

Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union



POWER OF KNOWLEDGE 2020

Manual/HandBook

LEADERSHIP IN SPORT
COMMUNICATION IN SPORT
POSITIVE APPROACH TO THE TRAINING PROCESS
ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH RESULTS



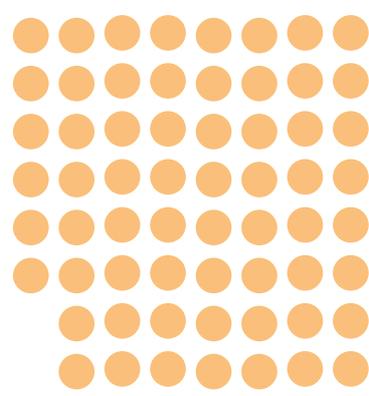
Zentralrat der Serben
in Deutschland
Централни савет Срба
у Немачкој

ZSD



UNIVERZITET „UNION - NIKOLA TESLA“
FAKULTET ZA SPORT
BEOGRAD





The Power of Knowledge project is implemented by the European Youth Organization (Serbia) with the support of the European Union's Erasmus + Sport program

Project duration:

01.01.2020 - 30.06.2021

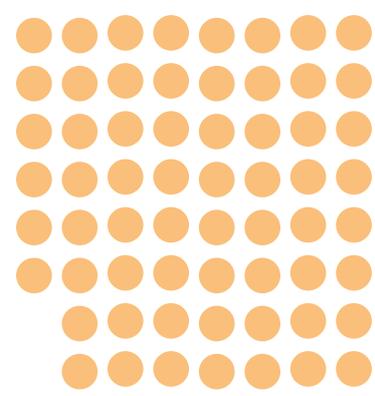
Partners:

1. Youth Planet (Estonia)
2. Zentralrat der Serben in Deutschland eV (Germany)
3. Terra Slavonica (Croatia)
4. Karate club "Mladenovac" (Serbia)

Project coordinator:

Nemanja Todorovic





The Power of Knowledge authors:

Ms. Vesna Ćilerdžić, PhD

Ms. Ivanka Gajić, PhD

Mr. Hadži Strahinja Stojković, doctoral student



INDEX

LEADERSHIP IN SPORTS	5
Leadership in organizations	5
Management and leadership	26
Conclusion	40
Analysis of research results	43
COMMUNICATION IN SPORT	46
Concept and content of communication	48
Communication process	54
Conclusion	87
Analysis of research results	93
POSITIVE APPROACH TO THE TRAINING PROCESS	96
Approaches to coaching	96
Theory of sports training	99
Training methodology	113
Philosophy of coaching	123
Conclusion	133
Analysis of research results	133



LEADERSHIP IN SPORT

LEADERSHIP IN ORGANIZATIONS



A donkey army led by a lion is worth more than an army of lions led by a donkey.

(Napoleon)

Leadership is one of the most frequently researched phenomena in organization and management. Due to the fact that the influence of leaders on the performance of the organization is very important. Working with them creates an additional energy, makes heavy stuff easier - and the entire team functions as a well-trained orchestra. Leaders create a special atmosphere that arouses enthusiasm. And enthusiasm is known to be contagious, so positive creative energy spreads like a contagion. The power and gift to create such an environment is not common, that is why there are no leaders all around us in unlimited quantities.

The essence of leadership is in the influence, that is, in the power it exercises over its followers. He defines reality and offers it, but in a specific way, most often easily. It has an unexplained and palpable power that no other employees, even those of high positions, managers. The leader must be up - because he gives his followers a legitimate right for them to articulate the meaning of things, events and phenomena in the region and to develop actions regarding these phenomena that should be taken. The leader determines the meaning and explains everything - from what happens in the organizations and around it, from which it



derives his primary influence on the behavior of all members of the organization, but also the organization as a whole. Leadership presumes that there is a relationship/dependence that is formed between the leader and his followers. That addiction is voluntary. This means that followers believe that it is better for them that instead of them, someone else interprets reality and determine courses of action.

