The ability to lead, inspire and motivate people is an important human characteristic. Indeed, it has been suggested that leadership is vital for effective organizational and societal functioning (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004), with great or poor organizational, military, or sport performances frequently credited to great leadership or lack thereof. Therefore, it is not surprising that leadership has become one of the most studied topics within the social sciences (Antonakis et al., 2004). Leadership has been studied from a number of different perspectives (e.g., trait, behavioural, contingency, relational, skeptic, information-processing based approaches) which has resulted in a large number of different theories and models of leadership. Indeed, as long ago as 1971, Fiedler (1971) stated that, "there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are theories of leadership - and there almost as many theories of leadership as there are psychologists working in the field" (p. 1).

Since the pioneering work of the influential Ohio State and Michigan research programs in the 1950s the behavioral approach has dominated the leadership research. These programs of research categorized leader behaviors into the broad categories of *consideration* and *initiating* structure (e.g., Stogdill & Coons, 1957), or *task-orientated*, *relations-orientated,* and *participative leadership* (e.g., Katz, Maccoby, Gurin, & Floor, 1951). Following the Ohio State and Michigan research programs, the interest in identifying and categorizing effective leader behaviors burgeoned, with many different theories and behaviors being identified. In line with the extant literature, the current chapter adopts primarily a behavioral approach to leadership. Whilst there have been many theories of leadership within organizational psychology, relatively little theoretical work has been directed specifically at sport organization leadership. The nature of elite sport organizations tend to differ from the typical non-sport organizations in several ways (for an elaboration of this please see chapter 1 of

this book). Therefore, it is important to consider the unique facets of sport organizations when developing theories and models of leadership for use in such domains. It follows that the identification of leader behaviors that facilitate effective functioning across the sport organization is important. Indeed, Fletcher and Arnold, (2011) in their research on performance directors stated:

> Future researchers should go beyond global models of leadership and the identification of perceived roles of leaders, and examine (a) differentiated models of leadership in elite sport, and (b) what leaders do in terms of their behaviors and communication in specific contexts and situations (p. 237).

Hence, there is a need to focus on what leaders *do* at different levels of sport organizations.

The leadership research that has been conducted from a sport psychology perspective has tended to focus on the dyadic process between the coach and the athlete, or the coach and their teams. This line of research typically tries to identify coach behaviors or styles that impact athlete outcomes and has been underpinned by a number of different perspectives, for example, autonomy supportive or controlling coach behaviors (e.g., Pelletier, Fortier, Vallerand, & Briere, 2001), coach-created motivational climate (e.g., Newton, Duda, & Yin, 2000), transformational leadership perspectives(e.g., Arthur, Woodman, Ong, Hardy, & Ntoumanis, 2011), multidimensional leadership perspective (e.g., Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995), the mediational model perspective (e.g., Smoll & Smith, 1984), and the relationship between the coach and the athlete (e.g., Jowett, 2009). This research has demonstrated that different coach behaviors impact a wide range of athlete variables including, organizational citizen behaviors (Aoyagi, Cox, & McGguire, 2008), group cohesion (Callow, Smith, Hardy, Arthur, & Hardy, 2009; Cronin, Arthur, Hardy, & Callow,

2015; Smith, Arthur, Hardy, Callow, & Williams, 2012), intrinsic motivation (Hollembeak & Amorose, 2005), fun and self-esteem (Smoll, Smith, Barnett, & Everett, 1993), motivational climate (Smith et al., 2005), extra effort, satisfaction with coach and attendance (Rowold, 2006), athlete self-talk (Zourbanos et al., 2011), satisfaction (Baker, Yardley, & Cote, 2003), anxiety (Williams et al., 2003), win loss record (Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986), self-ratings of performance (Horne & Carron, 1985), coping (Nicolas, Gaudreau, & Franche, 2011), goal attainment (Nicolas et al., 2011), communication (Smith et al., 2012), and athlete sacrifice (Cronin et al., 2015). However, this research has typically been conducted as if coach-athlete interactions occur in a vacuum with little consideration given to the antecedent factors or the climate in which these effects occur. Indeed Stebbings, Taylor, Spray, and Ntoumanis (2012) recently stated, "…scant research addresses potential reasons why coaches employ these contrasting interpersonal styles." (p. 482). In their study, Stebbings and colleagues' found coaches' perceptions of their environment influenced their psychological health and their interpersonal behavior toward athletes. Thus, there would appear to be a need to consider the wider environment in which the coach operates. Within the sport context the wider environment might manifest to effect coaches in two broad ways; by influencing the behaviors that the coach displays with their athletes and by moderating the effectiveness of coach behaviors on athlete outcomes.

The majority of leadership and coaching theories and models that have been developed within sport have been underpinned by social cognitive approaches (cf. Arthur, 2014), yet very little research has actually been conducted within a social cognitive paradigm. That is, the environmental factors that influence coach behaviors or moderate coach behaviors have received scarce research attention. This is

surprising given that one of the key underpinning factors of social cognitive approaches is that interactions and relationships do not occur in isolation, rather they are part of a reciprocal causal network whereby environmental, personal and behavioral factors interact to determine a range of attitudinal and behavioral consequences. Thus coach-athlete interaction occurs within a broader environment. This notion is similar to the sentiment of Hardy, Jones, and Gould (1996) who stated that athletes do not perform in a vacuum; rather they are part of a complex social and organizational structure. Interestingly, this sentiment is not unique to the sport leadership literature and has been acknowledged in organizational psychology; for example, House and Aditya (1997) stated, "it is almost as though leadership scholars… have believed that leader-follower relationships exist in a vacuum" (p. 445).

