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University of Zagreb
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Master Degree in Management

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SPORT**

Master thesis

Lucijan Vranić

Zagreb, September 2022

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SPORT**

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Zagreb, September 2022

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ABSTRACT AND KEY WORDS IN ENGLISH

Leadership has become one of the most prominent themes in all areas of work and development. Good and effective leadership is key to success in the modern world that evolves daily. Sports are defined by teamwork, but leadership makes all the difference. Strong teams have strong leaders and vice-versa. The key topic of this work is the role of leadership in sport efficacy, specifically, the role of the captain in teamwork environment. The captain is perceived as one of the most important members in the team mechanism, because of their general presence and holding the structure of the team. In this thesis leadership elements and skills will be explored, such as types of classical and modern leadership; what it means to lead and what makes an effective and productive leader. Moreover, the role of leaders in sports will be examined. The research will focus on analysing competences and elements of leadership in professional sports, so that the objectives of this thesis could be depicted.

Key words: Leadership, Sport, Captain, Skills

ABSTRACT AND KEY WORDS IN CROATIAN

Vodstvo je postalo jedna od najistaknutijih tema u svim područjima rada i razvoja. Dobro i učinkovito vodstvo ključno je za uspjeh u suvremenom svijetu koji se svakodnevno razvija. Sport je definiran timskim radom, ali vodstvo čini veliku razliku. Jake momčadi imaju jake vođe i obrnuto. Ključna tema ovog rada je uloga vodstva u sportskoj učinkovitosti, točnije uloga kapetana u timskom okruženju. Kapetan se percipira kao jedan od najvažnijih članova u timskom mehanizmu, zbog njihove opće prisutnosti i držanja strukture tima. U ovom radu istražiti će se elementi i vještine vodstva, kao što su vrste klasičnog i modernog vodstva; što znači voditi i što čini učinkovitog i produktivnog vođu. Štoviše, ispitat će se uloga lidera u sportu. Istraživanje će biti usmjereno na analizu kompetencija i elemenata vodstva u profesionalnom sportu, kako bi se mogli prikazati ciljevi ovog rada.

Ključne riječi: Vodstvo, Sport, Kapetan, Vještine

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1. INTRODUCTION

Leadership is characterized as the ability to inspire and drive people to bring out their best. It focuses on enticing people to contribute more to an organization's overall effectiveness. The process by which one person encourages and inspires others to achieve organizational goals and directs the organization to function more effectively and cohesively is a typical definition of leadership. Through the thesis, this ability will be analysed in the realm of professional sport, which is known as highly competitive and demanding division where only the most dedicated manage to succeed in achieving greatness. In fact, high-performance sport has been viewed as a setting that promotes a number of positive outcomes, including the growth of confidence and leadership skills, but it is also impacted by a strong performance-oriented focus that determines players' results.

1.1 Topic and Objective of The Thesis

Leadership is one of the essential aspects of sport, especially significant in team sports and the professional sport industry. Leadership can affect the behaviour of the team as well as the individuals within the team and presents a significant source of competitive advantage. Furthermore, the skills and qualities of the team captain can have a notable effect on the performance of the team. Oftentimes, the role of the team captain is underestimated with regard to the given responsibility, and the attributes and knowledge required. Sports leadership has been studied since the 1970s and the majority of studies focus on the leadership roles of coaches and managers. However, the athletes present another crucial source of leadership within teams. This thesis focuses on the leadership role of team captains in professional sport. The duties and characteristics of sport team captains will be investigated to explore what effective leadership consists of and which factors influence it. The aim of this thesis is also to examine the effects that the leadership of the captain could have on the behaviour and performance of the team and its individual members.

1.2 Sources and Research Methodology

A combined methodology and a deductive approach will be used in presenting the theoretical knowledge of the topic and deepening it with primary research. For the research, primary data about players' and teams' characteristics and performance is collected by conducting interviews. Theoretical knowledge is gathered from textbooks and scientific articles.

1.3 Content and Structure of The Thesis

After the introduction of the thesis and the topic, the second chapter of the thesis provides a theoretical overview of leadership which is set out as foundation for examining the knowledge of leadership in sports. The main differences between management and leadership are outlined before covering different leadership theories. Strategic leadership is also a topic significantly connected to professional sport. The third chapter of the thesis studies leadership in professional sport, covering team dynamics and different forms of team leadership. The main emphasis of this chapter is the difference in the leadership roles of team coaches and managers versus the leadership of athletes. The fourth chapter examines the leadership roles of captains in professional sport, outlines the roles and responsibilities of team captains, as well as explores the evidence from the literature about the effects of captain' leadership on the performance of the team, with evidence from different sports. The last chapter presents research with evidence drawn from different sports, examining the correlation of captains' performance with the performance of the team, also indirectly examining if the best performing players are assigned captain roles, or if some other characteristics are of greater importance.

2. THEORETICAL OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP

Cambridge vocabulary describes leadership as a “set of characteristics that make up a good leader”, “the position and fact of the leader” or “the person who manages the organization”. Leadership skills are all skills or ways of performing in the creation and execution of leadership. Karavidić et al. (2016) state that leadership consists of several levels of functioning: organisational leadership, business leadership, personal leadership, and interpersonal leadership. The primary task of a successful leader is to enable employees to understand the mission or to "live and breathe" in the spirit of the mission of the enterprise, to promote this training and the development of the confidence of team members, to build trust in the enterprise with honesty and transparency and to show a positive attitude and optimism when conducting their obligations.

Anderson (2002) argues that leadership is a pillar of human civilization throughout history. When leadership is understood as a function, then it is an essential element of management and then the presence of leadership in the group is considered skills that were seen as a style of leadership in achieving goals. In order to make the most use of human resources, leaders take the required steps and build connections with people within the enterprise and these measures may, among other things, refer to the adaptation of a particular style of leadership.

Storey (2004) explains how the transformational style of leadership in latest ideas is known as an effective style of leadership – this style is composed of four dimensions: the influence of ideals, inspirational motivation, intellectual simulation, and individual consideration. All transformational intellectual leadership (individual consideration, inspiration, intellectual simulation, and charisma) provide a prominent level of performance quality and active leadership has a positive and strong effect on employee satisfaction and improving the organizational circumstances in the enterprise.

Novelli and Taylor (1993) state that 21st century leaders must have critical and creative qualities (critical thinking and assessment are implied here), as whole concepts of leadership in different environmental conditions are practically upgraded. Most of the concepts of the past were based on hierarchical and bureaucratic structures. This type of leadership has proven slow in terms of upgrading and development and is specific to the 20th century when organizational environments were stable and strictly determined with truly minor change. This is where

decisions are usually based on current problems and are made by central power and influence. Such leadership is not present today, because it is not able to monitor changes and adapt to the market to the extent necessary for the business to be good and efficient.

Today's leadership skills have to be flexible enough for business to adjust to crises and other circumstances. Modern leadership skills are included in the transactional, transformational, team, service and situational style of leadership and adapt to the style and situational style. Authentic, empathic, enlightened, and resonant leadership skills (Marques, 2015) are included within recent styles of leadership.

Transactional leadership is a relationship founded on exchanges of information, *feedback*, and tasks. In a transactional relationship, the leader frequently utilizes incentives or penalties to encourage the engagement or completion of tasks from employees. The transaction manager is more engaged with routine tasks of maintaining the distribution of resources, observing and steering employees to accomplish tasks and organizational objectives. Whilst it can be effective in accomplishing objectives, transactional leadership usually does not result in commitment or good relationships. There are different dimensions under the theory of transactional leadership. For instance, a leader may opt to explain their demands and can provide material and rewards to the extent that employees fulfil their default obligations. Additionally, the leader can also decide whether he wants to partake in the transaction actively or passively, which will determine his intensity of influence in the management of the project. Transactional leadership is valuable in today's environment, as it can potentially contribute to efficiency, which is a factor one must not ignore when it comes to the status of the existence of the enterprise (Marques, 2015).

Transformational leadership indicates that the leader has a deeper relationship with employees. The transformational model of leadership was developed from charismatic leadership. The transformational leader utilizes their influence tactics and methods that encourage followers, improve their execution, and change their morals, norms, and attitudes, to increase alignment with the vision of the leader (Marques, 2015). Thus, the transformational leader builds real relationships with followers, frequently implying notable levels of trust, loyalty, and mutual respect. Attributable to the complexity of transformational relationships, employees are significantly more devoted to their responsibilities, seeing that the leader communicates a vision, a series of common values and a perception of meaning with them.

The transformational style of leadership is beneficial in the current context because it gives leaders the ability to successfully handle organizational changes, which are the only constant in modern performance, whilst abiding to a three-layer focal point: understanding the necessity for change; creating a vision that allows change; and implementing the change. Additionally, transformational leaders are depicted as role models in the procedure: they explain objectives, collaborate, and offer personalized assistance, as well as intellectual stimuli. Intellectual stimulation is what inspires employees nowadays to stretch their own boundaries in terms of creativity and innovation. (Marques, 2015).

Team leadership represents a team, consisting of those that the leader collaborates with towards a shared goal. Broadening sense, it consists of the whole enterprise, although leaders commonly have a smaller group with whom they communicate more often. One of the pillars of the partnership between the leader and his subordinates is trust. Effective communication in an efficient team is equally essential to enable sharing of information and productive decision-making. The team leader makes sure that all parts of the team and processes work well, without necessarily making all the decisions themselves. The team leader serves as a facilitator, ensuring that resources are used effectively, that team members have a voice within the group, are motivated, and receive training and support as needed to enable their growth. The enormous technological and competitive challenges that businesses are currently facing have urged leaders to rely more on teamwork structures to stay productive and competitive, making the team leadership style valuable in today's leadership environment. Understanding interpersonal differences and having the ability to successfully resolve issues resulting from opposing personalities on the team are requirements for team leadership. (Marques, 2015).

According to Greenleaf (1991), the service leader is primarily a "servant" and indulges in a natural sense of desire to serve. The act of leadership, therefore, stems from a desire to serve to make sure that the needs of others are fulfilled. The service leader therefore focuses primarily on being helpful to his employees. This happens at the discretion of the leader and is therefore often associated with authenticity, morality, and spirituality. Such leadership is a departure from other leadership styles, since, according to this style, the leader does not deal with individual progress, but acts mainly for the well-being, needs, progress and autonomy of his team members. Since service leadership allows employees to develop, employees will receive it.

Style is valuable in today's leadership environment since it instils a feeling of humility in the leader who applies it. Due to the many cases of egocentric and narcissistic leadership, this style can be a remarkable guide to adapting to different perspectives. Leading from such a point of

view, the leader helps those in need of leadership and puts unique importance on helping those who need it the most. Service leadership has a spiritual basis of mutual care, trust, and a sense of community, which enables the company and employees to perform brilliantly in the market (Marques, 2015).

Ackerman (1987) states that the development of leadership skills was theoretically created through two currents of thought and research. One stream of research focuses on the skills acquisition while people practice certain tasks. The second study stream focuses especially on the business processes that are engaged when people gain knowledge and skill in various fields of experience. Conventionally, competences attainment and development analyses have pursued to recognize how execution enhances over time as a function of exercise. Although performance is built and enhanced via application, the elements that contribute to skill acquisition in the early stages of practice are different from those that have an impact on performance in the later stages of practice. Typically, shared features, such as intelligence, are evident of the strongest effects in the preliminary stages of acquiring skills, whilst other narrower features affect performance in the later phases of acquiring skills.

Ackerman (1991) proposes a three-stage model of leadership skills development that emphasizes that skills acquisition is first conducted by people who gain an understanding of the requirements for task performance, for compiling responses, where performance developmental abilities are combined, to the last stage, when performance is standardized.

These performance-based skills acquisition models have several significant implications for each effort to understand skills development, including the development of leadership skills. Factors which have an influence later development are not the same ones that affect the initial stages of development, hence showing that experience changes the process. Thus, useful experiences at one stage in the career of a leader may not be of use in other phases. Secondly, the types of mistakes made in one phase of a leader's career may be dissimilar from the types of mistakes that occur afterwards. Thirdly, the features associated with the acquisition of knowledge (for example, motives of intelligence and mastery) seem especially significant at an early stage of the skills acquisition process. Performance-related characteristics (for example, task assignment and focus) are more strongly associated with later performance.

Unlike the performance-based approach, other theories are centred around how people gain skills in different fields of education. These studies show that skills are developed steadily over a period of more than 10 years. Professionals have a greater mastery of concepts than novices

do in a way that they have mastered many different notions, sort input based on the identification of principles and can apply concepts in a flexible way that depends on the key aspects of the situation. Contemporary research has deepened these conclusions by studying variables, learning interferences, which adapt to the growth of skills. For example, Ward et al. (1990) find that active self-initiated use of the principle can quicken the process of development of skills. Additional research has shown that performance can be enhanced by developing models for structuring and organizing ideas, as well as effective application methods and strategies.

Although these two streams of research have dissimilar objectives, both provide a coherent picture of the skills acquisition process. At the start, people need to adopt basic concepts, gain an understanding of what is expected from them, also put these ideas into well-organized, practical circumstances. When people start to solve issues on their own and learn to apply various concepts in various situations, these concepts must then be expanded upon and utilized in more complicated environments. Last but not least, fast integration of information from multiple techniques and sources helps individuals to handle complicated problems that are changing frequently. (Mumford et al., 2000).

There are two differing theoretical views on how the requirements for different leadership skills change at hierarchical levels. The continuity perspective argues that jobs at consistently higher levels demand all the lower-level skills and additional skills needed for this level of organization. In contrast, the perspective of discontinuity argues that managers have to give up some skills in the process of promotion between levels of an organization. Analyses of the 360-degree competency assessment dataset revealed that these two perspectives take place at the same time. What is anticipated of managers is shown by the continuity perspective, while the perspective of discontinuity reveals the strategies used by managers to be successful (Meuse et al., 2011).

In the initial stages of continuity theory, the authors distinguished eight categories of work that typical leaders execute: planning, research, coordination, evaluation, supervision, personnel, negotiation, and representation (Meuse et al., 2011). Mintzberg (1973) identified ten leadership skills that leaders regularly conduct. Each of the roles entails a unique way of behaving and a set of skills. Mumford et al. (2007) proposed a model of Strataplex leadership skills. This model states that all of the abilities of lower organizational levels in business are required for positions at progressively higher levels in an organized system. However, certain abilities become more valuable when people transition from one role to another. They divided the remaining four

categories of leadership qualities into cognitive, interpersonal, business, and strategic categories. The authors then asked 1,023 working individuals to evaluate the amount of effectiveness needed for each of these various management roles for each of these four categories of leadership qualities. The study showed that higher-level positions within an organization require a higher level of all leadership competencies. They also demonstrate that competencies crucial at lower levels of the organization, such as leadership abilities that are interpersonal and cognitive, do not decline as one moves up the organizational hierarchy. The pattern of shifting skill needs illustrates the continuation of the governance change from a standpoint. Considering this discovery, Mumford et al. (2007) proposed that businesses focus on continually enhancing current leadership abilities as well as creating new talents as part of their management and leadership development programs.

