important to remain encouraging, focusing on the positive aspects of their performance. However, when the team played poorly and lost, most of these coaches felt that it was best to say little to their players because the emotional climate for themselves and their athletes was very high, and they worried about saying something they would later regret.

After any competition, 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." Most coaches said very little because they realized that both they and their athletes were still very emotional. They were especially aware that they should not single out any individual player. One reason for not analyzing in the locker room was that the coaches wanted to complete a thorough post-game evaluation, something that took place within 24 hours of the match. They wanted to consult a number of resources, such as videos, statistics, and assistant coaches, before finalizing their post-game evaluation. Regardless of the outcome, the coaches used every game as a learning experience to help prepare for future contests.

**Peripheral Components of the Coaching Model**

**Coach’s Personal Characteristics**

Côté, Salmela, Trudel, et al. (1995) defined the coach’s personal characteristics as "any variables that are part of the coach's philosophy, perceptions, beliefs, or personal life that could influence the organization, training, or competition components" (p. 11). A study specifically examining the characteristics of expert Canadian coaches was completed by Bloom and Salmela (2000). Their results included coaching preferences, goals, and beliefs. Among the results, it was found that expert coaches have an ongoing quest for personal growth and knowledge acquisition, display a strong work ethic, communicate effectively, empathize with players, and are good teachers. Many of these coaches noted that they work in a very competitive field and that the best way to succeed was by working harder than their colleagues. This involved spending long hours in their offices, which led to less time with their family and close friends. In fact, it also might explain why many expert Canadian coaches have been divorced (Salmela, 1996).

Bloom and Salmela (2000) also noted that a coach’s personal characteristics greatly affected his or her ability to coach. They found that coaches who chose to regularly attend clinics or symposia, who shared information with other coaches, and who were willing to self-evaluate likely devoted more time and energy to all other aspects of their profession. Thus, it could be hypothesized that their hard work and attention to detail resulted in more creative practices and perhaps better success at competition.

Interestingly, the expert coaches' personal characteristics mirrored those of high-school teachers who help cultivate their students' talents (Csikszentmihalyi, Rathunde, & Whalen, 1993). Specifically, teachers who created the most ideal learning environments for their students shared three common characteristics. First, the teachers thoroughly enjoyed what they were doing and encouraged their students to excel beyond their current
level of performance. Second, teachers created optimal learning conditions so that students were not bored or excessively frustrated, enabling them to maximize their level of concentration, self-esteem, potency, and involvement. Finally, the teachers showed reassuring kindness and genuine concern for the students' overall development, both inside and outside school.

What is your typical coaching style and philosophy?

**Athletes' Personal Characteristics** Côté, Salmela, Trudel, et al. (1995) defined the athletes' personal characteristics as any variables relating to the athlete's stage of learning, personal abilities, and other personal characteristics that could affect the three primary components of the model. More specifically, this involved the coach adjusting to the makeup of each athlete, whether this involved the athlete's personality, strengths, or weaknesses. The goal was to maximize their athletes' potential and output. Given the differences between coaching an individual athlete and a group of athletes, one would expect a number of differences to arise between coaches of individual sports and of 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.

Perhaps a good example of a coach being able to adapt to his athlete's idiosyncrasies was the legendary Phil Jackson; the athlete was Dennis "The Worm" Rodman. On the court, Rodman was a major rebounding presence throughout his career, although he was suspended for assaulting referees, opponents, and even a photographer. However, his off-court behaviours were far more outlandish and possibly detrimental to the team. Some of Rodman's acts included posing nude, cross-dressing, dying his hair, and acquiring numerous body piercings and tattoos. Coach Phil Jackson obviously did not treat Rodman the same way he did his other notable stars, Michael Jordan and Scottie Pippen. Undoubtedly, his ability to adapt to Rodman, yet still put the team ahead of all else, may partially have contributed to the success of the Chicago Bulls during their NBA championship run in the 1990s.