While research (see Weinberg & McDermott, 2002) indicates that leaders in both sport (i.e., coaches) and business (i.e., executives) agree on the factors relating to organizational success (viz. leadership characteristics, interpersonal skills, leadership style), it is important to recognize that the nature of a sport organization is somewhat different to many non-sport organizations. For example, sport organizations are typically evaluated by the performance of athletes and teams, whereas for-profit business organizations are evaluated by outcomes such as market share, operations, customer service, financial profit, or product quality. Within this domain the coach-athlete interaction can be considered a special case of leadership, as it occurs at the bottom of a hierarchical schematic yet it is arguably the most important in determining organizational outcomes. Moreover, while the coach plays a pivotal role in developing and shaping the environment for their athletes, the coach also has to perform within the broader organizational environment. The aim of the current

chapter is to extend Hardy et al.'s (1996) notion in calling for leadership researchers to move beyond the coach-athlete interaction. Although very important, sport leadership research is limited by its narrow focus on the coach-athlete dyad and like non-sport organizations, we should turn our attention to leadership throughout the organizational structure. In this way the leadership that the coach receives from their line manager will impact on their interactions with their athlete. Likewise the leadership that the coach's line manager (e.g., Head Coach or Performance Director) receives from their line manager (e.g., Executive Board or Chief Executive Officer; CEO) will impact their behaviors with the coach's line manager, and so on. In essence it is argued that there is a cascading of leadership effects at play within sport organizations that have implications for leadership throughout the organization, not least for coach-athlete interactions. This has been described in the literature as 'in the shadow of the Boss's Boss' (Tangirala, Green, & Ramanujam, 2007). Tangirala et al. (2007) demonstrated that nurse outcomes (i.e., organizational identification, perceived organizational support, and depersonalization toward customers) were, in part, determined by the quality of the relationship that the nurse's supervisor had with their supervisor.

An important consideration when discussing organizational leadership is the distinction between *leadership in* and *leadership of* organizations (see Dubin, 1977). Leadership *in* organizations refers to lower level leadership that involves direct leader-follower interactions. Whereas leadership *of* refers to leadership near the top of the organizational hierarchy where interactions are typically more distant and strategically orientated. Leaders at the top of the hierarchy will also engage in direct interactions with their immediate subordinates that are typical of the *in* approach (Hunt, 2004). The current chapter briefly discusses hierarchical structures and will

then integrate leader distance theories into the sport organizational context. Lastly, a behavioral taxonomy that is cognizant of leader distance and leadership *of* and *in* will be developed. An aim of the behavioral taxonomy is to help better understand and integrate leadership practices throughout the different hierarchical structures within sport organizations (leadership *of* and *in*). The resultant intention is that the behavioral taxonomy will help to create integrated and coherent leadership practices within sport organizations.

Hierarchical Structures in Sport Organizations

Hierarchical structures and role differentiation are omnipresent in organizations and are used to coordinate the actions of individuals within organizations (Gruenfeld & Tiedens, 2010; Halevy, Chou, Galinsky, & Murnighan, 2012). Indeed, Halevy, Chou, and Galinsky (2011) stated that hierarchies allow the social organization of groups that enables them to achieve high levels of coordination and cooperation that ensure survival and success. Organizations have different hierarchical structures, for example, mechanistic organizations that are governed by an authority-centered philosophy will have greater hierarchical distance than organic organizations where decision making is distributed throughout the organization (Courtright, Fairhurst, & Rogers, 1989). 'Sport governance' includes many of the usual features of governance, such as: vision; strategy; effective running of an organization; accountability; and supervision. Nevertheless, there are aspects of 'Sport governance' such as anti-doping, betting and gambling policies *inter alia* on the safeguarding children and vulnerable adults, diversity and equality which feed into and contribute to the effective running of the organization and the sport at large. They make 'Sport governance' unique. 'Sport governance' includes not only regulatory but also ethical procedures and processes which aim to ensure the effective and fair

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administration and development of the sport beyond the organization itself. Good governance in sport and recreation goes beyond the oversight of an organization (structure), and extends to the context and environment that the organization operates within. In this sense, good governance in the sport sector must be lived throughout not just the organization but through the membership and experience of the participants of the activity.

In an attempt to optimize sport governance, sports management scholars have dedicated substantial effort to examining organizational design to better understand the optimal structure of sport organizations. Importantly for sport psychologists, management scholars have observed increasing alignment of structures with few clear differences in configuration (see Theodoraki & Henry, 1994), a process referred to as institutional isomorphism. Where differences in organizational structure exist, it is mainly because they operate with different contextual situations. For example, differences in organizational design in elite sport might be due to the not-for-profit (e.g., governing bodies) or for-profit (e.g., professional sport organizations) goals of the organization. Nevertheless, a common governance structure exists and is encouraged. In the United Kingdom, in an effort to ensure that public funds are invested in well-governed and managed national governing bodies (NGBs), UK Sport and Sport England have developed a "Governance Framework" consisting of required standards, funding triggers and conditions of grants for NGBs, all of which are based on good practice principles. Specifically, organizations must adhere to proscribed organizational structures, policies, and board composition guidance to uphold the highest standards of leadership and governance in order to be recognised as eligible to receive government funding.