There are several similarities between perspectives of continuity and discontinuity. Both approaches consider the many tasks that exist within the managerial structure. Moving mobile leaders must improve their job productivity and leadership abilities by using new performance domains as models. But there is a discernible difference between the two points of view. According to the continuity perspective, abilities related to lower management level leadership effectiveness are essential for higher level governance.

In contrast, the perspective of discontinuity theorizes that some positive behaviours and leadership practices for one level of management can become negative on another level of management. Therefore, leaders must abandon former behaviours and applications of leadership that are no longer effective after the transition of management. Both perspectives received empirical support. Contrasting perceptions illustrate the transition of leadership skills from various aspects. The idea that leadership is subjective is a key element of implicit leadership theories. In other words, viewers classify leadership qualities according to their presumptions.

As digitalisation nowadays increasingly impacts every business activity in companies, the question arises as to whether and if it does, in what way, this development affects the way leaders run businesses and communicate with their employees. In addition to enabling new forms of interpersonal interaction and employment prospects, digital development also dramatically alters or even completely replaces existing activities. Avolio and Kahai (2003) blame a rapidly evolving work environment for the distinctions between conventional leadership and leadership in the digital era, yet the fundamentals of leadership do not seem to undergo substantial change.

Recent technological advancements like robotics and machine learning, along with the growing automation of regular tasks, are creating challenges for both employees and management. How to manage virtual teams, deal with multi-generational teams with various technical preferences, promote the transfer of functional expertise, and establish a sensible connection with ubiquitous digital technologies are problems that leaders must answer.

When working in a virtual setting, face-to-face interaction and other customary social systems are no longer prevalent, which is why innovative ways of coordinating teamwork and communication need to be applied. This is not to say that solely digital technology is applicable when team members work from various locations or remotely. Instead, the virtual nature of teams is characterized by the degree at which digital tools are utilized for coordination, the resulting information value, and interactions of synchronized team members. The biggest problem here is not technological complexity, but the increasing complexity and flexibility of people. One of the questions in this context is the extent to which trust can be developed without face-to-face interactions and what factors affect trust in virtual teams.

While the internet, email, and sometimes even social media have become standard tools for getting things done, they also give convenient access to social media, email, and other non-job-related activities while at work. Being electronically connected (during the performance of work obligations) always creates a challenge in creating a clear division between work and leisure, which in turn can promote labour-non-working conflicts. Businesses may experience the effects of information overload, technology addiction, and technological stress if executives are unable to identify appropriate strategies to set boundaries between work and pleasure.

The age gaps in the workforce are a further source of potential conflict. Younger personnel frequently have a better understanding of digital technology than their more experienced peers. If senior employees collaborate with junior team associates, the different technological knowledge and preferences of these groups can lead to conflicts. Leaders should be able to recognise such differences in an early phase and avoid escalation. Modern technologies can drive major improvements by gathering and processing information, but also making companies more susceptible to cyberattacks. Leaders have to be mindful of the appropriate benefits and risks to ensure appropriate use. Some of the adjustments considered necessary to focus on modern day managerial challenges may be in the layout of the technology, while others might necessitate a rethink of leadership topics (Klus, Müller, 2020). The possibility that may emerge from the proper use of digital technology and the role that leadership is in this framework will be summarized below.

Even though digital technology is prevalent in today's workplaces, its potential is frequently underutilized. Even entry-level personnel may bring a high degree of digital expertise to a company, which can be advantageous and need to be taken advantage of. The abundance of data that employees have access to may be used to create a range of services at a lesser cost. Digital technology also enables team members who are dispersed geographically to collaborate.

Within the current organizational framework, a favourable team structure may be accomplished virtually without friction. Online customer interactions, web-based collaboration software, and systems or tasks for managing content are some of the technologies that facilitate certain types of work and collaboration. These tools can range from basic applications to complex toolkits. Employees may monitor and assess their work processes using digital technologies, which makes it easier for them to spot productivity problems. In general, effective management of digital technologies can bring many benefits.

In the past, leaders have used strong leadership and compelled subordinates to obey or face the penalties. Workers and lower-level employees have formed unions over the years to defend themselves; this is a clear indicator that there are certain behaviours of leadership that employees view negatively and consider them bad. Leadership has seen that people who feel oppressed tend to react negatively which results in slowing productivity and producing inadequate quality work. Leadership, according to Jowah (2016), consists of three common elements, namely, the person leading, the persons being managed and the situation or project environment. Together, these three factors do what informs the behaviour of the leader or follower regarding the tasks ahead. Other authors classify leadership into four models: talking, selling, participating, and delegating (Jowah, 2016).

People are likely to be unfamiliar with an activity or setting if they are performing it for the first time. The "talking" leadership style, which contains a lot of controlled behaviour that may be defined as directive, is successful at motivating employees to perform. People who are uncertain about how to express their jobs verbally, lack experience, and lack self-confidence might benefit from it and work more productively.

In terms of sales, the greatest probability of successfully achieving employee cooperation is to provide a clear goal and mission of the enterprise. It is known that sales leaders provide the direction that leaders want, followed by communication and support. Participation means that leaders routinely involve employees in business processes, while having regular communication with them. They must determine the steps to be taken when achieving the

objectives set and these steps must be clear to everyone. However, the delegation leader is prepared to transfer decision-making and problem-solving authority to staff members who are qualified to do so and have the relevant expertise (Jawah, 2016).

Employees with experience who get by would want to be given their duties and the freedom to excel at what they do. A leader who continues to keep an eye on the menial jobs they complete might annoy them. Investigators researching this topic have produced several theories and classified the behaviour of the leader in numerous forms and categories. Some of the classifications of leadership styles were described by Jawah (2016), and they are as follows:

Early theories of behaviour are specific to the period of the 1930s-1940s, and in them it is suggested that leaders share common features and characteristics that distinguish them. According to this view, leaders are born, not made, hence some people are predisposed to taking charge from an early age. An advocate of this theory insists that leadership is an innate, instinctive quality that one either has or does not have. This idea suggests that qualities like assertiveness, good judgment, charm, enthusiasm, a positive outlook, charisma, and empathy (as opposed to compassion) are characteristics that create a good leader.

Behavioural theories over the next two decades (1950e, 1960e) evolved from the matter in which some leaders act – they can be the type to dictate decisions and delegate tasks to people or the type that includes people in the decision-making process. Within this, modern authors, as he states (Jawah, 2016), divide leaders according to this theory into autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leaders.

Decisions are made by autocratic leaders without consulting their staff. When making decisions quickly, with little to no input from other team members, or when it is not important for the proper completion of tasks, this sort of approach is appropriate. Democratic leaders are the ones who involve their team in decision-making. This type of strategy is appropriate when team consensus is crucial, but it can be problematic when there are no clear-cut options available but instead a range of views and notions. Laissez-faire leaders allow team members to make decisions without excessive supervision. This may occur when team members are highly skilled and need little supervision or when the team leader is inattentive or incompetent (Jawah, 2016).

Theories about contingencies occurred in the 1960s and emerge from the view that the leadership style depends on the circumstances, that is, on the function of the circumstances involved. This theory attempts to explain which leadership style is optimal in accordance with

the given circumstances. This suggests the concept of situational leadership in which the situations determine how the leader seeks to exert influence on the employees.

Theories of power and influence are based on the various ways that leaders employ these resources to carry out tasks and the leadership philosophies that are appropriate in each situation. They establish three categories of positional power: coercive, rewarding, and legitimate. The three components of personal power—expertise, charm, and reference—are studied. Unlike positional power, personal power would ensure operational success.

Successful project management includes numerous additional factors that support the efficacy of operations. Jowah (2013) argues that several unrevealed factors influence the operational and performance processes of the project. The project's success depends on how carefully it was planned, which was all too frequently done before the project manager was appointed. The physical properties of the project components that influence success or failure must be measured objectively. Therefore, the accuracy—or lack thereof—of the original planning directly affects the project execution process's success.

Table 1: Summary of environmental challenges for the leadership of several projects

FACTOR	EFFECT
Project-level activities	Incorrect implementation of project phases, slow progress, insufficient monitoring, too long duration
Managing business-oriented projects	Working on a project is a secondary priority, there is no defined owner, business or personal strategy, changes in roles, responsibilities and organizational structure are rapid and frequent
Roles of responsibility and commitment	Unclear functions and responsibilities, there is no clear difference between the leader and employees, especially at the project level
Activities at the portfolio level	Non-integrated projects, no resources, values and priorities on the project, no feedback from leadership
Information management	No information from the project leader, no definitive flow of information and database
Sources, competences, and methods	Inadequate assessment systems, lack of human resources and competences related to the project, too many people involved in leadership

Source: Jowah, 2016.

Table 1 presents the negative effects in a business where multiple projects are present at the same time and what happens when leadership is not sufficiently organised and competent to cope with so many different projects. These situations are especially important in a business where a large number of employees depend on one leader.

2.1 Difference Between Leadership and Management

Leadership and management are two concepts that are often confused. We use them indiscriminately and in the wrong way: when we talk about a leader, we often think of a manager, and when we talk about a manager, we see him as a leader. These two roles can indeed be held by the same person, but this is not always the case. Good managers don't have to be good leaders and some leaders don't have a managerial position. Despite everything, a team or a company will need both roles to shine. A manager must support his team members in their day-to-day work and make them excel, while a leader must provide an overview to the team members to buy them into the vision of the company. Leaders and managers are therefore crucial in strengthening team effectiveness and collaboration within the work environment.

When management and leadership are compared, it follows that the latter refers to an endeavour to change the behaviour of another person or group. Leadership is relevant to circumstances in which a person collaborates with others. It speaks about completing work and reaching objectives via the efforts of others. Effective leaders make events come to life. They don't sit around watching others and waiting to react to what happens. They understand what should happen, devise a way to make it happen and take steps to that effect. While management is about working with and through the company of others to achieve organizational objectives. This is not only applicable to business, but to all forms of organization: family, community life, friendships or society, club. Regardless of the framework, management is about working together with others to accomplish corporate goals. Management is a narrower idea than leadership. When attempting to persuade people, one may have a number of objectives in mind. In actuality, management is a particular kind of leadership that takes organizational objectives into account. Different things may be accomplished through leadership.

2.2 Overview of Leadership Theories

Since management itself is a young science, scientists have tried from the beginning to categorize the principles of leadership into different theories of leadership and approaches to leadership. They analysed them based on behaviour, traits, all to find the ideal concept for creating a good leader. While some felt that the leader was becoming, others felt that the leader

was born. None of the theories or approaches are inaccurate because the difference between them is insignificant. Therefore, we can divide them into three groups: early approaches, classical approaches, and modern approaches to leadership. The first theory to be addressed is The X and Y Theory, which does not really include leadership theories but with its views it has supported the development of individual approaches to leadership.

Douglas McGregor in 1960 in the book "Human Side of Enterprises" set out the concept of Theory X and Theory Y. These theories correlate with autocratic and democratic leadership styles. In the autocratic style, which can be associated with the X-Theory, it is assumed that subordinates do not want to work, and that punishment should motivate them to work. Such a style of leadership can often be seen in armies and is often called the theory of the great man. Conversely, the democratic style, which is close to The Y Theory, assumes that people want to work, work fulfils them, are collaborative and do not need to be controlled. McGregor's introduction of the Y-Theory in the '60s started a movement where the importance of human relationships began to be appreciated more. In his book, he emphasizes that personal growth is necessary in organizations and talks about the importance of human roles. McGregor believes that the basic goal of management is to "organize human effort in the service of the economic goals of the enterprise" and that "successful management depends (...) on the ability to predict and control human behaviour" (McGregor, 1960, p. 6). With the development of many approaches to leadership over the years, good interpersonal relationships have become the key to the development of the organization and greater importance is attributed to the personal needs of individuals. In addition, McGregor also assumes that a successful leader has the ability to adapt to the situations in which he finds himself. Later in the paper, the so-called situational leadership for which today is considered the necessary skill of the leader will be addressed.

Leadership based on the leadership's traits is one of the earliest theories of leadership dating back to the 1950s. Scientists strongly associate this approach with the theory of great personalities for the reason that its main starting point is that leaders are not created but born. According to Sikavica (2008), numerous scientists such as J. A. Conger, C. Levicki, C. B. Handy and others compare the above thesis with the thesis "nature or upbringing" and the leadership gene. Their argument is that each person is born with a certain talent, both for art and for leadership. C. Levicki prioritizes natural talent while believing that education is less important but not excluded. The above scientists consider that there are certain characteristics that a good leader has, that is, traits that can be observed already in childhood and are presented in the table below.

Table 2: Modified table of representations of good leadership qualities

Physical characteristics	Youth, vigor, height
Social background	Education in the best schools
Personal characteristics	Adaptability, aggressiveness, self-confidence, emotional stability, dignity, self-esteem, satisfied and fulfilling life, enthusiasm, courage, energy
Social characteristics	Charm, tactics, cooperativeness, respect for others
Characteristics versus task	Initiative, emphasis, acceptance of responsibility, quick understanding of new tasks, willingness to make rapid changes

Source: author

On the other hand, Northouse (2019) associates a trait-based approach with a five-factor personality and leadership model called the Big Five. Big Five). He argues that there is a correlation between these five lines of personality and leadership, and they are: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreement, and conscientiousness. Neuroticism tends to have negative feelings such as vulnerability, depression, and anxiety. This is the only one of the five personality traits not desirable in a leader. Extraversion is a tendency to sociability, socialization, and positive energy. Openness signifies a desire for information and creativity. Agreeing, as the word itself says, implies having a good relationship with other people, compassion and trust and conscientiousness as a personality trait signifies organization, focus on detail and determination. It is clear that positive characteristics such as sociability, positive energy, creativity, determination, and organization with good relationships with people can only positively affect both the organization and the followers positively. They with the leader of such qualities can feel comfortable and motivated to work. Despite this, the claim that such leaders are exclusively born is only true. In addition to possible innate talents for leadership, it is necessary that the same person is further formed and shaped through education and experience.

There has always been an opinion or need to stereotype the behaviour of leaders in order to determine the universal characteristics and skills necessary for success. Unlike the previous approach that assumes that leadership depends solely on the qualities of the leader, this

approach emphasizes the importance of skills, which can be learned and are not something with which a person is born. It is precisely in this that the skill-based approach differs from the others since it is focused exclusively on the leader and on his ability to lead subordinates. Katz (1974) states that three skills are needed for successful leadership: technical, interpersonal, and conceptual skills. People skills are necessary at all three levels of management: the lowest, the middle and the highest. A leader at every level must be able to communicate with people, respect their needs, and must have developed emotional intelligence. Technical skills are of paramount importance in a leader at the lowest (technical) level of management because a tangible product is created at this level, so the leader must be competent to do this kind of work. Conversely, the highest level of management requires from the leader conceptual skills that are abstract, intangible. He must know the work of all parts of the organization in order to be able to coordinate them. Its role is to make the decisions that will most serve the growth of the organization, and the leaders of the lower levels of management implement these decisions.