The concept of leadership

In addition to leadership, as a sub-process of the global management process, recent theories of management say a lot about leadership in a broader sense, which refers to influencing people and directing them to the implementation of change and adaptation of the sports organization to a changing environment.

Leadership today is defined as the ability of one person, leader, to lead other people, to influence them to follow him in achieving the set goal and achieving the desired and necessary changes.

A leader is a person who has the ability to lead other people to follow him, to do what he suggests. He knows how to get a group of people to follow his decisions.

Leaders exist everywhere - in sports, politics, culture and business, in every human activity. There are people everywhere who lead the organization forward. They are not satisfied only with the fact that the company is doing well today and achieving good results, but they also think about tomorrow, the changes that need to be made today in order to do well tomorrow.

Effective leadership requires leaders to be good psychologists, good communicators and animators, to know how to work with people, to convince them and lead them forward, towards the set goals. They must be both good visionaries and forecasters, so that they can well predict future goals and the necessary changes and actions for their realization.

Looking at leadership as the ability to lead and direct people towards a certain vision of the organization in the future, certain characteristics that define this process can be listed. These are the following characteristics:

Leadership and leaders are inseparable from the notion of power and authority, because leadership is also seen as a specific way of using power and authority. Authority implies power and influence over other people, to follow it, towards the goal it sets. Consequently, each leader must possess a certain authority



that allows him to influence others and lead them in the direction he determines.

A leader may have *official or positional authority*, which derives from the position he holds. A leader can also have *informal or personal authority*, which stems from the qualities and strengths of his personality, and is usually called “charisma.”

Because:

- A leader can only be one who has a vision and followers.
- Leaders are not the ones that people look at with admiration, leadership does not make popularity but results.
- Leadership is not a position, title, privilege or money, leadership is above all a responsibility.
- Leaders must be an example to others.

There is an opinion that leaders who have the ability to teach others to lead themselves are the most suitable for modern organizations. This is called super-leadership. The focus is on a new form of leadership to enable self-leadership energy in each person. Super leadership represents a broader framework of behaviors and cognitive strategies created to lead others to lead themselves to perfection. It is primary to activate the potential and internal leadership of the followers. This should help individual behavior to be effective. This enables individuals to set achievable goals on their own. The super-leader goes on strengthening the desired behavior of the associates. The task is that super leadership provides the framework, process and set of strategies to achieve people’s excellence in organizations.

The topic of leadership in the 21st century has been debated for a couple of years now. Everyone who writes on this topic points out that there has never been a greater need for leaders, hence, that leaders too will be needed, and not just managers. In a global and dynamic economy, resources are not just natural ones that come from the country. Sources are increasingly coming from people’s minds in the form of ideas and information. Due to increased competition and high rates of change, flexible organizations and a new way of leading them are needed to maximize people’s contribution. To meet these changes, new leadership must be distributed, shared, and create self-directed teams of determined, responsive associates capable of responding to rapid change. These are situations in which the space for expressing leadership is narrowed to a large extent - to significantly influence others. In modern organizations, there are organized groups that are highly connected and highly educated individuals who do not require leadership to achieve goals. When the group is goal oriented there is no need for a leader. The inner satisfaction that group members feel in doing work does not require



leadership. The developed information system enables team members to obtain the necessary information to perform their activities without the mediation of leaders. Professional norms direct individual members to effectively achieve group goals.

A large number of authors pointed out the interdependence of leadership and culture. Most of them sees the problems in participatory leadership in US companies in the excessive distance of power. Namely, power is unevenly distributed in a good number of American companies. This is not the case in some Western European countries with developed industrial democracies and decision-making. Leaders cannot freely choose their style of behavior. They need to ask their associates what they think about the “right” distance of power between leaders and followers. Attitudes towards the importance of leadership vary in certain cultures, which is very noticeable in transnational companies that conduct their business in a number of countries.