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Leadership style varies as a function of the hierarchical level of the leader with more senior leaders typically engaging in policy making, articulation of visions, and having limited contact with their subordinates (*leadership of*), whereas lower-level leaders typically engage in daily interactions with their subordinates and engage in behaviors such as goal setting and mentoring (l*eadership in*) (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). Senior leaders will typically communicate with their subordinates using speeches addressing larger groups with little opportunity to interact on an individual basis. Individual interactions with senior leaders will typically be few and far between and will likely be associated with greater importance or having greater consequence (the importance will likely increase with greater hierarchical differentiation). The specific interactions that more distal and proximal leaders tend to engage in can be categorized along a continuum from more abstract (distal leaders) to more concrete (proximal leaders) (Berson et al., 2015). For example, more distal leaders are likely to engage in more abstract type behaviors such as articulating a strategic vision (typically long term), hypothetical aspirations, shared values, and collective identity, whereas more proximal leaders are more likely to engage in more concrete day-to-day behaviors such as goal setting and individualized feedback (cf. Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Locke & Latham, 2002). Importantly, there is evidence that hierarchal leader distance moderates the effectiveness of leader behaviors based on the level of abstractness (e.g., Berson & Halevy, 2014). Consequently, when attempting to determine what effective leadership is from an organizational perspective it is important to consider the level at which the leader operates in the organization and with whom they are interacting.

Leader Distance

The concept of how 'close' or 'distant' followers are from their leaders can change the influence process of leader behaviors. Antonakis and Atwater (2002) define leader distance as, "... the configual effect (i.e., the coexistence of a cluster of independent factors) of leader-follower physical distance, perceived social distance, and perceived interaction frequency" (p. 674). To elaborate, social distance can be elevated or reduced by leader behaviors; for example, leader behaviors that maximize their status and displays of power differentials will enhance leader distance. That is, leaders who interact with their followers less frequently might contribute toward creating greater distance between the leader and their follower. The hierarchical structure of the organization will likely also contribute to leader distance. In extending Napier and Ferris's (1994) work on leader distance, Antonakis and Atwater (2002) conceptualized leader distance as having three distinct dimensions. The first dimension, *perceived social or psychological distance* was based on Napier and Ferris's psychological distance and Bass and Stogdill's (1990) psychosocial distance concepts. Antonakis and Atwater defined perceived social or psychological distance as, "…perceived differences in status, rank, authority, social standing, and power, which affect the degree of intimacy and social contact that develop between followers and their leader" (p. 682). The second dimension, *physical distance* refers to how close followers are located from their leader. Antonakis and Atwater drew a distinction between social and physical distance in that proximally located leaders are likely to be socially distant and distally located leaders are likely to be socially close. The third dimension, *perceived frequency of leader-follower interaction* was defined as, "the perceived degree to which leaders interact with their follower" (p. 686). Importantly, Antonakis and Atwater suggest that these three dimensions are distinct and can occur concurrently in various levels. Furthermore, according to Antonakis

and Atwater, no particular combination of the three factors necessarily determine leader effectiveness, rather effectiveness will be determined by a combination of the dimensions of leaders distance and other (moderating) factors that will include leader behaviors, situation, and context.

Berson, Halevy, Shamir, and Erez (2015) offered an explanation of the effects of leader distance that is based on Construal-Level Theory (CLT) of psychological distance (Trope & Liberman, 2010). At the heart of CLT is the notion of psychological distance, which refers to an abstract mental construal of objects measured as a metaphorical or actual distance from the self (Trope & Liberman, 2010). These distances can be construed in terms of spatial distance, temporal distance, social distance, and hypothetically, and are all, to some extent, interchangeable. CLT predicts that when different objects are construed as similar in terms of relative distance from the self then response patterns are quicker and will lead to more positive outcomes (cf. Berson & Halevy, 2014). The extent to which different objects are construed as similar in terms of psychological distance is referred to as 'construal fit' (Berson & Halevy, 2014). That is, if two different objects that are congruent in terms of perceived psychological distance from the self, this would be labelled as having construal fit. An important premise of CLT is that distant situations such as future events, physically or socially remote individuals, and hypothetical events are construed as abstract representations, whereas more proximal near future events, closeness to others, and probable events use concrete representations (Berson et al., 2015). From a leadership perspective the construal fit relates to the fit between the situation (i.e., psychological distance between leader and follower) and the behaviors of the leader (i.e., abstract or concrete). Therefore, following this logic, a large social distance between leader and follower would require more abstract

communication from the leader and a small social distance between leader and follower would require more concrete communication styles from the leader.