After Katz, Mumford et al. (2000) proposed additional skills needed for effective leadership, some of which are cognitive abilities, problem solving ability and others. It should be noted that the presented flowchart is valid in a perfect world, but in real terms they are influenced by the external environment and the leader's experience. Cognitive abilities, motivation, personality, knowledge, and skills are most influenced by the experience gained while the environment has an impact on each individual item. For example, if problems arise between the leader and the subordinate, it will directly affect the performance of the group. Approaches to leadership are characteristic because they have a lot of differences with each other but in fact each one complements the previous one. In classical approaches to leadership, the behaviour of the leader is emphasized and how it can affect the subordinates and their success, as well as the success of the organization. The first such approach to leadership that is processed in this paper is a style-based approach. A greater step forward in good leadership is made by implementing the situational approach to leadership that is defined below. It is the basis for other approaches that complement him further. The situational approach is about adapting the leader to different situations. The theory of concerted leadership complements it by exposing certain leadership styles for each of the situations. The theory of the path to the goal, on the other hand, defines four leadership styles depending on the need to motivate employees. The last theory that has been addressed that belongs to the classical approaches is the theory of exchange between leader and member. It is based on the relationships between the leader and the subordinate and suggests in which direction their relationships should develop for the best effect. Unlike the

above approaches based on traits that emphasize the necessity of certain characteristics and approaches based on skills that put the emphasis on the ability of the leader, the style-based approach emphasizes the behaviour of the leader. Many studies have been conducted to determine leadership styles and how to achieve the greatest effect through a combination of them. Thus, in the late 1940s, researchers from Ohio State University investigated how subordinates behave when they are run as a group or as an organization (Northouse, 2019). They had their subordinates fill out an extensive questionnaire to describe their leader's behaviour. The results of the study were reduced to two dimensions: structure and appreciation. With parallel research by the University of Michigan, researchers discovered two other dimensions: human orientation and production. Based on this research, Blake, and Mouton (as Northouse cites) created a management network in the 1960s that was later renamed the leadership network. They felt that she should serve leaders in the balance of caring for people and caring for production.

The situational approach is among the more accepted approaches today and extends through every newer approach to leadership. Although Fiedler defined his theory in 1967, which is the first situational one, it is believed that the situational approach was constructed by Hersey and Blanchard in 1969 (Northouse, 2019). The situational approach is such that he expects the leader to alter his approach to leadership based on the situation given and to measure his or her ability to adapt. It is possible for the leader to change his style even in the middle of the project if he feels that he will better serve to lead the subordinates towards the goal. A leader based on an employee, i.e., their commitment and competences, determines which leadership style to apply. The two most important items that characterize this approach are routing and support. We can make a comparison with the above leadership network where the degree of direction would be "autocratic leadership" because the leader orders subordinate how to reach the goal with clear instructions. The degree of support is "friendly management" that relies on empathy, aims to make subordinates feel comfortable and implies the cooperation of the leader and subordinates. Therefore, paternalism/maternalism also mentioned in the leadership network is also present in the situational approach. Based on the given situation and the motivation of the employee, the leader changes the degree of guidance and the degree of support. Its main task is to recognize when to adjust your leadership style and in which direction. Fred Fiedler and his associates developed the first situational theory of leadership in 1967, which is the theory of concerted leadership as stated by Sikavica et al. (2008). The theory of harmonized leadership, in addition to dealing with situations, also deals with the styles recommended for application in

each of the situations. According to Sikavica et al. (2008), Fiedler noted three key factors influencing the determination of leadership style: the relationship between the leader and the subordinate, task structure, and leadership positions of power. The relationship between the leader and the subordinate is good, that is, bad, depending on the level of trust that the subordinates have towards the leader. The structure of the task indicates whether the tasks are routine or non-routine, or whether the task structure is high or low. The position of power of the leader implies the position in which the leader is located, so depending on the hierarchical scale of the organization, this position can be strong or weak. A combination of these three factors produces an octave, i.e., an octave. eight potential situations in which the leader can find himself and these are as follows:

Table 3: Modified table of Fiedler’s contingency leadership model

Situation	Leader-follower relationship	Task structure	Leader’s position of power	Wanted leadership style
1.	Good	High	Strong	Task oriented
2.	Good	High	Weak	
3.	Good	Low	Strong	
4.	Good	Low	Weak	Interpersonal relations oriented
5.	Bad	High	Strong	
6.	Bad	High	Weak	
7.	Bad	Low	Strong	Task oriented
8.	Bad	Low	Weak	

Source: author

According to the first possible situation from the table, it is assumed that the relationship between the leader and the subordinates is good, that the structure of the task is high, that is, the relationship between the leader and the subordinates. Routine and that the position of power of the leader is strong. From this we can conclude that it is this situation that is the most favourable in which the leader can find himself. Conversely, the last above situation is the most unfavourable. In such a situation, relations are bad, the tasks are non-routine and the position of power of the leader is weak. Fiedler proposed two leadership styles for all eight situations: task orientation and orientation to interpersonal relationships. Northouse (2010) states that leaders focused on the task are the most successful in the most favourable and unfavourable

situations, that is, in situations that go smoothly and are chaotic. Favourable situations are considered to be those where the power of the leader is strong, relations with subordinates are good and tasks are clearly defined. An unfavourable situation is considered to be one where there is a poor relationship between a leader and a subordinate, the tasks are not structured, and the position of the leader is low. Moderate situations are located between the most favourable and unfavourable. In such situations, the most successful leaders are oriented towards interpersonal relationships. It has not yet been clarified why this is the case, but the assumption is that such leaders aspire only to safety.

The Path-goal theory is also classified as situational theories of leadership. The main goal of this theory is to find the right motivation for each subordinate in order to increase the work performance and satisfaction. "According to this theory, the proper performance of the work of subordinates will be possible if managers have clearly defined the work to their subordinates, if they have provided them with the necessary training for this job, and if they help them to do a better job and end up awarding them a reward for a job well done." (Sikavica et al., 2008, p. 500). The main characteristics of the theory of the path to the goal are clear definition of goals, providing performance support and rewarding when successfully fulfilling the goal. Access to subordinates seems individualized because the leader defines for each of them what approach to use. He needs to know and understand the goals of the individual so that he can direct and reward everyone. The path-to-the-finish theory brings together several leadership styles, and four are key: guidance leadership, supportive leadership, collaborative leadership, and achievement-oriented leadership. The leader can apply one or more styles, depending on the situation. Table 3 shows the main characteristics of the specified styles.

Table 4: Modified table of the Path-goal theory

Guidance leadership	<p>Leader assigns roles to members that are clearly and appropriately defined</p> <p>Gives realistic tasks with step-by-step instructions</p> <p>Provides the resources and materials needed to perform tasks</p> <p>Sets tangible goals</p> <p>Explains what his expectations are of subordinates</p>
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Supportive leadership	<p>The leader is accessible and accessible to subordinates</p> <p>Provides guidance, encouragement, and training</p> <p>Creates a comfortable environment</p>
Collaborative leadership	<p>The leader makes decisions with a group of members</p> <p>Encourages team members to give feedback and ideas</p> <p>Ensures that all members contribute</p>
Leadership focused on achievements	<p>The leader has ambitious standards regarding the goals and outcomes he passes on to his team</p> <p>Helps teams develop confidence and self-efficiency</p> <p>It offers the opportunity for members to challenge themselves to achieve greater goals</p>

Source: author

The theory of the path to the goal is quite complex precisely because the subordinate is approached individually and not as a group. The behaviour of the leader, that is, the selection of one of the leadership styles, is the first essential factor that determines the success of leadership. Based on the behaviour of followers and the characteristics of tasks, the leader determines the leadership style that will be the most motivating. The behaviour of followers implies their need for belonging, preference for structure, desire for control and personal vision of the ability to solve a task (Northouse, 2019). Thus, supportive leadership will be most suitable for those subordinates who have a need for belonging and directing leadership for those with a preference for structure. For subordinates who have a desire for control, collaborative leadership is appropriate, as such an approach allows them to be satisfied to participate in decision-making. Leadership focused on achievements as well as directional leadership, in turn, is tied to subordinates who are focused on the abilities to solve a given task. Such individuals require directional guidance when their view for their own abilities is low, but the greater their insight into abilities, the less the need for direction. The aim of such a leadership style is to raise

the self-confidence of subordinates. Depending on the behaviour of the subordinates and the behaviour of the leader, the subordinates are assigned certain types of tasks. Northouse (2019) states that directing leadership is motivating in complex tasks where the rules are unclear. Supportive leadership is motivating in repetitive tasks. Vague and unstructured tasks require collaborative leadership. Leadership focused on achievements, however, is most appropriate in subordinates who believe that for the events of their lives, fate or external forces are the cause. Such guidance gives subordinates a sense of control, that is, of control of the circumstances in which they find themselves.

The theory of exchange between leader and member is based on the relationships that the leader and members (subordinates) have. Northouse (2019) states that there are two types of subordinates: those who want to do more and those who will work exactly as hard as they need to. The leader will do more for subordinates who are willing to perform additional tasks. In this way, subordinates create the opportunity for advancement due to commitment and better communication with the leader. On the other hand, the relationship is exclusively formal between the leader and the subordinates who want to work only as long as necessary. These relationships were criticized because it was considered that the leader should have an equal relationship with all members. For this reason, Graen and Uhl-Bien (as quoted by Northouse, 2019) stated that the process of exchanging leader and member should be conducted in three stages: the foreigner phase, the dating phase, and the mature partnership phase. The foreigner's phase is the first and it is characterized by the formality and relationship prescribed by the contract. This stage has a low exchange of leader and member, and the member looks only at his interests. The second stage is the stage of getting to know where the subordinate progresses, which implies allocating more resources as well as exchanging information with the leader, be it personal information or related to work. At this stage, the exchange of leader and member as well as mutual trust grows, and the member no longer looks only at his interests but also at the interests of the organization. The third stage marks a mature partnership, and the relationship is adorned with trust and respect. The leader and the member can rely on each other and for this reason the greatest exchange is here. Also, in the third phase, the member is focused exclusively on the interests of the group. This theory is different from the others because it most notes the importance of communication and the importance of trust. An exchange involving information sharing, respect, and excellent communication, increases trust between the leader and the subordinate. The greater the trust, the more responsibility the leader will assign to the subordinate tasks with greater responsibility, allowing the personal progress of the subordinates

as well as progress within the organization. The aim of the theory of exchange between leader and member is to create better interpersonal relationships and an effective working environment, which directly affects the positive growth of the organization.

Approaches to leadership that have been used in the past, today are not so represented. What was proposed in the 1960s is no longer valid to such an extent. Today's organizations operate in saturated markets, and the dynamics of the business have changed with the development of management. All these changes have resulted in the evolution of the approach to leadership, and the most popular of the modern approaches are transactional, charismatic, transformational, interactive, and serviceable (Buble, 2000).

As the word itself says, a transactional approach to leadership requires some kind of transaction. We often think about money transactions first but in this case, it is related to the system of rewarding and punishing. "The leader defines the goals, determines how they must be achieved, communicates them to subordinates, and rewards subordinates if they successfully achieve the goals set" (Buble, 2000, p. 550). At first, this approach is reminiscent of governance based on authority. Leaders who practice this approach to subordinates clearly define goals and how they should achieve them. It also defines what their reward is for a successful task, that is, a penalty if the task is not successfully completed. It is because of the reward and punishment system that this approach is called transactional. The difference between this approach from authority-based governance is that leaders are tolerant and fair, aid, advice, and resources to subordinates for the purpose of achieving goals and take care of the social needs of subordinates. Precisely because subordinates must strictly adhere to the rules on the basis of which they achieve their goals, this approach can have a negative effect on their creativity and motivation. On the other hand, the transaction approach can be effective when the tasks are simple in character.

Also, they consider the satisfaction of subordinates to be closely related to their productivity. Nevertheless, transactional leadership does not strive for change but is explicitly oriented towards stability within the organization. This style is also characterized by avoiding decision-making and solving problems too late. Buble (2000) lists some of the characteristics of transactional leadership such as:

- Preoccupation with power and position;
- It is plunged into everyday problems;
- It is outlined in the short term;

- Deals with symptoms instead of causes.

The transformational approach to leadership is characterized by transforming the beliefs of subordinates in order to increase their commitment to the organization. It requires a certain charisma from the leader in order to be able to influence the transformation of the individual and the group. Transformational leaders are leaders who encourage change and have an unobstructed vision of change (Sikavica et al., 2008). Such leaders inspire and motivate subordinates to achieve goal setting. Therefore, transformational leadership is also called inspirational leadership. Buble (2000) states that the leader in this approach is in charge of creating optimal conditions in order to encourage subordinates to achieve results. Optimal conditions imply good interpersonal relationships, communication, understanding and compassion for the needs of subordinates. It is uncommon that in such inspiring and motivating conditions, subordinates achieve more than necessary to promote the vision of the organization. Some of the hallmarks of transformational leadership are (Buble, 2000):

- Preoccupation with purpose, values, morality, and ethics;
- Oriented towards long-term goals;
- Initiative-taking;
- Rewards significant contributions;
- Unleashes human potential;
- Leads in new directions.

Unlike a transactional leader, a leader with a transformational approach takes care of people, solves causes instead of symptoms and is preoccupied with morality. That is why this approach is suggested at the beginning of the business, that is, when it reaches the stage of decline. In such situations, it is necessary to inspire subordinates and transform their beliefs that they as a group, with a firm belief in the vision of the organization, can positively influence the growth, that is, the survival and success of it.

"The word charisma was initially used to describe the special gift possessed by certain persons which gives them the ability to do extraordinary things" (Northouse, 2019, p. 266). The charismatic approach to leadership is reminiscent of a trait-based approach where scientists, back in the 50s, considered that individuals were born with a special gift. The difference is that in a charismatic approach, other traits such as physique, height, best education, etc. are not advocated. previously cited by scientists. With this kind of leadership, leaders with their charisma have the ability to gain respect and trust with their faith and thus make his followers

follow him for the purpose of achieving results. Charisma is recognized for recognizing a person as a leader by a group of followers. Northouse (2019) lists the most common traits attached to such a leader: self-confidence, visionary and strong moral values.

A service approach to leadership sounds unconventional. Such leaders serve subordinates, elevate them, and motivate them by example. Spears lists nine features of a service leader, namely:

- Listening;
- Empathy;
- Healing;
- Persuasion;
- Conceptualization;
- Prediction;
- Management;
- Commitment to human development;
- Community development.

In addition to the above characteristics, one of the keys to successful leadership is emotional intelligence. The leader must be able to recognize the feelings and beliefs of subordinates. Also, leaders like this rely on strictly ethical leadership. The desire of service leaders is that the subordinates feel comfortable, have a trust, healthy and honest environment to give the best possible result. The service leader will always give more for his subordinates than for himself and is motivated by what his subordinates develop personally.