In the literature, a large number of differentiated access to the effectiveness of the leadership . The first significant approach has been focused on identifying of the qualities that contribute to effective leadership. Other temporarily dominant approach to explaining behavior - the study of the specific behavior that exhibits an effective leader. Quite a lot of attention - the price is contingent or situational approach to leadership. Special attention is paid to the characteristics of situations in which different types of leaders (oriented to interpersonal relationships or task-oriented) are most effective. One of the most effective is a goal-oriented approach that studies how an effective leader motivates his associates. One of the popular approaches, in turn, focuses on studying situations in which the leader should involve his associates in the decision-making process. The theory of the exchange of leaders and followers focuses on the type of personal relationships that a leader develops with his followers.

Some attention has been drawn to the approach of limiting or substituting leadership that studies situations where leadership is unnecessary and when the leader is limited to exerting his influence on followers. Some attention in the literature is paid to the mood of the leader as his feelings affect the effectiveness. In recent years, the differences between men and women as leaders have been studied in particular.



General characteristics of leadership

The general characteristics of leaders in the literature are:

- Reality-based *self-confidence* . It is not just a personal trait, but it refers to the behavior of a person in different situations.
- *Honesty, integrity and credibility* .
- *Dominant personality* - the ability to influence others with one's will.
- *Extroversion* - that his thoughts and actions are directed towards things, even the people around him.
- *Ability to give explanations and explanations* . He is direct when he expresses his opinions, feelings and attitudes. He is neither aggressive nor passive.
- *Emotional stability* - is able to control emotions so that they are in line with the situation.
- *Enthusiasm* - employees react positively to the enthusiasm of leaders and consider it a reward for constructive behavior.
- *Sense of humor* . Some see it as a trait and some as behaviour.
- *The warmth* that enables relationships with people.
- *Tolerance* for frustration because the leader is often exposed to resistance to change.
- *Self-awareness and self-objectivity* . An effective leader is aware of his strengths and weaknesses.

The following are also important features of effective leaders:

- *Initiative* - he moves himself into action without support or stimulation by others. That is the proactive side of leadership.
- *Sensitivity* to others and the ability to put oneself in the position of others. It is necessary to know the attitudes and position of the group in order to be able to influence it.



- *Flexibility and adaptability*. This is necessary in the face of change. Flexibility is the ability to adapt to different situations. Without this trait, a person is capable of being a leader in only one or two situations.

- *Ability to initiate action*. He is confident in his ability to initiate action of change.

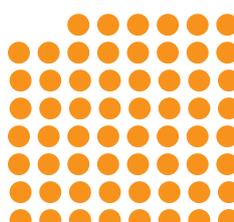
- *Courage to accept challenges and risk change*. He is ready to put his reputation on the line.

- *Elasticity* - he sets an example to others but is able to quickly deviate from something, if he sees that it leads to wrong action and results. In doing so, he tries to keep things going as normal.

An effective leader must be willing to use the power at his disposal. He must be ready to help create a leader for the future. To develop others a leader needs to know how to motivate them to learn.

They often stand out as the basic three personality traits of a leader: *intelligence*, *personality*, and *ability*. Intelligence means judgment, knowledge, expression and determination in decision making. Personality has characteristics such as adaptability, alertness, creativity, personal integrity, self-confidence and emotional stability. Priority is given to the ability to ensure cooperation, popularity and prestige, sociability (interpersonal expertise), social participation and tact.

A person's mental abilities are essential for leadership success. An intelligent and competent leader is considered to make more effective decisions than one who is less intelligent and competent. Research has shown that intelligence is more important for a directive than a non-directive leader. Intellectual ability is closely related to business knowledge. An effective leader must be technically or professionally competent in an activity, especially when leading a group of specialists. A leader's creativity means his ability to find an original solution to complex problems. Innovation is especially valued. The ability to understand people and situations is needed. Foresight is seen as the ability to understand the long-term consequences of individual decisions as well as actions taken.





