

Study on Self-Leadership: Volleyball Student-Players and Their Competition Achievement

Ravindar K, Research Scholar, Department of Physical Education, SunRise University, Alwar, Rajasthan (India)
Dr. Shubhangi S. Rokade, Assistant Professor, Department of Physical Education, SunRise University, Alwar, Rajasthan (India)
Dr. Navish Kumar, Professor, Department of Physical Education, D.A.V. (P.G.) College, Bulandshahr (Uttar Pradesh)

Abstract

Research in the area of sport expertise has shown that athletes can benefit from the use of various cognitive strategies designed to regulate performance. For example, some of these strategies include learned techniques such as visualization, relaxation, goal-setting, and self-talk (Allen, 2006). In a study of Neck and Manz (1992) also stated that ,in sport psychology, mental imagery is viewed as a method involving rehearsal of a physical task in the absence of observable movement' (according to Corbin, 1972; Richardson, 1967). In a research by Hardy et al. (2004) founded that athletes (%75) used self-talk in a significantly planned and consistent manner, as well as had a greater belief in the use of their self-talk. The study of Cleary and Zimmerman (2001) showed that basketball experts set more specific goals, selected more technique-oriented strategies, made more strategy attributions, and displayed higher levels of self-efficacy than non-experts and novices. In a study by Gilbert et al. (2006), someone shared that the student-athletes understood the importance of being overtly positive but had difficulty using positive self-talk. In another study by Kitsantas and Zimmerman (2001) found that experts volleyball players were superior to the other two groups in all measures: goal-setting, self-efficacy, self-monitoring, self-evaluation and self-satisfaction etc. Zaichkowsky (2006) also stated that the most useful skills to be learned by student-athletes included goal-setting, imagery, relaxation, self-talk, attention/concentration, and commitment to rigorous practice.

Keywords: SELF LEADERSHIP, VOLLEY BALL PLAYERS, ACHIVEMENT

Introduction:

Energy takes many forms such as potential energy, kinetic energy, thermal energy, electrical energy, chemical energy, nuclear energy, and other forms (The New Encyclopedia Britannica, 1973). We use energy to produce all sorts of products to satisfy our needs (Wrigglesworth, 1997). In the same manner, we eat different foods such as fruits, vegetables, grains, and meats to transfer into energy so we can move, work, and engage in all activities. Athletes transfer carbohydrates, fats, and proteins derived from foods into high-energy compounds such as adenosine triphosphate (ATP) and creatine phosphate (CP) so they can engage in all vigorous training and competition (McArdle, Katch & Katch, 2006).

According to Pierce and Manz (2005), self-leadership represents an alternative to more traditional leadership and organizational perspectives that focus on the influence and control of designated leaders with formal hierarchical authority. Self-leadership theory is described as the 'process of influencing oneself' as opposed to the influence of leaders over followers. An individual's self-control system seems to be more effective as organizations and employees begin to be able to control and manage themselves. Selfleadership refers to the self-directing and influencing of individuals and their direct self-motivation tasks (Manz, 1986). Self-leadership is conceptualized as process of influencing or leading (Neck and Manz, 1992). In another study, self-leadership is a process of self-influence to achieve an optimal state of motivation and self-direction needed to perform what one sees as essential and inevitable (Kazan, 1999).

Coaches influence athletes in numerous ways, including an athlete's technical, cognitive, strategic, and psychosocial developments (Smith & Smoll, 2017). A team's win-loss success is greater when the coach displays a coaching style that aligns with the athletes' preferred coaching style (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). While not all players have the same preferences, considering the athlete's preferred coaching style is imperative in order to enhance the coach's ability to increase the productiveness and success of his or her team (Horn et al., 2011). Because a coach plays such an important role and can greatly influence an athlete (Ehsani et al., 2012), having

information about the coaching style preference of athletes (which helps coaches adapt and adjust their coaching to individual players and teams) is critical. The Revised Leadership Scale for Sports (RLSS) (Jambor & Zhang, 1997) can provide information to coaches about their athletes' preferred coaching styles. T

As Houghton and Neck (2002), self-leadership is a process through which people influence themselves to achieve the self-direction and self-motivation necessary to behave and perform in desirable ways. In this process, individuals influence themselves through cognitive strategies. Self-leadership consists of specific sets of behavioral and cognitive strategies designed to shape individual performance outcomes. Neck and Manz (1996) assert that self-leadership focuses on the individual's thoughts and self-behaviors. This focus is in the form of self-talk, mental imagery, thought patterns, beliefs and assumptions (Manz and Sims, 1980; Manz, 1986; Neck and Houghton, 2006). In another study, Godwin et al. (1999) pointed out that self-leadership focused jointly on behavior and cognition. Paksoy (2002) states that this leadership approach is the whole of the strategies that focus on behaviors and thoughts that individuals can use to influence themselves, and that it is the essence of individuals to control their behavior and that everything they do to guide their self is within the scope of this leadership. If a deduction is made in all these statements, ,Self-leadership can also be defined as the emergence of self-leadership energy within the individual even in the most unfavorable condition, the fulfillment of his/her self-affairs and self-duties, and to create his/her selfmotivation”.