2.3 Strategic Leadership

Strategic Leadership is noticeable in the management of change, whether of the organization or that which is linked to products and services. In their function, strategic leaders are in charge of building or modifying the organizational structure, securing funding, allocating resources, and transmitting the strategic vision of the organisation to employees and investors. Strategic leadership supplies the framework within which organisations shape suitable strategies and generate value. In short, strategic leadership outlines a roadmap for the company that will allow

it to deliver its full potential; by constructing a portfolio of activities and setting the performance requirements of the company.

Strategic leaders are able to think about the long term, comprehend the broad picture, and understand the present context of the business. Strategic leadership is the ability to link long-term goals and ideas with daily operations. Even while formal organizational leadership is too often associated with strategic leadership, distributed leadership or dispersed leadership frameworks provide this term a far broader meaning (if one prefers to approach the intuitions of the Austrian school). In fact, a number of individuals—both inside and outside the organization—who have a strategic leadership viewpoint or competence may be active in strategy.

In his pioneering work on strategic leadership, Hosmer (1982) argued that the competitive position of an organization within its industry is not taken into account by contingency theories of leadership. Because a leader must continually take the organization's strategy in reference to the external environment, their job is distinct from that of a manager (Theory of management versus leadership). In this way, leadership displays an order of greater ability that involves both developing a strategy and influencing others to comply with it.

Boal and Hooijberg (2000) believe that a leader's capacity to grow and maintain three organizational capabilities is at the heart of strategic leadership: absorptive capacity (or capacity to learn), capacity to change and the capacity for wisdom in management. A certain flexibility of strategic leadership is therefore another source of competitive advantage for the company. According to Ireland and Hitt (1999), the company's sources its competitive advantage from strategic leadership when six components are present:

- Determining the objective or vision of the organization;
- Building and maintaining core competencies;
- Human capital development;
- Maintaining an effective organizational culture;
- Ethical management practices;
- Balanced organizational controls.

Strategic leadership sets out the vision, the direction, the progress objective to ensure the success of an organization in its context. The possibilities of organizational development are based on epistemic leadership since it is a question, for each individual, of understanding how

to collect and interpret data, when these become increasingly numerous. Epistemic leadership also initiates the way of thinking "outside the box" to generate future growth.

Generally, strategic leaders are most noticeable at the helm of exceptionally large organizations, influencing countless internal employees and external personnel. They delegate their leadership to strong "second-tier" leaders, allowing them to exert their influence particularly on their direct reports while focusing on the big questions that affect the organization as a whole. However, strategic leadership can also emerge in small organizations, whether for-profit or associative. However, it appears in the facts that the relationship to innovation is not the same in strategic leadership in public services (when strategic leadership exists) and that of the private sector. According to the authors, Crossan, Jansen and Vera (2009), the strategies of transformational leadership are associated with exploratory behaviours of innovation while the strategies of transactional leadership relate to the exploitation of innovation.

Strategic leadership can have a significant impact on organizational advancements, but organisational innovation is cultivated by the cultural context as also argued by authors of the Austrian school (Peter Boettke) in the unfavourable economic transition of socialist countries. Organizational learning is impacted by organizational culture. Additionally, there is proof that strategic leaders uphold the organizational culture they are most familiar with and instil their own moral standards into the fabric of their organizations. Strategic leaders directly impact organizational culture and the ability of organizational learning of other members, which hampers or halts organizational innovation. Strategic leaders struggle to persuade organizational members to reject institutionalized learning and embrace creative thinking in a status quo culture because they prefer transactional leadership over transformational leadership. There can often arise a "creative tension" between the "vision" of the strategic leader supporting change and the reality of the organization. Strategic leaders must be able to overcome reality and visualize the "strategic leap" an organization must make. To do it, they must act as enthusiastic advocates of change, since the organizational culture might not be as forward-thinking as them. Strategic leaders must cope with this ambivalence of an organization that wishes to advance but is anxious about too sudden changes.

A leader must have the abilities and resources necessary for both effective strategy formulation (discursive leadership) and change management. Strategic leadership presents an unobstructed vision (visionary leadership) by conveying the medium and long-term course of an organization. It provides the mechanisms through which organizations stimulate and support innovation and knowledge creation. Also, it gives a vision of the road map that enables an

organization to progress and innovate. He instils a sense of purpose in his subordinates for the roles they must play in achieving this vision and he encourages them in the face of new situations and challenges with motivated responses.

Decisions are made by strategic leaders who swiftly process information (superb cognitive abilities) by assessing alternatives oftentimes based on incomplete or incorrect information (epistemic curiosity in a state of vigilance), the repercussions of which have a strong impact on a many people as well as resources. Strategic leaders who have varying levels of skills and knowledge are more probable to quickly recognise changes in the environmental and/or changes inside the organization that demand a revision of the strategic direction. But they are not psychotic actors, whose nervousness would make them make the slightest decision under the effect of a sudden change. The capacity to take the appropriate action at the appropriate moment based on knowledge of the situation and the organization's constituents is a trait of the strategic leader. The capacity to come up with answers or reinterpret issues using several, contradictory scenarios and pieces of knowledge is a key component of managerial wisdom. With lower-level managers, the difference is made by the incorporation of these skills.

Strategic leaders are skilled at working in environments of extreme uncertainty where complicated problems and outside factors may have an impact on the company's future success. Strategic leaders may occasionally favour the psychological or capitalistic appropriation of workers to accomplish shared goals and thereby strengthen both internal and external motivations. The leader who reinforces the human aspect of his strategic leadership believes that his organization is consolidated thanks to the breadth and depth of the commitment he provokes. As such, strategy development is carefully coordinated, and widely communicated throughout the organization.

This entrepreneurial leadership or, more generally, entrepreneurial skills, may constitute the source of this strategic leadership. Occasionally, a long time must pass from the implementation for the effect of strategic leadership to become visible. This involves an internal training and development strategy for future leaders. In the case of a risk of "gap" of leadership, it is important that an organization plans a succession of its future executives, particularly at the approach of the retirement of a part of them who risks, after their departure, to leave a gap in terms of both practical and strategic knowledge.

If an organization anticipates certain leaders to leave in the near future, it may decide to plan for this "leadership gap" by developing infrastructure in which resources and practices are used

to generate initiative-taking leaders on all levels within the organization. Finding leaders for the future requires developing a strategy in advance. Hence, there is a motivation to want to develop leaders internally. Coaching employees with perceivably strong potential who are accustomed to the realities of the organisation enables long-term organizational sustainability by "acquiring" leaders who are already acquainted with the organization's culture while shortening the learning curve of organization, compared to the organization having to recruit leaders from outside the organization. Strategic leaders stimulate organizational learning to investigate both knowable and unknown futures. They hold an important role in promoting the narrative leadership). Thus, they encourage a more engaged pursuit of the organization's mission.

3. LEADERSHIP IN PROFESSIONAL SPORT

Since the end of the 1980s, we have witnessed a rapprochement between the world of business and that of sport; two worlds than a priori everything is opposed. But the growing professionalization of certain sporting disciplines, on the one hand, and sport as a potential source of managerial inspiration, on the other hand, have initiated a convergence of these two milieus. Sport, which until then had been considered as "a bodily activity with little social legitimacy, if not vulgar" (Ehrenberg, 1988), has now been invested, for a good thirty years, with a great positive imaginary charge, probably because that it abounds in powerful registers of symbolic capitalization and strong identifying vectors (Wann, 2006) to the point that sportsmen and women are set up, as Griffet and Recours (2004,) suggest, as (...) national heroes who are instruments, both social and individual. Imaginary tools at the service of myths. Sport is in fact increasingly incorporated into professional activity with the aim of increasing performance and competitiveness (Barbusse, 2002). Moreover, the search for performance, rigour, ambitious standards, excellence, risk-taking, action in a competitive environment constitute elements that characterize both the world of sport and that of business., would explain this gradual rapprochement, but also the desire to understand the collective motivational logic around the notions of teams, unifying common values and pride in belonging.

Thus, the use of sport by companies is plural. With the aim of improving the productivity of employees by reducing absenteeism (more or less correctly attributed to poor employee health), health programs are put in place and sports equipment available to employees (Pierre and Barth, 2010). The effort perceived by employees, of the company that employs them, to improve their working conditions is experienced as a sign of staff consideration, well known to motivation specialists as reinforcing self-determination (Baard et al.,2004). It is also a crystallizer as a communication tool through sponsorship or the employment of a top athlete. Indeed, it contributes to nurture beliefs and to attempt to legitimize the values that the company wishes to embody and implement (Spanberg, 2012). This is how many contemporary or older high-level athletes and/or coaches also have a certain attractiveness and a large halo effect for companies. As "examples to follow" or as a champion of a Spinozian ethic in the sense of "doing well together", their thematic conferences constitute a direct or perceived lever of strong motivation for employees, taking the form of a sharing lived or ideal experience from which managers, this time, seek inspiration (Pierre et al., 2010). Beyond the myth and the symbolic

idealization that they represent, these speakers and their speeches can have a significant impact because they are perceived as having made their symbolic way to the top by carrying the consensus of embodying and respecting universal values, which nourish the symbolism of sport and its transfer to a society of progress.

Indeed, the imaginary of sport embodies a set of values such as self-transcendence, willpower, fair play, courage, abnegation, joy in effort, responsibility, competition. These attributes with which sport is adorned stigmatize those with which companies would like (or hope) to adorn themselves. Like any value, those conferred on sport are synonymous with beliefs or virtues, closer to myth (Defrance, 2006) as evidenced by the power of its intergenerational transfer (Jeu, 1977), than to a tangible reality. Thus, the fact that sport never releases the exact reflection of its reality, does little to euphemize the virtues attributed to it. It suffices to be convinced of this to note how its symbolic power and its related values resist with robustness the abuses (corruption, doping, violence, etc.) which do not fail to affect the sports sphere. Moreover, the myth of sport seems, on the contrary, indestructible, and constantly reanimated by the maintenance of beliefs and stereotypes (Jeu, 1977). Far from dividing or diminishing the symbolic significance of sport, these excesses, when they are combated by justice and its moral code, make it possible to close ranks around the (positive) values of sport, thus sanctifying the sporting space (Vigarello, 2000). This is why we think that the exploitation, by the company, of sport and its symbolism for the purpose of improving performance or even for unifying and identifying purposes (Barbusse, 2002) is still in its infancy. Understanding their interactions and meaning could help support companies in their desire to set up a new model of managerial ideal, of which sport appears as a possible inspiring model. Because, even if Taylorist thought is outdated, the figure of the manager is historically attached to the cold, almost hostile image of the person who sometimes puts people to work under duress. Companies, in their necessary adaptation to societal changes, have moved from the logic of obedience to a logic of responsibility and accountability. “Make-do” is gradually being replaced by “make-want.” The management of human resources tends to emancipate itself from intentions of disciplining employees, focusing more on the fight against their demotivation (Ehrenberg, 1988). This is part of the image logic of corporate citizens who, without departing from objectives of excellence, would like to convince that they are ready to do so in social and societal resonance. So, the instrumentalization of the values, attributes, and symbols of sport, would offer the opportunity to create synergies on objects a priori antagonistic competition/performance and personal achievement (Ehrenberg, 1991). Sport and its attributes, through their unifying actions

(Yonnet, 2004) could make it possible to promote this rapprochement and more broadly, constitute the foundations for the creation of a corporate culture composed of values, standards, rites, myths, and heroes whose vocation is to create a community such as (...) Weber or Durkheim understood it (Barbusse, 2002).

This questioning then gives rise to the emergence of a bundle of issues, offered to a multidisciplinary approach. Thus, a series of questions emerges: how do we manage the men who make the prominent level of sport? To what extent can the management of sports performance feed into that of the company? On what principles of reciprocity? Few studies have been conducted on the subject, certainly because of the difficulties of access to potentially strategic data (multilevel competition between athletes, teams, clubs or even between federations), the culture of secrecy, mistrust of - vis-à-vis third-party and/or “foreign” players in the high-level world, etc.

Leadership is described as a process in which relationships of influence are exercised, with individuals sharing common objectives and mobilizing to achieve the said objectives or the desired changes (Yukl, 2006; Northouse, 2007). There are four generations of work on leadership. The first, the theory of personality traits, defends the idea of the existence of predisposed leaders with particular and innate character traits and skills: they are intelligent, insightful, vigilant, responsible, enterprising, persistent, confident, and sociable (Stogdill, 1948). This theory, criticized for an ambiguous definition of the notion of traits, was updated by the meta-analysis by Judge et al. (2002) highlighting the clear connection between the emergence and efficacy of leaders and traits such as extraversion and open-mindedness. Currently, we talk more about attributes – cognitive and social abilities, motivation, critical thinking skills, tacit knowledge – of leadership, of which personality is only one part.

The second generation analysed the ways leaders act. Behavioural approaches have described six distinct leadership styles based on the factors favoured (person-focused vs. task-focused behaviours) by leaders. The galvanizing style, mobilizing supporters by bringing them together around a vision, is reported impact the work climate positively. The partner (emphasis on bonding and harmony), democratic (seeks consensus through participation), and coach (builds supporters for the future) styles are described as building a positive climate. Unlike winning styles and authoritarian who encourage competition and demand immediate adjustments creating a negative climate.

The context not being considered here, the third approach (situational contingencies) centred around the significance of the situation in the emergence of leadership. The three main models are the path-goal theory of House (1971), the situational model of Hersey and Blanchard (1982) and the decision-making model of Vroom and Jago (1988). House (1971) focused on subordinate motivation as a guarantee of improved performance. The leader will have to help the follower to find his way. He will have to adjust his style according to subordinate's needs, provide him with what is missing to achieve his objectives and ensure that the reward suits him. He will be directive and will let the subordinate know what is expected of him or support and will strive to create conviviality or participatory taking care to include the subordinate in decision-making, or finally focused on achievements setting challenging goals to improve performance. Here, the responsibility of the leader is central: he is invariably the one who knows, and the subordinate is the one who is taken care of.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982), the style of leadership must correspond more to the maturity of the person (or the group) under penalty of failure. Maturity implies competence, need for accomplishment and involvement in achieving objectives. Directive, supportive, participative and delegative styles are adopted for a subordinate with low, medium, high, and extremely high skill levels, respectively. If the two previous models are centered on the supervision of leaders, that of Vroom and Jago (1988) describes decision-making strategies according to situational variables. Depending on the importance of the decision, the expertise of the group and the leader, the competence and support of the group for the objectives and the importance and propensity for the commitment of the subordinates, the leader will decide alone or after consulting the group or individuals, facilitate or delegate decision making to subordinates. This model, empirically validated, omits that subordinate wish to be associated with decisions or that the decision-making process often requires several cycles.