In a series of studies Berson and Havely (2014) tested the construal fit hypothesis in a leadership context where the hierarchical distance between leaders and followers were hypothesized to moderate the effectiveness of leader behaviors. Specifically, abstract leader behaviors (e.g., articulation of a vision) when enacted across a large hierarchical distance produced more positive effects than when enacted across smaller hierarchical distances. The results supported their hypothesis in that the relationship between job satisfaction and articulation of a vision (abstract leader behavior) was stronger when a large hierarchical distance was present. That is, articulation of a vision only impacted employee's job satisfaction when it originated from distant leaders and there was no relationship between the articulation of a vision and job satisfaction when it originated from proximal leaders. Conversely, the effects of feedback and mentoring (concrete leader behaviors) on job satisfaction was only significant at small hierarchical distance. Hence, feedback and mentoring positively impacted job satisfaction only when it was provided by hierarchically proximal leaders. The results were replicated and extended in two further studies that tested and supported the construal fit hypothesis in a hypothetical situation (study 2) and in a crisis situation (study 3). The theoretical predictions of CLT and leader distance and the empirical research testing them strongly suggest that it is vital to consider the psychological distance between the leader and the follower when examining leader effectiveness in an organizational setting.

Given the salience of leader-follower psychological distance in organizations, it is worth highlighting two factors that will influence the usefulness of such findings in the context of sport. Namely, perceived leader distance is caused by at least two

factors, one of these being the structure of the organization and is thus less amenable to change. The other factor that can influence leader distance are the behaviors and communication style that leaders use with their followers. For example, leaders can distance themselves from their followers or get closer to them (Berson et al., 2015) depending on the way they choose to interact. Specifically, greater one-to-one interaction with followers will likely lead to a minimized perceived distance. Nevertheless, it is important to note that the results from the Berson et al. (2015) studies suggest that leaders from different hierarchical levels would need to be careful in how they reduce the distance as behaviors that were about the provision of feedback and mentoring as a possible strategy to increase interaction and reduce distance did not impact job satisfaction when feedback was provided from a leader who was one step hierarchically above their direct leaders (i.e., the boss's boss).

In this brief review of leader distance and CLT a number of factors become apparent when discussing leadership within sport organizations. First, a very complex picture of leadership emerges highlighting a need to simplify the leadership process. Second, the effectiveness of leader behaviors are likely impacted by perceived leader distance. Third, perceived leader distance is likely impacted by hierarchical level and leader behaviors. Fourth, models of organizational leadership would be incomplete if they solely focus on the dyadic coach-athlete relationship without considering the broader context in which leaders operate. One way to simplify a phenomenon is to organize it into meaningful and understandable sub-units. To this end, the next section of the chapter outlines a model that provides a taxonomy of leader behaviors categorized according to their typical content and primary outcomes.

The Tripartite Model of Leadership (TML)

A review of the leadership literature in sport reveals that the vast majority of this research has focused on the coach athlete dyad (see Fletcher & Arnold, 2011; Stebbings et al., 2009). Another observation from the literature is that a large number of different leadership behaviors have been identified. Indeed in our review of the sport literature which included models such as the ones developed by Smith and Smoll (1989), Cushion, Harvey, Muir, and Nelson (2012), Gallimore and Tharpe (2004), Chelladurai (1993), Mageau and Vallerand (2003), Duda and Balaguer (1999), Cote, Yardley, Sedwick, and Baker (1999), and Callow et al. (2009) we identified over 30 different behaviors that have been articulated in the literature. As described earlier, these models typically focus on the coach athlete dyad. In order to best utilize this rich research, we have developed a model of organizational leadership that makes use of the sport coaching literature and apply it to the sport organizational context. Although it is unlikely that any one theory or model would be able to incorporate all the different approaches to leadership that currently exist in the literature, we believe that it is possible to synthesize the current literature into a number of higher order leadership factors and apply the principles to sport organization leadership. The following section presents a possible categorization of the different leader behaviors that have been identified in the literature. It is important to note that we have primarily focused on developing a taxonomy of typical leader behaviors but we will also delineate the primary mechanisms by which the different behavioral categories will operate. That is, the behavioral typologies can be differentiated based on the content of the actual behavior and the primary outcomes the behaviors are theorized to influence. Furthermore, it is clear from the review of leader distance literature that leader follower interactions do not occur in a vacuum and that a theory or model of sport organizational leadership will need to include

concepts of distance in its formation, or at least in its application. The current

behavioral taxonomy presents a generic model of leader behaviors that can be applied

across the hierarchical levels of an organization (leadership that relates to both *of* and

in) and across different situations. As highlighted earlier sport organizations are

relatively unique in that their success is largely determined by the success of the

athletes (typically medals and or participation targets).

In the current model we outline leader behaviors that are directed at followers

and organize these into behavioral categories that are likely common to all leaders in

any (sport) organization. A leader in the current model is defined as an individual who

is hierarchically more senior than another individual within a formalized

organizational structure. Being hierarchically more senior than another individual in

the organization usually means that the person who is in a more senior position

typically possess certain responsibilities, skills, knowledge, and experience that are

different to individuals that are below them. The person on the next hierarchical level

of an organization is likely more experienced, has more knowledge, has a greater

sphere of influence, will need to take a broader perspective, more job complexity, and

will typically have more diverse areas of responsibility when compared to their

subordinates. For example, athletes are led by coaches, who typically use their

advanced knowledge of skill development to advance skill execution. Coaches are led

by a performance director or head coach, who must assimilate multiple aspects of

team selection, preparation, and performance, while integrating sports science and

medicine support. Further up the hierarchy, performance directors and head coaches

are typically led by senior management (CEOs, Chairs, Boards), whose remit focuses

on both strategic and operational factors. However, a role that all leaders have,

regardless of their hierarchical level within an organization, is the need to influence