Types of leaders in sports

In the theory of management, a lot is written about the leader, his abilities and characteristics. Certain classifications of leaders are made, most often depending on the personal approach to the realization of leadership.

Given the level it has in the organizational structure of the sports organization, leadership is divided into: *strategic leadership* (defining the vision and goals of the activity) and *operational leadership* (successful achievement of set goals).

In traditional organizations, most employees were not able to perform any leadership position. The success of managers was then assessed according to the ability to create a system in which the improvisation of employees is minimized, so that everything is done according to established procedures and methods. A new type of company creates a system that stimulates employees to express themselves at work.

There is a division into formal and informal leaders. A formal or appointed leader is a person appointed by an organization with appropriate authority based on the company's bylaws. A formal leader is a person whose leadership position derives from the position in which he is appointed. These include different types of managers and other executives in different areas of activity. Depending on the position and authority that gives him the place where he is, such a leader has more or less the ability to lead. And in this case, it is possible that the leader is not able to use the real possibilities of the leader, which a certain position provides him. Without personal abilities and authority, it is difficult to realize the opportunities provided by a certain position. In contrast, an informal leader becomes one because he is chosen by the members of the group as their recognized leader. Most organizational groups have a normally elected leader.

Informal leaders have great influence on group members but are not appointed by the organization. He does not have a whole set of managerial responsibilities because he does not perform all managerial functions. Informal leader can benefit or harm to an organization for - Courtesy of whether its influence encourages group members to act consistently with the goals of the organization.

From the standpoint of ethics and morality, leadership is divided into *moral and immoral*. *Moral leadership* obliges leaders to do the things they promised. It refers to values and requires that associates have better knowledge of alternatives, to make intelligent choices when it comes time to respond to the



leader's suggestion to lead. It is the kind of leadership that allows for social change that will meet the authentic needs of followers. Other people's needs and desires should be treated as their own. It is obvious that leadership has a moral dimension.

Moral values are considered absolute. For one who adheres to them they are often universal. Ethical values are associated with the national and organizational culture.

When personal characteristics and their influence on the performance of organizations are used as criteria, then three types of leaders are observed: *a person of trust*, *transitional* and *toxic (toxic)*.

A leader as a man of trust is a good and moral leader. He can be trusted to put the goals of the organization and the well-being of his followers first. He wants to prove himself and allow others to do the same if they want to. It opens the way for individuals and organizations to progress, increase productivity, growth and development.

The transition leader is occupied with himself and is selfish. It has no long-term effect on others, although it is not malicious in relation to them. He wants to be accepted by others, he is occupied with his role as a leader. He is timid. He is too careful when he decides to grow. He lets it be guided by existing events and trends.

A toxic (poisonous) leader is poorly adapted to the situation and is often malicious. It succeeds, obliging others from positions of power. He prefers to be a patron and to control, than to promote followers. It closes the growth paths of the organization. In order to hide his inadequacy for work, he is poisoned in relation to everything around him.

Employees in organizations are often inclined to expect a lot from leaders. They do the same in the case of a toxic leader, albeit with reservations. They passively let him solve problems. Instead of reacting, the employees withdraw into themselves, which leads to agony in the company. Toxic leaders are the opposite of a trusted leader. As leaders of trust open the way for progress, toxic ones close it. It is dangerous if it is not discovered early in the organization, so employees perceive them as leaders of trust, for a longer period of time.

A charismatic leader is a man whose influence and ability to lead stem from his personality. It is an individual who is characterized by a strong personality and who possesses a certain "charisma", on the basis of which he exerts influence on people. A number of military leaders, politicians and businessmen belong to this group of leaders.

A traditional leader is a person who acquires a leadership position by birth or inheritance. This group includes kings, religious leaders, tribal leaders and the



like. These people are few and they do not have to be leaders in the classical sense, although the position gives them great power, such leaders do not have to be able to use their position.

A situation leader is a person who is able to accept the role of a leader in a certain period, in different situations. He can only be successful if he is always in the right place at the right time. Given the temporary role of such a leader, he is not suitable for business situations.