After observing the greatest leaders, Burns (1978) suggested a new paradigm: the transactional-transformational leader, giving rise to the fourth generation of work. The theory of transactional leadership suggests that exchange (give-and-take) and negotiation underpin the principle of this leadership, centred on clarifying the responsibilities of the subordinate in achieving objectives and the sanctions if they are not achieved. An extension of this theory made it possible to conceptualize another form of leadership, freed from any contingent dimension. Thus, for Bass (1985) the effective leader is one who has transformative power over those he directs (we speak of supporters) by creating support rather than exercising subordination. He takes them where alone they could not go by giving them the meaning the belief of having gone there on their

own, allows them to push their own limits and “through a process of mutual stimulation and development where selfish interests are transcended for the benefit of the common good” (Kets de Vries, 2006). To do this, he mobilizes the emotional, physical, and mental resources of his followers around a common goal by ensuring that they give the best of themselves. The effective leader is characterized by four dimensions summarizing character traits, modes of action, skills, and knowledge:

- Charisma or idealized influence (Bass, 1985; Kets de Vries 2006) which, more than a gift, is the ideal type of authority (as opposed to institutional authority determined by the leader's position in the organization), is the medium through which the leader weaves an emotional bond, inspires trust and creates support for his project or his vision.
- Inspiration: To be inspiring, the leader must create a culture by embodying a clear and attractive vision of the future embodying the collective ideal (Bennis and Nanus, 1985).
- Intellectual stimulation that creates an environment conducive to thinking, improving the current situation by inciting and encouraging innovation and creation among supporters.
- Consideration: by taking care to entrust appropriate tasks and missions worthy of their competence, the leader demonstrates consideration.

This behavioural skill allows him to know the needs, feelings, and values of their followers. However, it is precisely by virtuously manipulating these last elements that he will (de)construct beliefs and give “meaning” (Judge et al., 2002). It is (among other things) this ability to manage meaning that makes all the effectiveness of the transformational leader. These behaviours make him exemplary, define the model to follow and are also the source of the trust and loyalty shown to him by his supporters which, by stimulating the feeling of belonging plays a large part in their motivation to commit to the projects.

3.1 Team Environment and Types of Team Leadership

Sports teams differ from traditional teams in several ways. Although some of their characteristics are observable in organizations and other types of teams, the sporting context often exacerbates them. Thus, before applying solutions inspired by the world of sports to a traditional team, it is necessary to understand what characterizes sports teams. The captain is

typically the player who is most committed on the field during the game. Nowadays, playing the role of a leader implies a place at the centre of the team instead of above it. The leader therefore must present an example and know how to intervene on all types of tasks to help his teams when in need. In the professional environment, this can mean collaborating physically with your team, by training together. Additionally, the team's leader needs to be transparent about his approach to ensure that everyone remains focused on the same goal. He must have a clear understanding of what is expected of them on the field and the direction to go in order for his players to produce. The leader must take the time to occasionally make sure that everyone understands his strategy and vision, just like the coach does when he presents his tactics at halftime.

For them to invest as much as possible, it is essential that the environment in which the employees of a company evolve allows them to do so. Too often, especially because of the short-term objectives set by the company, managers ask their teams to run a sprint even though the distance to be covered is that of a marathon. The role of a leader, as well as that of a sports coach, is first of all to succeed in gaining height in order to then set the right objectives and ensure that the employees are able to achieve them. Improving the performance of his teams also implies that the leader must make sure that each of his teammates is in their optimal condition, both physically and psychologically.

In sport as at work, who tries nothing has nothing. A leader's job is to direct their efforts toward getting the team to invest as much as possible. For instance, in the contact sport of rugby, the captain must ensure that his squad remains dedicated despite any injuries. The same is true in business: although projects can be challenging and costly at times, the leader must be able to inspire commitment while also giving assistance to shield his team members in times of need. Difficulties and challenges can be seen as a source of motivation and accomplishment. The leader must support this way of thinking in order to lead each team member towards self-transcendence.

Encouraging risk-taking by his teams and asserting the right to make mistakes are the two skills necessary for the modern leader to enable his teams to gain in velocity. While there is a share of risk inherent in the speed at which the various projects progress, a leader must indeed tolerate the errors that may occur, to never lose agility. As Theodore Roosevelt said, "The only man who never makes mistakes is the one who never does anything." The error is also a fantastic way to learn, and it is precisely the leader to allow his teams to learn faster than his competitors. As on a football or basketball field, sometimes you must agree to take a

counter. The important thing is to then know how to bounce back. And the leader must then ensure the rear of his team to keep it motivated. Thus, if the velocity sometimes involves damage, it is better to choose this to immobility, and it is up to the leader to constantly remind his teams of this.

Team leadership is a method that encourages members of a team to work together toward a common goal while representing the organization's interests. The presence of a group in an organization with members who are mutually dependent on one another demonstrates this leadership. This style of leadership is evident in project management. Team members have shared objectives and have to harmonize their activities to achieve those objectives. A team leader constructs his team (team building), builds trust and teamwork, increases team capacity, creates team identity, exploits (in a positive meaning) the differences between team members as a leader does orchestra, and attempts to predict and influence change. Apart from the team leader, the analyses are based on team leadership with the understanding of the composition of a core within the team.

JE McGrath (1962) created a model of team leadership using a diagram with two intersecting axes: one symbolizing follow-up or acting and the other focusing on internal or external issues.

- Quadrant 1: Diagnosis of problems by the leader (group leader);
- Quadrant 2: Actions of the leader to solve the problems observed in quadrant 1;
- Quadrant 3: Leader observes threats in team environment;
- Quadrant 4: The leader acts to prevent harmful changes in the environment that could be harmful to the team such as those observed in quadrant 3.

This functional model is designed to dictate the responsibilities of the leader in a team and show how leaders should analyse the internal and external environment to determine actions to make the team more effective.

In the 1970s, Meredith Belbin carried out a study of teams examining the factors distinguishing successful and unsuccessful teams from a business game at Henley College. She recognized the significance of the team's organizational structure and the fact that individual differences in style, purpose, and contribution may not indicate a person's deficiencies but, rather, may be a source of collective strength. Well-balanced teams comprising individuals who engage in behaviour with a complementary function perform superior to unbalanced teams.

Nine distinct functions were discerned in the study. Majority of people adopt a mixture of two or three functions while avoiding other function in which they do not feel comfortable. There is no ideal team member, that is, someone who is capable of having all nine roles. When an individual has clear, useful, and valued attributes, they are recruited to the team according to the strengths they bring. These team members also possess weaknesses that fall under the same category of shared traits as the strength. These potential shortcomings are the cost of obtaining a certain strength; this is an "allowable weakness".

From this study, Meredith Belbin drew the contrast between the "solo" leader and the "team" leader. She suggested that solo leaders very rarely admit their weaknesses, whether they are admissible or not. They act like they have no weakness. Meredith Belbin uses a definition given by Charles Handy to depict her hypothesis of solo leadership: "A leader forms and shares a vision that gives focus to others." The solo leader is a person who leads a team. He is always ready to assume any role with the referent responsibility. In the workplace, this type of behaviour has great advantages when it comes to overcoming internal obstacles and making decisions, especially those of an urgent nature. Many enterprises have promoted individuals to leadership roles when they have satisfied critical demands and corporate objectives, rewarding solo leadership behaviour. But the growing complexity and discontinuous nature of modern work, however, pose more challenges for solo leadership. Team leadership seems better suited. Although this role does not come naturally, Meredith Belbin insists that it can be learned by understanding the essence of leadership and the necessary qualities. In a work environment characterized by change and uncertainty, no individual has all the management answers to take.

Elizabeth P. Karam, Frederick P. Morgeson, D. Scott DeRue (2009) gave a holistic perspective of team leadership on the fifteen functions that allow teams to satisfy their basic requirements and control their behaviour in relation to goal attainment. These functions are split into two groups, the transition phase, and the action phase. In the transition phase, the following leadership needs are included: building the team, determining the mission, defining expectations and objectives, structuring and planning, training, and developing the team, giving meaning (Making Sense), and giving comments (feedback) on experiences. In the action phase, the leadership needs are controlling the team, setting team boundaries, giving challenges, performing team tasks, solving problems.

The association of team members is essential. Team leadership is highly functional when a number of people have skills, complement the group's vision, and share a common vision for which each of them is held equally accountable. This critical function does not happen by

accident. Teams should be built carefully with a lot of thought given to the structure of the team as well as the members that will form its base. A team cannot survive without a well thought out structure and a vision which will be the foundation towards which the group will work.

When team leadership theory is combined with other leadership theories, it is reinforced:

- Along with empowering leadership, team leadership assumes that each individual on the team has leadership potential;
- With behaviourist leadership, the team serves as the focal point for the leader to make decisions;
- Along with participatory leadership, team leadership theory improves the quality of the organization by boosting employee participation;
- Along with followership theory, team leadership theory enables leaders to use their knowledge of methods that build team member motivation, participation, and commitment. The team leader can be a leader in the organization and use their "follower" understanding when participating in non-profits. However, team leaders must have the skills to manage lack of participation, disagreements, criticism, and any disruptive behaviour from any individual on the team;
- With Total Quality Excellence Leadership, leaders apply statistical tools and generate solutions to diverse organizational issues;
- Along with democratic leadership, team leadership seeks the involvement of the team in decision making, problem solving, and task evaluation;
- Along with discursive leadership, team leadership allows the organization of meetings, discussing the objectives that are identified and which must be the point of attention of all team members. Leaders use various communication tools such as workflow diagrams presented in a slide show on a PowerPoint-style presentation, or tables on a paper easel (paperboard - flip chart).

3.2 Leadership Role of Coach/Manager in Professional Sport

Throughout the history of theories about management, there has been the development of various theories that fall under several basic theories given that they draw common fundamental concepts and elements. One of the oldest theories of management is the Leader Theory, which assumes that leadership is innate in certain individuals, and according to this theory leaders are

'born' and not 'created' (Sikavica et al., 2008). Behavioural theory is based on the behaviour of successful individuals within organizations. This theory is based on observing the behaviour of successful leaders, that is, trying to expose whether there are common patterns of behaviour that determine good leadership, that is, a good leader. Behaviourist theory, unlike the Leader Theory, states that a leader can become, that is, leadership can be learned (Sikavica et al., 2008).

The contingent or situational theory of leadership also considers the circumstances in which the leader finds himself, that is, according to this theory, the leadership depends on the circumstances in which the enterprise or the leader himself is located. In this way, according to this theory, clear group patterns of behaviour of leaders cannot be discerned, since each individual leader is in a specific situation and is influenced by different circumstances (Dawson, 1994; Sikavica et al., 2008). Barrow (1977) gives the definition of leadership as "the behavioral process of influencing individuals and groups towards a specified purpose." The previous definition is important because it explains the vision of the leader, as well as emphasizes the necessity of interaction between the leader and the individuals of the group.

Effective leadership towards Crust and Lawrence (2006) is such that in according to the group it forms a collective understanding and achieving the motivation necessary to achieve the goals. The act of leadership itself implies according to previous authors to convert the members of the group into loyal followers. Achieving a following can be achieved through various manipulative techniques, but what makes leadership noble is the background behind it, which is used to achieve the higher goals of the organization, putting private goals of individuals in the back. When talking about the specific case of a football manager, this function is for a reason in Britain distinct from the function of an ordinary coach, and it is much closer to the volume of responsibility to the function of the sporting director of an organization. The function of a manager in an enterprise, as well as in a sports organization, is multidisciplinary, and requires managers to play multiple roles. In the context of a sports organization (football), the manager has the role to produce a clear plan, a coordinated and integrated program for the preparation of athletes, but he must think about the business and financial perspective of the organization (Crust and Lawrence, 2006).

Nevertheless, the operational aspects fall into the water if the sports manager does not have the characteristics of a leader and does not possess the skills and techniques of leading the team and the organization. Crust and Lawrence (2006) list the most important skills and knowledge of leaders in sports organizations: adaptability to the situation, caution towards the social environment, intelligence, assertiveness, ambition, creativity, diplomacy, oratory, the power of

persuasion, organizational skills, social skills, dominance, self-confidence, tolerance to stress, reliability, determination, and perseverance. Crust and Lawrence (2006) explain that according to behavioural research, the best leaders are categorized into two dominant areas, consideration, and initiative structure. Considering encompasses connections between leader and team members including factors such as friendship, mutual trust, warmth within relationships, and building intimacy in a group. The foundation of the first composition is the development of policies, procedures, and operational frameworks that guide the group (organization) toward the previously established goals. In sports organizations as well as in enterprises, extremely high results are visible in both categories in successful managers who are perceived by employees as real leaders in their domains.

Managers in sports are most often seen as directors of sports organizations. However, managers are also chief executives of a sports organization and manage all segments of the sports industry. They directly manage athletes and manage sports training and competitions (Tomic, 2007). A sports manager is a person who organizes and manages a particular sports organization that aims to achieve certain sports and business results (Bartoluci, 2003). What is a problem is that today every person regardless of qualification can be a sports manager? For such a position there is no determination of the qualification that the manager in sports must possess in order to successfully do his job, and this is the main problem in Croatian sport where we find managers of different profiles and professions. Also, the above law gives one narrow definition of a manager in sports omitting all its functions (Bartoluci, 2003). As with general management, in sports management we also have three levels of managers (Bartoluci, 2004). Managers of the highest level are in the sports organization of persons who supervise and perform all processes in business and sports function, analyse them, and make appropriate decisions. The most important act of a top-level manager is to make decisions that are essential for the successful functioning of a particular sports organization.

He directly participates in the planning of the entire organization, the development of human resources, and controls the goals of the sports organization. A mid-level manager in sports is subordinate to certain functions of a sports organization. It manages the processes, affairs, and organizational structures of one part of a sports organization such as, for example, marketing or accounting. There are increasingly such jobs in sports organizations, and today's larger sports organizations have at least three managers who manage certain segments such as general manager, marketing director and finance director (Bartoluci, 2003). Entry-level managers in sports are also known as operational or executive managers. Managers of this rank are mostly

coaches. The coach performs all the functions of management and bears part of the responsibility in the management of the sports organization. He must plan the development of sports activities, athletes, sports teams, sports training, and competitions. Coaches manage human resources, athletes, which are the most important human factors in a sports organization. Additionally, they organize, schedule, and manage the training procedure. Thus, coaches use the same means and principles as other managers, in the most important function of a sports organization, sports function (Tomic, 2007).

The abilities and knowledge that are necessary for the performance of managerial tasks in sports depend on many factors such as: type of sports organization (club, sports federations, etc.), branch of sports, status and position of sports organization, development of sports, and most importantly, the level of managerial position and its roles. Abilities and knowledge can be acquired in educational institutions, but also through experience. Of course, as in sports, talent and creativity in managers play an essential role. The knowledge or abilities that managers in sports must possess are classified into three categories according to Tomic (2007):

- Technical capabilities (knowledge);
- Abilities (knowledge) in the field of management;
- Intuitive or conceptual skills (knowledge).

Technical abilities are related to the possession of technical - professional knowledge in sports, as in the specific profession of the basic activity of a sports organization. This also applies to other professions necessary in those activities of a sports organization that support the development of sports as a basic activity. Managers of the lowest level (coaches) must possess the most technical knowledge and abilities. Abilities (knowledge) in the field of management relate to knowledge in the field of management and the ability to use all management functions such as organizing, deciding, controlling, communicating, planning, etc. Without these abilities and knowledge, and the possibility of their quality application in practice, the manager cannot perform his tasks well. Conceptual abilities refer to those abilities that accept and cause changes in the environment and that can affect the organization in any way. These are those abilities that allow managers to see the whole of the organization, the functions and processes in them, and the ability to plan for global development. Managers with developed conceptual abilities more easily comprehend how the diverse functions of the organization complement each other and how changes in one part of the organization impact all other aspects. These abilities play the greatest role in top-level managers.