the motivation of those under their charge, and the better they are at doing this the more effective a leader they are likely to be (cf. Berson et al., 2015). Of course, this is predicated on the caveat that the leader is motivating their followers in the right direction. Thus, the leader is required to both generate motivation (energy) and direct this toward optimal targets. An exceptionally motivated team, that is, a team willing to put extra effort into achieving their goals, will not be successful if they are not directed toward appropriate goals. Additionally, an exceptionally motivated team will likely not be successful if the team members are pulling in different directions toward contradictory goals. Conversely, a demotivated team that is going in the right direction are also unlikely to perform optimally. Another key leader role is to ensure that their subordinates have the sufficient skills and knowledge to carry out their jobs. Hence, there are three basic fundamental roles fulfilled by a leader to promote the likelihood of success; to generate motivation, point this motivation in the right direction, and ensure subordinates have sufficient knowledge and skills. In turn, we propose that there are three higher order behavioral typologies that can be used to achieve these (either in combination or on their own): *leadership/inspirational type behaviors, coaching type behaviors*, and *instructing type behaviors* (see Figure 1).

It is intended that the current classification provides a reasonable basis from which leadership, coaching and instruction can be meaningfully differentiated both with regard to the content of the behavior and the primary mechanisms by which they operate. Indeed, we believe the application of the TML within sport organizations will assist with the provision of a consistent message about the leadership *of* and *in* the organization along with the behaviors that are consistent with this message. That is, the TML is a single overarching model of leadership that can be used and adapted to

the different levels within a sport organization that will generate a consistent

leadership strategy, and in turn, consistent behaviors.

Inspirational Leadership

The inspirational leadership category in the TML draws from the 'new

paradigm' of leadership theories (Bryman, 1992) such as transformational leadership

(Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978), charismatic leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1987), and

visionary leadership (Sashkin, 1984). At the heart of the new paradigm of leadership

is the separation of transactional exchanges from transformational leadership.

Transactional exchanges are in essence about rewards and punishments, whereas

transformational leadership centers on affective components as the key influence

process. That is, transformational leadership is often described as a process of

engagement whereby the leader develops each follower to achieve their full potential

by engaging the emotions and values of their followers. In his seminal work Bernard

Bass (1985) stated, "to sum up, we see the transformational leader as one who

motivates us to do more than we originally expected to do" (p. 20). Bass went on to

delineate the processes by which this expectancy-surpassing takes place, namely, that

it includes raising awareness and level of consciousness about the value of designated

outcomes along with ways of reaching these outcomes, and transcending self-interest

for the greater good.

The inspirational leadership component of the TML focusses on behaviors that

motivate and inspire athletes to achieve beyond expectations. The articulation of a

compelling and inspirational vision forms a central component of the leader typology.

Visions typically focus on future-orientated idealizations of shared organizational

goals that refer to purpose, beliefs and values (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1998;

Nanus, 1992; Sashkin, 1984). They generally relate to a desirable end state ("What")

and the reasons underpinning this end state ("Why") but rarely focus on the mechanisms by which visions are achieved ("How") (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Further, visions tend to emphasize team or individual aspirations that can span many years or will draw attention to superordinate goals of a greater purpose and meaning. Along with the visionary component, other leader behaviors such as role modeling, individual consideration, fostering acceptance of group goals, and high performance expectations are also included in the leadership typology. This typology is underpinned by the conceptualization of transformational leadership develop by Arthur and colleagues (Arthur et al., 2011; Callow et al., 2009; Hardy et al., 2010). However, the Arthur colleagues' conceptualization is not exhaustive and most behaviors aligned with the 'new paradigm' will likely occupy this category. The transactional type behaviors (e.g., reward, praise, punishment, scolding, and discipline type behaviors) are also included in the leadership typology as this component is often described as forming the foundations upon which transformational leadership operates (e.g., Bass, 1985).

The leadership category can also be differentiated from coaching and instructing type behaviors based on the primary mechanisms by which the leadership behaviors are theorized to operate. That is, leadership type behaviors are theorized to provide individuals with a positive vision of the future, perceptions of support, and challenge. The notion of vision, support and challenge in relation to transformational leadership has been discussed elsewhere (Arthur & Lynn, in press; Arthur, Hardy, & Woodman, 2012; Hardy et al., 2010) and propose that leader behaviors which articulate a positive vision of the future will be related to followers' perceptions of vision. Leader behaviors that instill belief in their followers that they can achieve the vision; for example, expressions of confidence and the provision of support will be

related to the support component. Praise and rewarding type behaviors are also proposed to be related to the support component. Finally, leader behaviors that emphasize high performance expectations, challenge followers to solve problems and punishment or discipline orientated behaviors will predict perceptions of challenge.

We believe that any leader in a sport organization can use the leader typology behaviors regardless of their hierarchical level, but the effectiveness and the behavioral manifestation of them (i.e., what they look like) will likely differ across hierarchical level. For example, the use of vision will likely be more effective when articulated by more senior members of an organization. This is because visions tend to be about the organization or larger polities and are more abstract in nature. Berson and Havely (2014) using construal level theory and propositions from construal fit (Trope & Liberman, 2014) recently demonstrated that visionary leadership (measured by the inspirational motivation scale from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire - 5X) was more effective when used by more senior leaders than when it was used by less senior leaders. Contrastingly, leader behaviors that were described as being more concrete, such as individual level goal setting (contained in both the instructional and coaching categories, the main difference being the method by which goals are set), were found to be more effective for lower level leaders. Expanding these results to other leader behaviors, it is plausible that leader behaviors that are focused on individual level interactions, such as, individual consideration and contingent reward would be more effective for lower level leaders, or those with small leader distance.