Natural reward strategies

Through these strategies, which focus on incorporating more enjoyable qualities into specific tasks that need to be achieved, the task itself is rewarded (Anderson and Prussia, 1997; Manz and Neck, 2004; Neck and Houghton, 2006; Manz and Sims, 2001). The emergence of enjoyable side of the task means rewarding by the task. In this way, the individual who focuses on the enjoyable side of the task displays have a better performance and improves this (Houghton and Neck, 2002). Individuals dealing with the performance dimension of the sport constantly experience win or lose, failure or success. But, an athlete may a good performance in a competition, try a new sportive move, and win by taking risk etc. These in sports are to reveal the enjoyable side of the task. For an athlete, being in a beautiful city for a competition, playing in a gorgeous gym, watched by thousands of spectators is rewarded by the task.

Constructive thought pattern strategies

These strategies refer to the change of beliefs and assumptions that do not function normally and properly, the identification of the good ones, the use of mental imagery, and self-positive talk. Positive and effective thought patterns are developed. Negative thoughts are reduced. Negative and destructive self-talk should be identified (Manz, 1986; Neck and Manz, 1992; 1996; Manz and Sims, 2001; Manz and Neck, 2004). These strategies are often used in all areas of performance sport. This mental imagery, also called ,anticipation' (a term of sport), is often imagined as if it were done just before making an action. The more thought is made in mind; the more ideas are formed and developed. In this way, forecasting also evolves. For example, for an athlete who plays volleyball, guessing where the rival will attack and taking precautions from that side is an example to the situation. Sport psychology researchers used a self-referenced measure (e.g., Beedie, Terry & Lane, 2000; Lane & Chappell, 2001; Prapavessis, 2000) to examine the effect of mood on athletes' performance. The measure asked participants to rate their competition performance by asking one question “How do you feel about your performance in the last game?” with a score ranging from 0 to 100 points. This measure is questionable because it can't reflect the true performance in the competition. To fill the gap, we examined the influences of athletes' mental energy on competition performance using an “objective” measure. Specifically, we recruited college volleyball players who competed at the national level in the semi-quarter final. To avoid disturbance, we measure their mental energy one day before the tournaments. Further, we used the Volleyball Information System (VIS)

developed by the International Volleyball Federation (FIVA) to assess volleyball players' performance. The VIS provides six objective performance indices during the competition including top spiker, top receiver, top blocker, top digger, top setter, and top server. The VIS has been proven with appropriate content validity (Yudiana et al., 2017) and has been used in many empirical studies (Marcelino et al, 2009; Valladares, García-Tormo & João , 2016). For example, in a study that examined the main factors affecting female volleyball players' performance in the 2014 world Championship, Valladares, García-Tormo & João (2016) analyzed 102 games of the 24 participating teams through VIS. Results found victories were serving hits, excellent reception, serve reception, opponent serve errors, and serve faults. Similarly, to examine whether home vs guest teams win more competition, Marcelino et al (2009) analyzed 275 sets in the 2005 Men's Senior World League and 65,949 actions through VIS. Results showed that winning a set is significantly related to performance indicators (i.e., set, reception, spike, serve, dig, and block) and home teams always have more probability of winning the game than away teams. T

Volleyball and Team Composition

Volleyball is one of the most popular team sports in the world. It exhibits the best of ability, spirit, creativity and aesthetics. The volleyball game has a unique place amongst net games. Competitors use the framework to contest techniques, tactics and power. The framework also allows players a freedom of expression to enthuse spectators and viewers. The image of Volleyball is increasingly a good one (FIVB, 2016). For the match, a team may consist of up to 12 player, coaching staff and medical staff. For FIVB, World and Official competitions for Senior up to 14 players may be recorded on the score sheet and play in a match. One of the players, other than the libero, is the team captain. Both the team captain and the coach are responsible for the conduct and discipline of their team members. When the team captain is not on the court, the coach or the team captain must assign another player on the court, but not the libero, to assume the role of game captain (FIVB, 2016). The captain has a distinctive feature for the volleyball game as well as the general tasks of other sports and is the only player who has the authority to speak with the referees. In the absence of the coach, the captain may use authorizes of the coach. Therefore, it is expected that the athlete who is the captain has more self-leadership features than the other players.

References:

1. Al-Jammal, K. & Ghamrawi, N. (2015). Leading the self: Self-leadership skills of Lebanese private school principals, *International Journal of Social Science and Economics Invention*, 1(2), pp.1-20.
2. Allen, S. (2006). Expertise in sport: A cognitive-developmental approach, *Journal of Education*, 187(1), pp.9-29.
3. Alves, J.C., Lovelace, K.J., Manz, C.C., Matsypura, D., Toyasaki, F. & Ke, K. (2006). A cross-cultural perspective self-leadership, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(4), pp.338-359. Doi:10.1108/02683940610663123
4. Anderson, J.S. & Prussia, G.E. (1997). The self-leadership questionnaire: Preliminary assessment of construct validity, *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, 4, pp.119-143.
5. Arlı, Ö. & Avcı, A. (2017). The effect of core self-evaluation on self-leadership: A Study on Primary School Teachers, *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 9(22), s.455-468.
6. Ay, F.A., Karakaya, A. & Yılmaz, K. (2015). Relationship between self-leadership and critical thinking skills, *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 207, pp.29-41.
7. Bass, B.M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision, *Organizational Dynamics*, 18(3), pp.19-31.
8. Bayrak, S. (1997). Değişen liderlik anlayışı ve Türkiye gerçeği. In: 21. Yüzyıl Liderlik Sempozyumu, İstanbul, Türkiye, 5-6 June 1997, 1 pp.355-358. İstanbul: DHO Matbaası