Camy and Robinson (2007) write about the competences of sports managers that are necessary for managers to act successfully. Previous authors, in collaboration with world-renowned scientists and experts in sports management and with the help of hundreds of sports organizations, have summarized and summarized all the competencies of a successful sports manager and predictors of the success of a sports organization and can be found below:

- Organization of a sports organization in accordance with the environment in which it operates, determination of structure, roles and competences in the organization, and use of information technologies and change management.
- Strategic management of a sports organization, which includes the creation of preconditions for the start and preparation of strategic planning processes, diagnostics, development, and implementation of plans that achieve strategic goals, and assessment of the effectiveness of the strategy.
- Human resources management, development and application of the rules and regulations underpinning sound human resources management, development and application of human resources strategies, identification of key principles and activities for attracting, recruiting, and motivating human resources, applying development policy through training programs, developing skills for human resources management.
- Management of finances as an integral part of the management system, fiscal responsibility, preparation of a financial plan in line with the strategy, preparation of project budgets, determination of financial procedures, supervision, and evaluation of the performance of the financial plan, and accurate, complete, and transparent financial reporting.
- Marketing management by analysing its services in relation to the needs of interest holders, improving the quality of services in relation to the expectations of interest holders, efficiently managing communication, analysing what is needed for a marketing performance, and accessing marketing in accordance with the adopted strategy.
- Organizing major sports events from decision-making on the organization, through the identification of the main stages in the organization of the event and performance tasks, the development of appropriate legal and operational frameworks of the event, identification of the necessary human resources and sports infrastructure, to the preparation of schedules, monitoring and evaluation of the resources used.

Numerous components such as physical and psychological readiness of athletes, technical and tactical components (Vojinović et al., 2008) act on the achievement of goals and reaching

success in sports, but directly and indirectly some external factors such as people with whom the athlete is in contact. The coach represents an important person in the life of an athlete because his task involves taking care of the technical, tactical, and conditioning requirements of the sport. Overcoming such demands of sports brings initial results and success, but with the passage of time, sports performance is increasingly determined by the relationship between coach and athlete that is gradually formed (Čerenšek, 2017). The coach can be defined as the person who leads the training, that is, who is engaged in training, which implies the preparation, teaching, training of the athlete, but he is also the person who raises the athlete and is his sports teacher (Dolenec and Zvonarek, 1999). So, in addition to leading and shaping training, the coach takes on other jobs and roles (Miljković, 2009), and undoubtedly a key component in the development of athletes as a person (Barić and Bucik, 2009). Also, coaches differ from each other according to their personality traits, competencies, qualifications, communication abilities, motivational structure, leadership behaviours, age, experience, level of education and management style, which determines what kind of relationship they will build with the athlete and what approach they will have in their work. Cushion (2007) describes the concept of coaching as a complex social process that is constructed and maintained by mutual interpersonal relationships, and such a process is limited by context. Therefore, cooperation between coaches and athletes is necessary for the athlete to act according to the set goal and to achieve the initial goals (Čerenšek, 2017).

Vella and associates (2010) state that there are three crucial factors that determine coach behaviours: socio-cultural context, organizational climate, and personal features of coaches. The influence of these factors is moderated by the expectations, beliefs, values, and goals that the coach has. The behaviours of the coach will affect the perception of the athlete about his coach, which is related to the performance and behaviours of the athletes themselves (Vella et al., 2010).

According to Miljkovic (2009, p.93), the style of coaching is "the way the coach behaves in relation to the athletes he trains." The style applied by the coach therefore depends on the coach's interaction with the athletes and on his decision-making process (Barić and Bucik, 2009). The traditional division of training styles distinguishes 3 types: autocratic, democratic and *laissez faire*. Unlike the autocratic style of coaching that excludes an athlete from the decision-making process, a coach dominated by a democratic style of (authoritative) coaching, pays attention to the needs and capabilities of athletes, encourages suggestions, and decides on the basis of them but maintains the structure. *Laissez faire* style is characterized by a vague

structure and undefined goals with extraordinarily little or no requirement from athletes (Miljković, 2009). Kašnar (2016) showed in his research that athletes are more eager for a democratic and instructional coach who gives more positive feedback in training and provides more social support. A large number of athletes in the student population in Croatia have an autocratic coach who lacks such behavioural patterns (Kašnar, 2016). Similarly, Price and Weiss (2000) showed that athletes had more positive and less negative psychological consequences if coaches had a more democratic and less autocratic leadership style and saw training and instruction as better, receiving more social support and positive feedback. The coach's leadership style has a large effect on the psychological, emotional, and physical effects of playing sports, and such a supportive environment is positively associated with the well-being of athletes (Reinboth et al., 2004).

The concept of leadership in sports is overly complex, therefore, a number of theories have developed that seek to explain this concept through the characteristics of leaders, their behaviours or talk about situational-specific forms of leadership. One of the most widespread models of leadership in sports is a multidimensional leadership model, which specifies that the effectiveness of the conduct of the leader (i.e., the coach) depends on his coincidence with the preferences of team members and some situational characteristics (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1980). According to this model, there are 5 dimensions of coach behaviour that imply: coaching and instruction, democratic behaviour, autocratic behaviour, social support, and positive feedback. Coaches who primarily use behaviours dominated by coaching and instruction, strive to improve the performance, technique, and skill of athletes. Democratic and autocratic behaviour in the context of this model encompasses all behaviours that are described in traditional styles of coaching, and with social support the coach focuses on forming relationships of trust with athletes while expressing concern for their well-being. With positive feedback, the coach gives recognition and praise for the successful performance of the athlete. The leadership behaviours of coaches are of particular importance during the long-standing cooperation between coaches and athletes in which they are in constant interaction and maintain a relationship (Sarı and Bayazit, 2017). Research suggests that coaches who are more encouraging, supportive and provide a greater level of autonomy in athletes are more probable to encourage positive psychological reactions in athletes which will also act on better performance (Roxas and Ridinger, 2016).

On the other hand, to look at the wider range of the coach's behaviours, it is also indispensable to consider the wider sports context in which the boundaries of acceptable behaviour are often

pushed, and violent behaviour is tolerated. In the attitude of athletes towards the coach, referees or organization, the rules are clearly set, and the excessive expression of aggression and violent behaviour is sanctioned, but such behaviours are not regulated at the level of action of the coach towards the athletes or among the athletes themselves.

In addition, the lack of positive coaching behaviours does not necessarily indicate the existence of negative ones. Raakman and associates (2010) classify negative behaviours of coaches, i.e., misdemeanours, into two categories: indirect and direct behaviours, thus showing that the environment can act abusively on an athlete without direct contact. Furthermore, Greblo Jurakić and Keresteš (2017) cite emotional abuse as one of the forms of abuse in sports, and this form of abuse includes humiliation, threats, insults, ignorance, rejection and more. Emotional abuse represents a potentially harmful pattern of non-contact behaviour within a critical relationship, that is, a relationship that has a strong effect on feelings of trust, security, and satisfaction of needs (Stirling and Kerr, 2013). Roxas and Ridinger (2016) show how negative behaviours such as shouting, intimidation, which promote negative relationships between coaches and athletes, are positively associated with sports anxiety. Stirling and Kerr (2013) conducted a qualitative study in which elite athletes were shown to go through experiences of emotionally violent behaviour by coaches. Another form of abuse is physically manifested by punishing additional elements of training, corporal punishment, insisting on continuing training regardless of the injury. In sports, in addition to emotional and physical abuse, we can encounter some specific forms of abuse that seek to get the best results possible and achieve the goals set. Such forms include encouraging unhealthy forms of nutrition or persuading them to use substances to improve performance and/or endurance (Greblo Jurakić and Keresteš, 2017). Research by Laure and Associates (2001) found that professional coaches are not effective at preventing doping. Undesirable coaching behaviours are associated with reduced satisfaction in sports and more frequent burnout and abandonment in sports (Sullivan et al., 2012).

Taking all of the above into account, athletes can suffer a number of negative, but also positive consequences as a result of interacting with the coach. The coach's behaviours will also directly affect the evaluation of athletes about these behaviours and the performance of the entire team (Sullivan et al., 2012).

3.3 Athletic Leadership

Long considered the foundation of team leadership in sports are head coaches. However, to improve team success and functioning, athletes are able to and should assume leadership roles. (Duguay et al., 2016). Whether these roles are explicitly or informally recognised, athletes believe that more than 85% of their fellow players should display some sort of leadership behaviour (Duguay et al., 2016). Increased athletic leadership in a sports team has been shown to boost the team's motivation, communication, cohesion, role clarity, satisfaction, and success, according to studies.

Duguay et al. (2016) "An athlete in a formal or informal leadership role within a team who motivates a group of team members to achieve a common objective," was how he defined athlete leadership. Usually, the coach or the team decides who will play the formal leadership responsibilities. On the other hand, unofficial leaders emerge via interactions and connections with other team members (Duguay et al., 2016).

Athlete leaders assume different functions within a team (Fransen et al., 2015):

- Task-oriented leaders: Make judgments and offer strategic counsel to the team in order to help them achieve their goals (players who can spot a crucial opportunity in a game situation and motivate their colleagues to carry out the strategy);
- Motivated leaders: Encourage their teammates to give it all they've got throughout practices and games, and to be totally engaged (for example, an athlete who is the first to acknowledge or commend the accomplishments and development of his teammates);
- Social Leaders: Encourage team members to interact, grow their relationships, and resolve disputes outside of practices and games (for example, a sportsperson who fosters camaraderie among teammates and has positive relationships with each one); and
- External Leaders: Take the initiative when communicating with outside parties like the management, sponsors, and the media (for example, teammates encouraged by others to collaborate with trainers and officials).

Because athletes undertake a range of tasks, many team members can take on a leadership role in one way or another (Fransen et al., 2015). Additionally, the leadership load would be distributed more evenly as more athletes took on leadership roles, whether they were task-oriented, motivating, social, or outdoor-related, and the team would benefit more and more. In

particular, increasing the number of athletes in leadership roles fosters social cohesiveness and increases feelings of belonging and trust. These enhancements work together to enhance the team's performance and overall success. Therefore, it is imperative that the team's management and coaches work to create a culture of various leaders inside the group. Encouraging a shared leadership arrangement within the team is crucial for the success of the team (Leo et al., 2019).

Exploring the many ways athletes can perform leadership functions in a team, Leo et al. (2019) defined a “split leadership” foundation which features several leaders in a team. This structure helps distribute leadership functions among team members based on their characteristics and alignment with leadership roles. In developing a shared leadership structure, it is proposed that having three task-oriented leaders, two social-oriented leaders, two external-oriented leaders, and multiple motivations sources was optimal for boosting team effectiveness (Leo et al., 2019).

Nominating multiple athletes to leadership perform functions allows other athletes to benefit from a broader spectrum of experience, understanding and skill to connect with, and to make more objective and educated choices. Multiple people being appointed to leadership positions fosters player collaboration on tasks and social relationships. This is because athletes is a larger chance of building bonds with their leading reps, creating a beneficial feedback loop that enhances team performance (Leo et al., 2019).

Following this study, coaches might use the following suggestions to create a common leadership model.:

- Be mindful of the numerous leadership roles that athletes can play within a team and the duties they entail (task-oriented leaders, social elements, external factors, motivation);
- Pay attention to leadership-development activities for a larger number of athletes, such as team-wide sport leadership seminars, in order to promote many leaders within a team. (Duguay et al., 2016);
- Set up a shared framework for leadership, with specified leaders focused on tasks, social elements, external factors, motivation (Leo et al., 2019);
- Provide decision-making opportunities for athletes, such as asking athletes to suggest drills and exercises or to schedule team gatherings (Gould & Voelker, 2010).

Certainly, coaches serve a larger leadership function in the team themselves and serve as role models and mentors for their players. But coaches should encourage their players to take on leadership roles as well. Many coaches made the error of not providing their captains or team leaders enough chances to use athlete leadership while examining coaching best practices, which led to missed possibilities for success (Gould and Voelker, 2010).

4. LEADERSHIP ROLE OF CAPTAIN IN PROFESSIONAL SPORT

In a sports context, the formal roles are determined by the technical management of the team and held by the athletes. They also stem from the internal logic of the activity, i.e., from the system of constraints specific to a sports discipline which affects the motor behaviour of practitioners (Parlebas, 1986). For example, the offensive roles differ between rugby and handball because the regulatory constraints are not identical. Finally, the formal roles result from the leaders (captain, coach, etc.) and the representations they have of the activity they direct and supervise (Eys, Carron, Beauchamp, & Bray, 2005). Thus, the coach can offer a player a well-defined offensive role which will result from his vision of the team's offensive system. The study of formal roles is often favoured in the literature because an implicit postulate supports a positive relationship between these roles and performance.

Informal roles arise from interactions between members and are not influenced by people outside the collective (e.g., coach, member of a team's technical staff). Within small groups, Forsyth, Zyzniewski and Giammanco (2002) have identified the roles of police officer, prankster, critic, harmonizer, follower, observer, communicator... On the informal level, a leader can emerge without the latter necessarily being the captain of the team or the central person in the collective game systems. However, the literature remains not very prolific on this dimension of the role because it is not considered to be related to performance (Beauchamp *et al.*, 2002).

To this first categorization based on the genesis of the roles can be combined a second categorization centred on the orientation of the roles. The latter is based on the work of Bales and Slater (Bales, 1958; Slater, 1955) on the functioning of discussion groups bringing together members of the same status (peer groups). During their studies, the authors observed the emergence of two distinct categories of roles, some task-oriented, others social-emotional support. Operational roles bring together behaviours centred on the production and achievement of group objectives. Social roles favour behaviours centred on support, harmony in interpersonal relationships and integration within the group. If originally this categorization is part of a bottom-up perspective, it is nevertheless applicable to the prescribed roles. The two categorizations presented above can therefore intersect to describe the roles fulfilled by

individuals within groups (i.e., formal, and operational, formal, and socio-emotional, informal, and operational, informal, and socio-emotional).

Associated with the definitions of the role, with the conceptions of its genesis and its orientation, the psychosociologists have developed different concepts to describe the commitment, the involvement of individuals in their roles (Eys, Beauchamp, & Bray, 2006). Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) proposed to organize these concepts by distinguishing three aspects of the roles: behavioural, affective, and cognitive. For example, role performance characterizes the behavioural side of the role, role satisfaction its affective side, and role clarity (or ambiguity) its cognitive side. While the purpose of this article is to examine role ambiguity, in the following sections we define the different constructs associated with role to highlight the scope of this concept and the place of role ambiguity in this domain of study.