**Contextual Factors** Côté, Salmela, Trudel, et al. (1995) 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" (p. 12). These could also be defined as situation-specific variables. Within the coaching model, the coaching context has been shown to be a determining factor that shapes all perceptions and behaviours. Available resources, pressures, and general lifestyles determine and affect coaches' views of their world. For example, a high-school team can gain a significant advantage over other schools if it receives more funding for equipment and training facilities than other schools.

Within team sports, Salmela (1996) listed a number of different contextual variables that could affect an elite Canadian coach's win-loss record and, hence, job security. These variables included the availability of athletic scholarships or funding (especially compared
Successful coaches are able to adapt to all of their athletes’ differences without disrupting the climate of the team or the performance of each athlete. Photograph © The Canadian Press (Frank Gunn).

with the United States), the relationship between the coach and management, and the coaching salary. Some of these factors emerged in a study of job satisfaction of elite male coaches at Canadian universities (Davies, Bloom, & Salmela, 2005). These coaches, who had all achieved a fair amount of success, noted that such factors as their relationship with their athletic director, recruiting challenges, lack of publicity, and low salary caused them some job dissatisfaction. However, these factors were more than compensated for by their passion for coaching and helping their athletes grow and mature both on and off the court. As well, these coaches learned how to lead a balanced lifestyle that prioritized their family commitments.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

Coaching science is one of the newest areas of sport psychology research. As such, there is opportunity for empirical research at all levels of coaching, from the grassroots to the highest levels. The chapter began with a discussion of coach education, with particular emphasis on the NCCP program in Canada. Nearly one million Canadians have passed through this certification program.

The chapter presented information pertaining to the knowledge and leadership skills of coaches, as well as how to become a coach. More specifically, a summary of research from a small group of Canadian researchers reported various pathways to becoming an expert coach, including the importance of mentoring and working with top professionals in the sport of interest. Information on youth-sport coaching highlighted the characteristics and ideal behaviors of these coaches.

The attributes of expert coaches were also discussed. One of the most important findings to emerge from research is that coaching is an art that requires years of hard work and practice; it also requires an ability to integrate and translate knowledge effectively to the specific sport environment. Moreover, many of Canada’s top Olympic and university coaches were shown to possess an athlete-centred approach to coaching that indicated the primary goal of an elite Canadian coach was to develop the athlete, both as a person outside sport and as a participant inside sport.
Common Myths about Coaching Psychology Revisited

MYTH: Outstanding athletes have an advantage in becoming excellent coaches.
Although many people believe that elite athletes can more easily become elite coaches than less-skilled athletes, the scientific evidence suggests otherwise. Although most expert coaches played at a high level in their sport, few were exceptional performers. Moreover, there are very few Hall of Fame athletes who reach the same level of success as coaches. Finally, some recent research found that it is possible to become an expert coach without any elite sporting background.

MYTH: Aspiring coaches must emulate the most successful coaches in their sport, regardless of their own personality, beliefs, or philosophy.
Studies have found that individuals should create their own coaching style based on their traits, beliefs, and philosophy, rather than emulate someone who has achieved success in their sport.

MYTH: All elite-level coaches are focused solely on winning at the expense of athlete growth and development.
Research on elite Canadian coaches at the university and Olympic levels have found these coaches to be just as concerned about the personal growth and development of their athletes as they are with their athletic growth and development. Similar findings have also emerged with some elite American coaches at similar levels of competition.

MYTH: Coaching confidence is determined solely by one's innate personality.
Coaching confidence can be improved over time with positive performances, coach education seminars, community support, and perceived team ability.

Review Questions
1. Outline some of the methods of knowledge acquisition for becoming an elite coach.
2. Summarize the role of the NCCP in Canada.
3. How is mentoring important in the career progression of an elite coach?
4. An effective practice for coaching youth sport is to give encouragement after a mistake in a positive way. Provide a real-life game example to illustrate this recommendation.
5. List some effective practices for coaching youth sport.
6. Explain how coaching leadership is an interactional process.
7. What is meant by an athlete-centred approach to coaching?
8. What are the four key dimensions of coaching efficacy?
9. What can a coach do to improve the mental component of athlete development?

Suggested Reading
References