These are basic characteristics of leaders . However, each leader has its own specifics. “Guru” of modern management, PhD Peter Drucker, in his own words, met many successful leaders during his long professional career: “They all differed from each other. Some of them did not leave their office, while others were often absent from it. Some were extremely pleasant (though not many), while others were rigid and inaccessible. Some were quick and impulsive, while others needed eternity and a lot of thinking until they made a decision. Some immediately talked about their family, others did not mention anything other than the specific job. Some were great listeners, but there were also those who followed only their instinct. All this confirms that there is no authentic leadership style. However, they all had one common personal characteristic - and that is that they had little or no “charisma”. They were not “born” leaders, but became leaders thanks to successful and thoughtful work. “

Drucker’s opinion on leadership is very interesting . He does not rule out the possibility that there are “born leaders”, but points out that few people depend on them. He believes that leadership can and must be learned. He believes that something like “leader’s personality”, “leadership style” and “leadership qualities” do not exist. Among the effective leaders he met in his life were very different people. What all the leaders he worked with have in common are some four things. First, the only correct definition of a leader is that it is someone who *has followers* . There are thinkers and prophets and they are undoubtedly needed people but without followers there is no leader. According to Drucker, an effective leader is not one who is loved or respected . He is someone whose followers do the right things . Popularity does not mean leadership, but results. Leaders are very visible because they set an example for their followers. Ultimate leadership is not rank, privilege, title or money. That is a responsibility.

The question is why do some managers succeed in their efforts and others do not, or why do some obviously qualified managers not achieve the expected results in the new conditions? Experts believe that the answer does not lie in the intellectual ability or knowledge that the manager has, but in his leadership qualities.



Leadership styles



One of the most important factors in interpersonal relations and the effectiveness of leaders are the styles of leadership. Although each leader has his own specific style of work, all of them can still be classified into three basic ones: autocratic, democratic and liberal.

With an autocratic leadership style, the leader holds everything in his hands. He has absolute power and seeks blind obedience. He “talks” only through legal paragraphs. Keep your distance from other members of the group. He is a single subject, and all other objects are guided. The initiative of the employees is stifled. He decides everything on his own. The “fate” of the members of the group is in his hands. He both rewards and punishes.

The autocratic leader demands that the group function in a well-established way. He does not want any relations between the members of the group, except for the official, business ones. He strives for everything to go through him, to be present everywhere, to be informed about everything.

With the autocratic style of leadership, a cult of personality is often formed. This style implies that the first presumed person has a universal knowledge. The responsibility for carrying out the task is rarely taken upon itself. It is more often transmitted to team members.

This style of leadership is sometimes even very effective. Significant results are being achieved. However, work ethic is very low. There is dissatisfaction among the members of the group. It has a negative effect on interpersonal relationships. There is a very high degree of fluctuation.

The democratic or participatory leadership style is based on the cooperation of the leader with the members of the working group. He does not make decisions alone. All members of the group are involved. They discuss, propose, decide. That is why the orders of the leader are accepted as their own.

He seems to be a devalued and disenfranchised leader here. That does not correspond to reality. If we compare these two styles of leadership, it can be seen that the difference is not in the degree of power that leaders have, but in the way they do it.



The democratic leader not only issues orders, but also tries to hear the opinions and suggestions of other members. -new new group. He not only does not forbid, but encourages communication between people. It requires everyone to get involved, engage in the planning and execution of the task. Therefore, the responsibility is not concentrated in the leader but is distributed among the members of the group, including and the leader himself.

This style creates a very suitable psychosocial atmosphere. A solid hierarchical structure is not created. All members participate in solving problems. This increases their interest in the business.

In this style of leadership, the leader must also have the professional knowledge and sense to communicate with people. It is easier to lead from a position of strength than in this way. This style implies more knowledge, abilities and patience to work with people.

From the point of view of efficiency, this style proved to be more suitable in practice than the autocratic one. It is completely appropriate for democratic circles.