Coaching behaviors.

Similar to the leadership literature, the definition of coaching remains somewhat elusive and can range from more instructional and directive type approaches and have been defined by Parsloe (1995) as, "directly concerned with the

immediate improvement of performance and the development of skills by a form of tutoring and instruction" (p. 18). Elsewhere, Druckman and Bjork (1991) stated that coaching, "consists of observing students and offering hints, feedback, reminders, [or] new tasks, or redirecting a student's attention to a salient feature - all with the goal of making the student's performance approximate the expert's performance as closely as possible." (p. 61). Other scholars have proposed more self-directed definitions of coaching, such as Whitmore (2009), who argued that, "coaching is unlocking a person's potential to maximise their own performance. It is helping them learn rather than teaching them." (p. 8). The definitions of coaching are diverse and appear to, in places, over-lap with the definition of leadership or have an instructional component. Nevertheless, a central theme of the definitions of coaching is that they all, to some extent, either explicitly refer to, or implicitly imply, the facilitation of self-awareness and self-directed learning. Furthermore, the role of asking questions is almost always central to the coaching process (e.g., Grant & Stober, 2006; Whitmore, 2009). In summing up the various coaching definitions Grant and Stober (2006) stated, "…it is clear that coaching is more about asking the right questions than telling people what to do" (p. 3). In the current model, we define coaching as a process that uses a questioning technique to enhance self-awareness, ownership, responsibility and goal commitment that ultimately seeks to facilitate more internalised regulation of motivation for goal attainment and performance.

The coaching process is essentially about the extent which leaders encourage their followers to engage in their own self-development by promoting self-reflective practices. In turn, the primary behaviors the coach will engage in will be effective questioning techniques and the facilitation of goal setting. The main difference between the coaching and instructing type category is that, in the latter, the leader will

act as an educator and will typically tell or show their followers what to do, whereas in the coaching type category the leader will typically avoid telling their follower's what to do but will encourage them to reflect and identify their own strengths and weaknesses and set their own goals (in the instructional category the leader will set goals for their subordinates). Another crucial difference is that to be effective in the coaching mode, the leader does not necessarily need to have an in-depth knowledge of the content they are coaching, but the leader will need to possess an in-depth knowledge of the coaching process. This is consistent with Whitmore (2009), who stated, "coaching requires expertise in coaching but not in the subject at hand. That is one of its great strengths" (p. 14). Nevertheless, it is also important to note that not all types of questions will be considered coaching questioning, for example, rhetorical, closed, and cynical questioning styles that are intended to scold, clearly do not belong in the coaching category.

The primary mechanisms by which the coaching behaviors are theorized to facilitate are self-awareness, ownership, and empowerment. That is, we propose that the process of asking effective questions is theorized to stimulate active engagement and problem solving that will elicit greater cognitive load. This proposition is consistent with the notions that have been articulated in the sport coaching literature with regards to the use of questioning techniques to promote reflective thinking and active learning (see, for example, Anderson, Magill, Sekiya, & Ryan, 2005; Chambers & Vickers, 2006). The concepts of ownership and empowerment are not dissimilar to key aspects of self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985). We suggest that the use of coaching type behaviors will promote the likelihood that athletes will have greater levels of internalized motivation. Indeed, in a coaching context Mageau and Vallerand (2003) proposed a model of the coach-athlete relationship which was

underpinned by the principles of self-determination theory. They proposed that the positive impact of the coach (i.e., coach's autonomy-supportive behaviors) would impact athlete motivation via the satisfaction of autonomy, relatedness and competence. Similar to Mageau and Vallerand the current model adopts key aspects of self-determination theory that propose that leaders who satisfy athletes' needs of autonomy, relatedness, and competence will engender more internalized regulation of behavior. However, the current model differs in that we specifically propose that leaders will satisfy such needs primarily via the use of coaching type behaviors.

Beyond the potential gains to motivation in terms of self-determined motivation the principles of the coaching behaviors category are also consistent with contextual interference (Battig, 1979), where optimum learning (skill transfer and retention) is proposed to occur as a result of internal feedback mechanisms and more effortful processing (e.g., Brady, 2008). One of the ways contextual interference is proposed to enhance learning is in conditions of increasing task difficulty more effortful processes are engaged, and thus, enhanced learning occurs (cf. Shea & Zimny, 1988). It is posited here that questioning techniques will increase task difficulty thereby encouraging more effortful processing. Another key research finding from the skill acquisition research is that augmented feedback can be detrimental to skill acquisition (for a review, see Magill, 1994). One of the explanations for why augmented feedback can be detrimental to skill learning is that subordinates can become overly-reliant on the external feedback and when such feedback is no longer present they can struggle to execute the skill. Furthermore, augmented feedback is also proposed to interfere with the internal feedback mechanisms thus making them less effective. It follows that withholding immediate feedback and using questioning prompts might stimulate the development of more

independent processing mechanisms and facilitate enhanced understanding of skill mechanisms.