Role performance refers to the behavioural side of the role (Carron, Hausenblas, & Eys, 2005). It corresponds to the degree of congruence between the behaviours expressed by an individual and the behavioural expectations relating to the role he occupies. In sport, coaches assess the role performance of players. Role satisfaction refers to the affective aspect of the role, that is, to the emotions (e.g., pleasure, joy, pride, shame) felt by individuals vis-à-vis their role (Carron *et al.*, 2005). Rail (1987) described four determinants of the satisfaction experienced by coaches and sports leaders for the role they occupy. This satisfaction increased when their roles (a) offered them the opportunity to use specialized skills or competencies, (b) allowed them to receive feedback or recognition, (c) seemed important to them, and (d) gave them autonomy.

Role effectiveness, like the other concepts defined below, is situated on the cognitive side of the role, and designates individuals' beliefs about their ability to perform specific functions in relation to others. It was recently proposed by Beauchamp *et al.* (2002) and Bray, Brawley, and Carron (2002) as an intermediate construct between self-efficacy and collective efficacy (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Suggesting a hierarchical conception of efficiency, these authors distinguish between personal efficiency, centred on the performance of an individual task independently of others, and role efficiency, centred on the performance of an individual task in relation to others. and collective efficiency, centred on the achievement of a collective task through inter-individual coordination. According to Beauchamp *et al.* (2002, p. 232) “role

effectiveness refers to a particular form of self-efficacy related to a team member's confidence in their abilities to perform the functions of an interdependent role. »

Role conflict occurs when an individual, although interested in the goal associated with his role, does not have sufficient skills, motivation, time, or does not have a satisfactory understanding of his role to achieve this goal. goal (Carron *et al.*, 2005). Kahn *et al.* (1964) identified four types of role conflict all related to the exertion of pressure by one or more individuals on another person.

In Intra-sender conflict, the individual perceives inconsistencies in the expectations of a third person regarding the role they are asking him to play (e.g., a coach may ask a player to play in a more aggressive, but not to make mistakes). In Inter-sender conflict, the individual perceives inconsistencies in the expectations of two or more partners regarding the role he must fulfil (e.g., in rugby, a teammate may ask to play closer to the opposing defence while another teammate asks to take more depth). Furthermore, in Personal role conflict, the individual disagrees with the role that a person wishes to assign to him because this role involves producing behaviours contrary to the values of the individual (e.g., a coach asks a teammate to play hard against an opponent while this team member adheres to the values of fair play). Finally, in Inter-role conflict, the individual perceives discrepancies between the expectations and requirements related to the distinct roles that he fulfils (e.g., pursuing a high-level sports career and raising a child).

Insufficient comprehension of the expectations and duties connected with a particular position is referred to as role ambiguity (Kahn *et al.*, 1964). This concept is used in the psychosociological literature to study individuals' perceptions of the clarity of the roles they occupy in human organizations (low ambiguity corresponds to prominent role clarity). While the concepts described above are considered in a dichotomous or bipolar way, the ambiguity is apprehended through a multidimensional conception.

Role acceptance was recently defined by Eys *et al.* (2006) as the degree of similarity between an athlete's expectations of the responsibilities he would like to assume within the framework of his role and the expectations of responsibilities he perceives in the coach who assigns him the role. This concept has long been confused with role satisfaction conceptually and methodologically. However, Eys *et al.* (2006) proposed to dissociate them because if acceptance requires a process of comparison between two groups of expectations, satisfaction

results from a comparison between what the role brings to the athlete and what he expects. to withdraw from it.

There is no universality in the characteristics of the captain. A coach may prefer a person with a strong character who will guide his teammates in the engagement and the fight on the field or even a player appreciated for his calm who will be able to control the nerves of his teammates. Generally, the captain must be a sportingly recognized player with a guaranteed starting place. If he is not by definition the best player on the team, the technical value of a captain allows him to have a certain authority within the locker room so that he is listened to by his teammates on and off the field. But the quality of the player on the pitch is not enough to make him a good captain. He must also set an example in terms of behaviour and represent a state of mind in line with the values of sport: sportsmanship, modesty, friendliness. Although the captain's ability to bring his team to satisfactory results is often analysed, one of his main missions should not be neglected: that of first interlocutor with the referee. On this question, it is interesting to consider the notable differences between the different team sports.

If the captain is often asked by the main referee in rugby or handball to send messages to the whole team (such as prevention for repeated faults, for example), this is much rarer in football or basketball. In the latter sport, the captain is also very often ignored by the public since there is no draw at the start of the match or recognizable armband. In fact, it is simply unthinkable to see a rugby player other than the captain contesting an arbitration decision, which is commonplace in football. The threat of sanction is however present in both sports (yellow card in football, ten-meter setback in rugby). Whether in handball or rugby, the recognition of the captain as having the right to ask for explanations following an arbitration decision allows a peaceful dialogue between the various players in the sport.

The introduction of video refereeing in football is not trivial. While many decisions still suffer from controversy, it comes in support of the referees who too often felt called into question by the players and by the media which broadcast replays continuously to analyse the slightest error in the judgment of the refereeing body. It seems that rehabilitating the captain's role, beyond being a guide for his teammates, in sports such as football or basketball could improve communication between players in the game. This would also contribute to the passion of the spectators who can sometimes be overwhelmed by the disputes of the players.

4.1 Roles and Responsibilities of a Captain in Professional Sport

The role of the captain can be different depending on the coaches. They don't always want the same things, before, during or after games. So, captains first must adapt to the coach's demands, to what he specifically expects of them. Some coaches allow great freedom to their captain, especially on the tactical level. Others, much less, prefer to lock their game system without anyone being able to intervene. A member of the team is given the title of captain in team sports. The position is often honorary, however in some circumstances the captain may be heavily involved in strategy and collaboration. Either way, it's a role that indicates honour and respect from teammates – recognition as a leader by other team members. In football and cricket, a captain is sometimes called a skipper.

Team captain duties and responsibilities vary depending on the sport. Also, depending on the sport, team leaders may be asked to speak with referees on how the rules should be applied and interpreted. When the match official tosses the coin at the beginning of the game, the captains of each team represent their respective teams.

In various sports, the coach selects the team captain. The coach may take into consideration qualities such as playing skill, leadership, and setting a good moral example for the squad. Additionally, coaches may decide to rotate team captains or alter them periodically.

Some of the greatest captains in history are those with the finer traits required to succeed. Sam Walker states defines the captain as "the single most crucial factor in the success of a team" in his book *The Captain Class*.

The duties of a captain vary depending on the sport, but in general, they influence the outcome of the match. In team sports like cricket or volleyball, the captains must decide whether both sides will be on defence or in attack after a tie. The captain will decide when the game begins and how it will go, thus this choice is crucial.

A captain is also the person a referee goes to first when they need to explain the outcome of a game or call a foul or raise a flag. Frequently, a referee won't speak with any player other than a captain or coach about these matters. This is significant because the captain's response could influence how the referee deals with the situation. When dealing with a referee, the captain must maintain composure in order to guarantee the game's outcomes are as precise as possible.

4.2 Influence of Captain's Leadership on Team Behaviour and Performance

Cotterill and Cheetham's (2017) study on the captaincy experience in professional sport uses the professional rugby as an example. They studied effective leadership and the role of athletic leadership in performance. Their participants were a homogenous sample that was selected on purpose; based on their experience as rugby captains. They analysed nine super-ordinate themes: role, skills, requirements, challenges the coach, development, experience, context, and approach.

Table 5: Highlighted themes

	On pitch DM	Motivator	Problem solver
ROLE	Player representative	Media liaison	Mentor- younger players
	Player/coach buffer	Embody team culture	Off-pitch responsibilities
	Challenge coach	Feedback on performance	
SKILLS	Man management	Relationship builder	Enhancing confidence
	Tactical understanding	Conflict resolution	Communication
REQUIREMENTS	Player respect	Support from coaches	Leadership group
	Good support structure	Informal leader support	
CHALLENGES	International player	The media	Coping with media attention
	Lack of initial support	The coach	The ethnic mix
	Young/academy players	Changing relationships	Transition in captaincy

THE COACH	Coach-captain relationship	Coach ethos	Disciplining players
DEVELOPMENT	Experiences being captained	Peer discussions	Reading books
EXPERIENCE	Don't just speak for the sake of it	Learn by trial and error	Lack of emotional support
	Don't initiate	Hindsight is wonderful	Always learning
CONTEXT	Captaincy aspirations	Team composition	Time appointed
	Prior experience	Selection as captain	
APPROACH	Convict to decisions	Led by example	Be true to yourself
	Build on personality	Always evolving	Treat people equally
	Modelled on experience		

Source: Cotterill and Cheetham (2017)

The first superordinate theme was concerned with the specific role of the captain in the context of elite professional rugby. On-pitch decision-maker, motivator, problem-solver, player representative, media liaison, mentor to young players, player-coach buffer, embodiment of the team's culture, to challenge the coach, provide feedback on performance, and several off-pitch responsibilities emerged. It was stressed how important it was to set an example. Several leadership areas have previously highlighted this capacity to "walk the walk" and "talk the talk" as an important leadership trait.

Participants in the current study identified six crucial traits that rugby leaders at this level consistently demonstrated. Among these were player management, relationship development, tactical comprehension, dispute resolution, communication, and confidence-building. Effective interpersonal and communication skills have also previously been emphasized as being essential for captains and unofficial athlete leaders. All the participants listed a number of necessary elements that had to be met in order for them to do their jobs well. These included the existence of a leadership group for certain players, coach support, player respect, strong support systems, and solid support structures.

This study highlighted a wide variety of challenges that the captain must face. The ethnic diversity of the team, their transition into leadership, evolving relations over time, working with international athletes, the coach, enduring severe media scrutiny, receiving little early support, working with international players were some of them. The importance of media scrutiny was repeatedly emphasized at this elite level. The media is especially interesting since, although being a component of the game, it shouldn't have a substantial influence on the field. A professional athlete's interaction with the media and media training are becoming more and more anticipated.

All the participants highlighted the influence that captains they had played for had on their vision of captaincy. Participants were forced to take their own development into their own hands in the absence of any "formal" development opportunities, such as discussions with their teammates or reading books on the matter. The participants expressed particular concern about the lack of development opportunities for captains. There are instances of non-professional and sub-elite leadership development programs, but nothing concerning elite leadership development. As a result, any isolated instances of good practice are rarely disseminated. To establish the best way to assist emerging captains at all levels, further study is required.

The captains interviewed for this study emphasized several "lessons learned" throughout their captaincy. You will frequently learn by trial and error; there is a shortage of development assistance; don't copy others; be true to yourself; hindsight is a great thing; and you are constantly learning were some of the repeated themes. There was also discussion about how to better disseminate this accumulated knowledge in order to "fast track" new captains into the sport. This approach is comparable to that proposed more broadly for "fast-tracking" expertise in sports decision-making.

Finally, each participant described their own style of leadership. Some of the common inspirations identified included the need to commit to decisions, set an example, be real, build on one's own personality, treat everyone equally, the fact that one's approach is always evolving, and the fact that the approach was founded on their own personal experience. The fact that you had never "made it," but were continually learning, was another point on which there was broad agreement among the participants. This understanding of the necessity for ongoing evolution and growth is particularly noteworthy in light of the aforementioned absence of sport-specific assistance for existing captains' professional development. This emphasizes the need for more research into strategies to support captains in developing their leadership skills in rugby and other professional sports.

5. EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ON THE INFLUENCE OF TEAM CAPTAIN'S LEADERSHIP ON TEAM BEHAVIOUR AND PERFORMANCE

There have not been many attempts to understand the underlying effects of athlete leadership in a performance-oriented setting. Most of the research has been done on coaches and their effectiveness on motivating and inspiring athletes. The effects of a coach are somewhat obvious, as the notion of the role is to facilitate players and bring out their best selves. Nonetheless, athlete leadership is not to be disregarded, as athletes themselves can also exemplify leadership qualities and as such contribute to the well-being of a team.

5.1 Research Objectives and Methodology

The main objectives of this research are centred around the position of the captain and their impact on the team performance. The study was conducted in order to understand the captains' perception of value and their impact on other team members. This includes studying the parameters of leadership as stated in chapters 2, 3 and 4 and depicting the results using collected data. The methodology used here will be quantitative primary analysis of data collected in a semi structured interview guide. The main objective is to determine what constitutes an effective captain and how is their effectiveness visible in a professional sports teams' setting. Moreover, constituting the quality leadership execution will lead to quality team results. The data will be shown statistically.

5.2 Research Findings

Athletes in high-performance sport are very competent and experienced. They aspire to compete and win consistently. This task is time-consuming and one that necessitates constant performance to maintain success in extremely competitive and advanced environments.

This study involved 6 team captains (4 male and 2 female) in Croatian high-performance sport, between the ages of 26 and 36 (for complete demographic data, see Table 6). The participants

averaged 11 years of professional playing experience (range 5-20 years) and averaged approximately 4 years of experience as team captains (range 1-6 years). They have been involved in all levels of their sport, some of them have experienced living and training abroad, as well as different team cultures around the world. It is worthy to note that some interviewees have been captains in their respective clubs but have since retired or have changed professional clubs and no longer fill the role. They have described their experience when they were in the role.

Table 6: Demographic profiles of participants

Age, years	Gender	Experience as team captain, years	Experience as a player, years	Sport
26	M	2	5	Basketball
27	F	6	11	Futsal
28	M	4	10	Water polo
34	F	6	12	Basketball
36	M	1	20	Handball
26	M	4	9	Volleyball

Source: Author

Firstly, author contacted the participants, gave them a brief explanation of the study's goals and significance, and then extended an invitation to take part in the study. Additionally, participants were made aware that all the information they supplied would be anonymous and confidential. Informed permission was obtained using this approach, which also complied with ethical standards. The participants were selected based on their involvement in professional sport and their interest in sharing their experiences.

Based on earlier studies in leadership and professional sport, the interview guide was created. Demographic questions such as age, number of years as team captain, level of experience as a player, and type of sport performed were included in the first section of the interview guide. The subsequent sections were made to investigate how the participants felt about their personal skills and team performance. The last section of the guide was done in open-ended questions, which allowed the participants more freedom in answer, and are due to interpretation in the way of coding. Such questions were used to capture lived experiences of the participants (e.g., How do you manage differences in the team?). The interviews lasted 25 minutes on average (range 15–40 min). The author conducted all the interviews in Croatian language.

The interviews were deciphered by the author, to familiarize with the data, then later read and analysed. The use of data for both analytical and illustrative purposes was deemed necessary to offer interpretations that would help readers understand the context-specific character of the data extracts and at the same time present instances pertaining to a particular set of analytical assertions. A hierarchical conceptual framework was developed using a thematic content analysis to find patterns in the material. These patterns were categorized as such and combined hierarchically into sub-themes to create themes. The author aimed to include effective information extracts and in-depth analytical descriptions and commentary in the written report that was produced during the final stage of this analytical procedure, as well as translated to English.