The implementation and effectiveness of the questioning process will be affected by many factors including the leader-follower relationship and the situation. For example, in order for the questioning to be effective it must be done in a suitable environment where there are no direct time pressures and affectivity of the follower is neutral. Also, it might also be unadvisable to engage in coaching type behaviors early in the stages of learning given the research evidence that demonstrates that early learners benefit from block practiced (a conceptually simple learning environment) rather than random practice (a conceptually more challenging environment) (e.g., Landin & Hebert, 1997). We also propose leader-distance to play a role in determining the optimal times or situations to use the coaching behaviors. For example, the use of the coaching type behaviors will likely lead to reduced leader-follower distance because the leader essentially asks their subordinate(s) to work with them to solve problems. Such acts often require relatively close and frequent contact with their follower. It is important to note that the coaching behavior category is not about the leader simply delegating and taking laissez-faire approach to leadership, rather a questioning technique and working through the problems will be required. Another proposition that we make is that the coaching type behaviors will typically take longer to achieve the desired outcomes compared to instructing type behaviors (see next section) but the follower will likely remain engaged for longer because they have ownership of the solution and will thus likely be more intrinsically motivated. Evidence to support the coaching dimension of the TML model comes from the self-determination theory research where autonomy supportive behaviors (an example of which is adopting a questioning technique) is related to enhanced intrinsic motivation

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which in turn is related to enhanced persistence (e.g., Vallerand, Fortier, & Guay, 1997; Hardre & Reeve, 2003; Robins et al., 2004). The observable outcome of coaching behaviors may be fairly similar to the one obtained via instructing, yet the long term motivational effects of the coaching mode will be far stronger and will promote greater levels of perseverance. Of course, the downside is that remaining in the coaching mode will take more time and the leader has less control over the final solution. And finally it is suggested that a fairly strong leader-follower relationship is required for the coaching behaviors to have optimal effects.

Instructing behaviors

Instructing type behaviors include all those behaviors that are focused on the transference of knowledge from the leader to their followers in the form of detailed instructions. The essence of this behavior is that the leader will communicate to their followers exactly what and how things should be done, or in other words, the leader will adopt a 'telling' approach. The underlying assumption of the instructional typology is that the leader has useful or important knowledge beyond that of his or her followers that is transferred via demonstrations and/or verbal descriptions. Consequently, leaders will have detailed knowledge of what needs to be achieved and how to achieve it. This implies that to be effective in this domain the leader has to possess superior knowledge and or insight which are not necessarily fundamental to the coaching domain. Instructions can be the provision of informational feedback in response to a specific event, where the feedback provides insight into what went wrong, perhaps why, and offer alternatives for future events. Of course, were the leader to adopt a coaching approach then no instructions would be provided rather a questioning technique would be employed to try and elicit the solutions from their subordinate.

It is hypothesized that the instruction type behaviors will primarily operate via mechanisms such as explicit knowledge of what is expected of followers and role clarity. It is important to note that the instructing behavioral typology will not necessarily be beneficial for follower motivation in terms of the internalization of motivation. Indeed, it may even contribute to more external regulation types. However, the potential benefits of the instructional type behaviors are that subordinates will have a clear idea of what is to be achieved from their leader's or the organization's perspective (which is important for promotion and retaining contracts etc.) and how to achieve it in a relatively short period of time, provided they have the necessary skills and that the leader can communicate in such a way that the follower understands. Too much use of instructional type behaviors and the leader will likely be perceived as controlling and micromanaging their followers, yet there will be times when telling or instructing is the optimal behavior. In time-pressured and other stressful (high performance) environments the instructing type behaviors will likely be optimal because the performer is not required or are perhaps not able to problem solve or make complex decisions themselves, thereby reducing the pressure on them.

With regards to hierarchical level within a sport organization, we again believe that leaders at all levels of the hierarchy can use the instructional type behaviors to good effect. However, in line with leader distance and construal fit hypothesis, the instructional type behaviors are by their nature concrete, and are thus likely to be more effective when the leader distance is small (Berson & Havely, 2015), or when leading *in* rather than *of*. That is, instructing will likely be more effective when used by leaders with their direct followers under time constraints and will become increasingly less effective with greater leader distance or where there are few additional demands. Within a sport organization, the coach will likely make most use

of this behavioral typology. Indeed, the coach observational literature consistently reports that coaches use the instructional behavioral typology more than any other (e.g., Cushion, Harvey, Muir, & Nelson, 2012; Partington & Cushion, 2013).

Summary

The TML is a behavioral taxonomy that categorizes leader behaviors into three higher order factors, namely, inspirational leadership, coaching, and instructing. While these categories can be differentiated at a behavioral and outcome level there are grey areas between them and they will likely be used in combination and, to some extent, have interactive effects. It is also important to note that no one behavioral category is better or more desirable than any other, and we perceive each behavior type to have value depending on contextual demands. The model provides a behavioral framework which can help raise awareness of and reflection on the behavior of leaders in sport organizations. Such use of the framework might support assessment and development of effective leader behaviors and guide reflection. Thus, it is hoped that the model will help to disentangle the complex nature of leading people within sport originations by providing a clear behavioral framework to help evaluate and guide behavior. Moreover, in developing the model, we were cognizant that leaders do not operate in a vacuum; rather they have to perform within an organizational structure which will be characterized by climatic and cultural factors. Indeed, a primary determinant of the organizational climate is the leadership that is displayed throughout (i.e., leadership *in*) the organization, with a key mechanism of this is being the hierarchical nature of the organization and leader distance. Furthermore, the construal level (Tope & Liberman, 2010) and leader distance perspectives offer indication of which behaviors will be more effective at different levels of leader distance. Namely, that the greater the leader distance is, the more

abstract the leader behaviors should be. Likewise the closer the leader distance the more concrete the behavior should be. While research is required to test the theoretical propositions of incorporating CLT into leadership theory in sport organizations, the TML appears to provide a solid foundation from which to test these propositions.
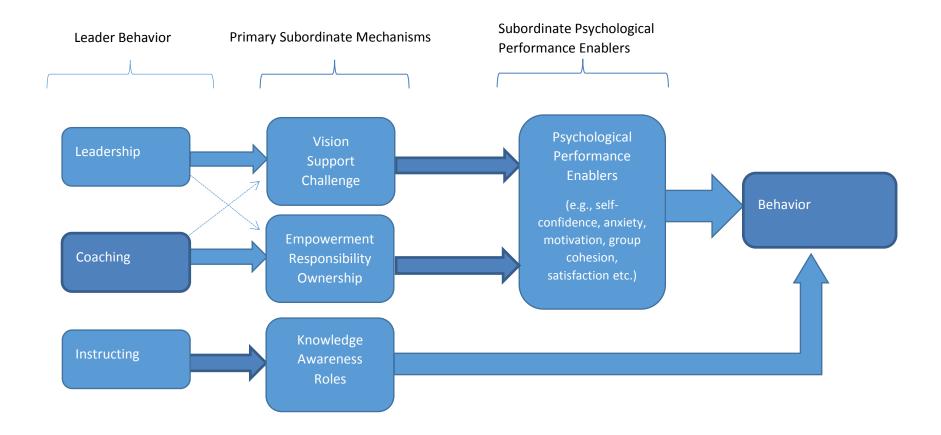
The TML has many potential applied uses. For example, it might be used as a framework for leader education, intervention and assessment. The model might allow for bespoke interventions to be developed, whereby leaders can be evaluated against the criteria with the information generated being used to tailor interventions. For example, if the leader is very good at inspirational leadership type behaviors but not questioning techniques, then the intervention could focus on the latter behavioral aspects. The typology could also be used as a broader educational framework that might help the leader to understand their behaviors and the impact that different behaviors are likely to have on their subordinates in different situations. In reality, it is likely that the different behavior types will be used in combination and interchangeably, with the effectiveness of each behavioral typology being determined by a variety of situational and contextual variables. Hence, a leader may switch between them concurrently and adapt their style to the situation and context. Similarly, they may plan to use one type of style but recognize that it is not working and switch to another. For example, if the leader adopts a coaching style but recognizes that this is not having the desired effect, then switching to the instructional style might seem prudent. The different behavioral categories might also be used in conjunction with each other. In a situation when the coaching style is not applicable but the leader is concerned about the potential negative motivational effects of the instructional style, the leader may pair an instructional type behavior with leadership

(e.g., explanation of why it is important, how it relates to the values of the sport etc.) to mitigate against negative motivational effects. In this case, it might be that the leadership style raises the importance and value of the task and thus motivation will at least be maintained. Furthermore, the personality of the follower will likely also play a role in determining the effectiveness of the behavioral typology.

The TML taxonomy categorizes leader behaviors into three distinct factors, inspirational leadership, coaching and instructing that are theorized to contain leader behaviors that will be a key determinant of the organizational climate and ultimately the behaviors of individuals within the organization. As with any behavior taxonomy there are likely behaviors that are not included or do not fall neatly within our categories and there is likely to be some conceptual overlap between the categories. For example, intellectually stimulating type behaviors (included in most conceptualizations of transformational leadership) that we have placed in the leadership category of the TML is fairly close in nature to the coaching dimension. That is, intellectually stimulating behaviors will likely involve using questioning techniques. Hence, it may be that when the model is empirically tested that this behavior will gravitate towards the coaching dimension. Such "grey areas" around the edges of our dimensions are due to the categories that we have imposed on what is a vast and complex system of interacting behaviors. Nevertheless, one of the aims of science is to try and categorize and arrange complex phenomenon into understandable, useful, and theoretically distinct meaning units that facilitates better understanding of the phenomenon. In this case we have categorized sport organizational leadership, which is a highly complex and somewhat elusive construct, into discrete meaning units.

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To summarize, in proposing the TML we hoped to stimulate both theoretically-guided research and conceptual advancement to help leaders better understand their own behaviour and the possible associated consequences. With future research, further guidance on when to use each style might be forthcoming. While the model will not be able to classify every subordinate focused behavior we believe it provides a useful framework by which to theoretically advance the sport organizational leadership literature and to provide a useful applied framework for coaches and leaders to use within organizations. In the words of George Box we hope that the TML will be useful to leaders and organizations in helping to shape leadership practice "essentially, all models are wrong, but some are useful".

Figure 1. The Tripartite Model of Leadership (TML)

Note. The TML is a behavioral taxonomy that separates leader behaviors (interactions with subordinates) into three higher order categories and it is intended to be applied throughout all hierarchical levels of the sport organization. While it is likely that there are many moderators of the relationships proposed in the TML but we have not included them in the model for aid of understanding.

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