The results of the rating scale questions are better depicted in Tables 7,8,9. It is worthy to mention that none of the participants have rated their intra-personal skills such as confidence or humility lower than skilful, similar with self-motivation, discipline, and work ethic (see Table 7). Work ethic was the highest rated trait, in the manner that participants view the value of effort, they believe that it is crucial to work hard. On the other hand, egocentricity was rated several times as unskilful, which indicates that this trait may not be a guideline. Potentially, a true captain is supposed to be a selfless team player. This is later confirmed in the open-end questions where several participants stated that one of their main motivators while fulfilling the role of the captain is seeing their teammates grow.

Table 7: Intra-personal skills of the participants

	Highly unskilful	Unskilful	Neither skilful nor unskilful	Skilful	Highly skilful
Confidence	0	0	0	4	2
Humility	0	0	0	2	4
Self-Motivation	0	0	0	1	5
Discipline	0	0	0	1	5
Work ethic	0	0	0	0	6
Egocentricity	0	2	3	1	0

Source: Author

Similarly, while interpreting the data of inter-personal skills, they show great ability these key players have in their leadership skills (see Table 8) Almost all the participants rated their leadership ability as skilful or above. Key skill to interpret is respectfulness, with all the

participants ranking themselves as highly skilful. This pattern shows a notion that a team captain is gracious and considerate regarding his teammates. Another skill that was rated as highly skilful by all the participants is responsibility. This can be depicted as a fact of being accountable or to take blame for something. This statement is backed up by the results of the open-end questions with participants stating that being a captain is a greater responsibility in the way you behave to the coach, in the locker room or after a loss. Also, as one participant stated, responsibility is shown regarding the media and fans, were most of the blame is to be focused on the team, your role is to take that on yourself and protect the team. Patience, negotiation, and knowledge-sharing are similarly shown as fundamental virtues of a captain, as they were all very highly rated. Having the ability to dialogue between teammates to reach a desired outcome regarding one or more issues of conflict or reach consensus on issues of shared interest involves greater interaction skills, which these individuals possess.

Table 8: Inter-personal skills of the participants

	Highly unskilful	Unskilful	Neither skilful nor unskilful	Skilful	Highly skilful
Leadership	0	0	2	3	1
Motivation	0	0	0	4	2
Respectfulness	0	0	0	0	6
Open-mindedness	0	0	1	3	2
Effective communication	0	0	0	4	2
Responsibility	0	0	0	0	6
Patience	0	0	3	2	1
Negotiation	0	0	0	5	1
Knowledge-sharing	0	0	0	3	3

Source: author

Lastly, the team performance and behaviour chart which shows a high level of team identification for all participants (see Table 9) This refers to the degree to which they identify themselves in terms of their group membership. The very thing that makes this essential is people's internalized sense of a shared identity, a sense of belonging. This is for these individuals, as captains, highly displayed. Continuing, we distinguish between two types of team confidence, collective efficacy, and team outcome confidence. Collective efficacy being described as the group's common belief in its joint competence to coordinate and carry out the

courses of action necessary to generate specific levels of attainment, while team outcome confidence does not focus only on athletes' own team, but also on outperforming the opponent. Results showed a favourable relationship between participants' confidence in the team's ability to succeed and the perceived quality of captains.

Table 9: Team performance assessment of the participants

	Very low	Somewhat low	Neither high nor low	Somewhat high	Very high
Team identification	0	0	0	4	2
Team confidence					
Collective efficacy	0	0	0	4	2
Team outcome confidence	0	0	0	1	5
Team cohesion					
Task cohesion	0	0	0	2	4
Social cohesion	0	0	1	3	2

Source: Author

Similarly, the strength and extent of interpersonal ties among teammates, also known as team cohesiveness, depicts similar results of assurance. Having them divided into two categories of task and social cohesion, participants showed positive outcomes for both. This sense of brotherhood among members encourages participation and keeps them motivated to reach the final objectives, such as championships. This can be associated to their main motivation in captancy, most of the participants were keen on camaraderie and, most crucially, winning championships. This can be achieved when there is a sense that everyone is on the same page, socially cohesive, and working for the same goal, task cohesive.

Using a coding method, the open-end results were organized in themes. Similar responses were gathered and placed under the same theme or sub-theme. These themes were assessed on the answers from questions about becoming a captain, learning, approach to leadership, performance, and challenges. Participants have shown multiple traits of different sub-themes, that is why they qualify for more than one sub-theme. The results have shown three main themes and six sub-themes.

Performance leaders are considered some of the best players in their respective game. In practice and game situations, they take control of your squad to keep everyone focused and on task. These participants stated that they offer resolute vocal leadership required for the squad

to perform at its best both during practices and unquestionably on game day as competition captains. In addition to ensuring that their teammates play with a high level of energy and accountability, they set the tone for the team with their own strong example and work ethic. The team's most dedicated and competitive athletes are usually performance leaders, as it is seen from the results of the research. They boost everyone else's level of play since they frequently have a certain edge about them. They are very motivated to use their team to achieve something extraordinary and are serious about their accomplishment.

The development and preservation of the team's chemistry is the responsibility of social leaders. These participants have frequently said that they focus on the relationships and level of camaraderie within their team. They typically plan different social occasions to assist individuals get to know one another better, especially outside of the sport, and actively seek out opportunities to interact with teammates.

Status leaders oversee their team's culture. These participants stated that culture is crucially created, supported, and maintained by being a locker room leader. Status leaders shape, manage, and uphold their team's culture into one that is favourable and fruitful for their team through their words and deeds on a regular basis. As culture captains, they set the rules for what is appropriate and inappropriate behaviour in the team on and off the sports playground.

Table 10: Identified themes and subthemes

Theme	Sub-theme
Performance leader (Competition Captain)	Veteran status
Social leader (Chemistry Captains)	Best player
Status leader (Culture Captains)	Positional play
	Meaningful coaches
	Former team captains
	Locker room leader
	Athlete success

Source: Author

Firstly, we analysed questions about becoming a captain. These were categorized in 3 sub-themes:

Veteran status (n=4). Four participants of the study said that they have achieved their captain status due to being a more senior member of the squad. In terms of team behaviour, it was also mentioned that they have been at the club for the last few years, which is beneficial. One

participant stated that he went through all the ranks of academy play with the club, which helped develop his status with the ownership and coaches. Through this, they are familiar with him and show full trust in his capabilities as team captain. Participants describe veteran status as being somewhat normal, as when you grow up, you look up to your elders and place them as role models and superiors. Also, one participant stated that player is more likely to respect such a captain and will find it easier to approach other teammates and give advice due to your experience. In terms of team performance, participants stated that having this veteran status allows them to have open communication on setting specific goals for each team member and assign duties within those goals. One participant stated that their role is like a second coach when the coach cannot reach players and asks them to step in to resolve team problems.

Best player (n=3). Similarly, three participants have mentioned that due to their higher technical ability and game knowledge, they have been selected to captain the squad. This is also very common, as often the best player on the squad is chosen to be the leader. Meaning, a captain should be someone who stands out in the team, has a higher technical prowess. Participants have mentioned that often players judge you by your ability on the playing field. Being more able than other teammates, will more likely make them respect that individual and will find motivation in that, which impacts team behaviour positively. Additionally, a high ability captain would be less likely to lose his place in the starting squad, which will dictate team performance overall.

Positional play (n=2). Although, not as frequently as other traits, two participants have pointed to their position on the playing field is key to their captain status. This may be sports specific, but it is worthy to mention that, for example, a goalkeeper in football may not have the same ability to communicate with teammates as a midfielder. This statement was backed up by one of the participants. They have stated that, in a game scenario, they will act like an extension of the coach on the field. This means transferring ideas or communication with other players, in a manner that emulates the coach. Positional play places the captain as one who leads the effort of the team and conveys the tactical elements required by the coach, to the extent of team performance. Although, positions can have some impact on captain choice, if the decision or selection is made by the team manager, other variables off the field now have a bigger impact, as one participant concluded.

Secondly, participants were questioned about their first steps in the realm of leadership and captaincy, with also refereeing to their leadership style and how they have achieved it. The learning aspect of captaincy was then divided into two sub-themes.

Meaningful coaches (n=4). All most all participants have mentioned a deeply rooted connection with their meaningful coach in professional sport. Having an important role on young players, coaches are there to steer and mould young professionals for what the future holds. One participant stated the one does never forget your first coach and the way they approached you. That is the reason why they try to emulate this same impact on other teammates and use the knowledge they have received from this crucial figure in their professional career.

Former team captains (n=2). Two participants have shown great admiration for their prior captains, especially in younger years. One participant stated that upon entry to professional sport, the first captain took them under their wing, and offered council and advice. Other participant stated that without their first captain, they would probably not end up having the career they had, as the captain was the one who demanded a higher level of commitment and was always bringing out the maximum effort from them.

Continuing this thesis, participants were challenged on their approach to leadership, their relationship with teammates, what they think were most important characteristics for their role and their motivation. These were divided into two sub-themes.

Locker room leaders (n=5). These participants have stated that take joy in the culture of their teams and go above and beyond to strengthen, defend, and maintain it. Two participants have made a remark that they will intervene to correct any behaviour that is deemed inappropriate if it is noticed. They proactively challenge anyone acting inconsistently with the mission, standards, and values of the team. These types of captains frequently contribute more to the success of their team via their leadership than they do through their unique athletic aptitude, as one participant mentioned. Multiple participants mentioned that after a frustrating defeat the team is typically crowded with unhappy individuals, but their job is to speak up, be outspoken, and keep the team motivated and productive during these moments more than any other.

Athlete success (n=3). Participants in this study thought about their role as leaders in a broader sense than only supporting improved game performance. Several participants have made a statement that they find great joy in seeing their teammates develop and succeed due to their inputs. The participants mentioned that they sincerely care about others' success and that this is invaluable to an athlete's success and the success of those around them. They mention they are prouder of their teammate's accomplishments than their own sometimes. It is mentioned that

the trust, respect, and support they experience will enable their teammates to forge lifelong connections that transcend the playing field.

5.3 Research Limitations and Future Studies

It is important to recognize the limitations of the current research. First off, these results come from a high-performance sport context that shouldn't be compared to other contexts like recreational or junior sport. Since only Croatian high-performance athletes were included in the study, the findings may possibly be culturally unique. These environmental characteristics could differ culturally from those of other sport environments or structures. The study presented builds on earlier studies by showing that athlete leaders as captains have a distinctive effect on team cohesion, confidence, and performance. Additionally, the sample data of athletes participating in professional sports at high levels allowed for a generalization of findings across performance level and sport. Despite these benefits, the research design has some inherent constraints. The sample size taken is too scarce to make a conventional conclusion. Additionally, the study only included a small sample of team captains from team sports. Due to the position of a captain being very rare, this leads to a limited pool of participants to choose from. Also, these individuals are hard to reach and often have considerably less time to have discussions of longer duration. Continuing, this research was performed during the offseason, which makes the participants interviewed reflect on the past seasons. Possibly having this research during the season, would make some answers more relevant and current. Players switch teams, and often when this happens, they no longer fulfil the role of a captain. Two participants of the study have experienced this, but they have reflected on the times they were in the captain role. Finally, the study was done in a semi structured interview guide. Additional research about the sample can be made to perfect the guide and a larger sample size should be taken into consideration.

6. CONCLUSION

Sports team performance has been found to be significantly influenced by leadership. Within these teams, formal Athlete Leaders such as coaches, team captains, and other "unofficial" Athlete Leaders may provide leadership. It has been widely documented during the past ten years that an athlete's role as a team leader, whether formal or informal, has a substantial impact on how effectively the team works and how well each teammate feels physically and mentally. As a result, managers, coaches, sports psychologists, and researchers now place a high priority on fostering that leadership within a team. Although the importance of athlete leadership is well recognized, the development of systematic approaches to improve and develop athlete leadership qualities and skills in sports teams has lagged.

Given the importance of a team captain on a sports team, this role should be discreetly awarded to a person with strong social skills, self-motivation, and ability to inspire others. Additionally, decision-makers should avoid selecting team leaders based merely on a player's primary position or level of athletic ability. What's more, at this high level of competitiveness, there still appears to be a lack of organized support for captains in terms of selection, rotation, and continuous assistance. It supports the idea that captains are not successfully supported to be the athlete leaders their teams need, especially given the lack of clarity on the talents necessary to fulfil that job.

Research done by this study has provided an insight into captaincy. Findings suggest that there are several types of captains with numerous traits. These are performance leaders, social leaders, and status leaders. All of them, in their own way, have a significant impact on team behaviour and team performance. Further research is needed to subsequently clarify the role of captains, the skills required, the selection process and, most importantly, how to support the development of current and future captains in the sport. The future of competitive sports will focus more on the importance of good leadership, as it is shown to be a key factor in sports team function and performance.

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BIOGRAPHY

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Education

October 2020 - present

University of Zagreb, Faculty of Economics and Business
Master Degree in Management

October 2015 – September 2020

University of Zagreb, Faculty of Economics and Business
Bachelor Degree in Business

September 2010 – June 2015

VII Grammar School, Zagreb
High School Education

Work experience

October 2015 - present

Logistics Manager
Diva Prijevoz d.o.o., Zagreb

September 2019 – September 2021

Student Assistant
University of Zagreb, Faculty of Economics and Business,
Department of Organisation and Management

Volunteering

October 2017 – September 2020

Croatian Student Organisation
Head of Human Resources team

Language skills

Croatian

Native proficiency

English

Proficient user (C1)

German

Independent user (B1)

Appendix – Interview guide

1. DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

1	Gender	
2	Age	
3	Sport played	
4	Years of playing experience	
5	Years of experience as a captain	

2. RATING SCALE QUESTIONS – characteristics of the captain (Yourself)

Intra-personal skills (unskilful - highly skilful):

	Highly unskilful	Unskilful	Neither skilful nor unskilful	Skilful	Highly skilful
Confidence					
Humility					
Self-Motivation					
Discipline					
Work ethic					
Egocentricity					

Inter-personal skills (unskilful - highly skilful):

	Highly unskilful	Unskilful	Neither skilful nor unskilful	Skilful	Highly skilful
Leadership					
Motivation					
Respect					
Open-mindedness					
Effective communication					

Responsibility					
Patience					
Negotiation					
Knowledge-sharing					

Team performance / behaviour (low – high):

	Very low	Somewhat low	Neither high nor low	Somewhat high	Very high
Team identification					
Team confidence					
Collective efficacy					
Team outcome confidence					
Team cohesion					
Task cohesion					
Social cohesion					

3. OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

1. *Becoming a captain*

- a) Why do you think you were chosen to be team captain?
- b) What does it mean to you?

2. *Learning*

- a) What or who has helped you the most to become a leader?

3. *Approach to leadership*

- a) Describe your role as the team captain.
- b) Describe your relationship with the team players.
- c) How would you define your leadership style? How do you display it?
- d) What are in your opinion the most important characteristics of the captain?
- e) How do you motivate your team?

4. *Performance*

- a) What motivates you to be the team leader?
- b) How do you measure success for yourself personally as a leader?

5. *Challenges*

- a) How do you manage differences in the team?
- b) Describe one conflict in the team and how did you resolve it?
- c) Would you like to improve anything about yourself as a captain?