Style of individual freedom (liberal or lazy style - faire style). Here the role of the leader is reduced to a minimum. It is "leadership without a leader." The leader has a major, coordinating role. He transfers the tasks to the group and registers the achieved results. The members of the group are left completely free to choose the way to perform the task. The connection between the leader and the members of the group is weak, and there is no connection between the members themselves. The responsibility for carrying out the task lies with the direct executors themselves.

The precondition for the application of this style of leadership is that there is such a division of labor and indebtedness. that everyone is directly responsible for their work. Executors must have complete independence in their work. Therefore, they need to be trained so that they can perform their work tasks on their own. Finally, it implies a high degree, not only of knowledge and responsibility, but also of consciousness and discipline. not. It is recommended or used in collectives where employees with the highest level of education (faculties, institutes, institutes, clinics) are employed.

Each of the mentioned styles has its advantages and disadvantages. Which of them will be applied in practice depends on the specific circumstances: type of work, nature of the task , the people themselves - knowledge, independence, responsibility. In practice, all three styles are often combined.



Motives of the leader

Being a leader means both satisfaction and frustration . The satisfaction that someone has because he is a formal leader depends on a certain leadership position. Factors such as the amount of money received and the group to which it belongs affect satisfaction. The literature lists a number of sources of satisfaction experienced by a leader:

- *A sense of power and attention* . By becoming an individual leader, he acquires a certain power automatically. Prestige is gained because many people think very highly of people who are leaders.

- *Opportunity to help others* . The leader works directly with GA - smoke and helping them to acquire the expertise to solve business problems.

- *High earnings* . If money is the motive to be a leader, then great satisfaction is gained. There is always more than other members of the top management team.

- *Respect and status* . He often received respect from associates. He has a higher status than others. When his qualifications are aligned with the position, his status is even higher.

- *Good opportunity for advancement* . Gaining a leadership position is a vital step in creating a career in a number of organizations.

- *The feeling that you are a "participant in the events"* . Much more inside information is obtained.

- *Ability to control money and other sources* . Many leaders in larger organizations control significant financial resources.

Some refuse to accept the role of leader because it can be a source of much dissatisfaction and frustration:

- *Too much unpaid overtime* .

- *A lot of "headaches"* . Those who cannot withstand stress are afraid of leadership positions.

- *Insufficient authority to deal with responsibilities* . This is especially true if he has to cooperate with the incompetent and cannot replace them.

- *Loneliness* . The higher the leader, the more lonely he is. He communicates with a very limited number of people.

- *Too many problems with people* . Most of the frustration comes from working with people. The lower the leadership position, the more it deals with people.



- There are *too many organizational policies that a leader must know about*. That leader can hardly avoid. Political tactics such as forming alliances and coalitions are part of the role of leaders.

- *Striving to achieve continuous goals* (long-term in relation to short-term, maintenance or changes, etc).

The term expertise refers to the ability of a leader to perform various activities in the leadership process. Like traits and expertise is determined by shared learning and heritage. There are usually three types of expertise: technical, interpersonal and conceptual. Technical expertise is primarily related to subjects, interpersonal for people and conceptual for ideas and concepts.

Leadership can exist at all levels of the fragmented organizational structure of a modern enterprise. The essence of the role of a leader is persuasion - to inspire followers to unite in an effort to achieve the goals of the group and the organization. For the group to do something she should have known of - mostly questions of why and how. The leader must have a major role in *akcen - aw ay* goals of the group. A leader must learn from experience and be able to adapt to the situation.





Leadership approaches

By the nature of things, the CEO of a company is expected to have leadership skills. He has to learn that at work based on the experience of how to run a company. He learns leadership under the supervision of all the company's stakeholders. He must create a guiding philosophy that determines his approach to leadership. The approach implies which areas of business policy (for example, strategic planning, research and development or human resources) occupy his greatest attention, which type of people and behavior he values most in the company, which decisions he makes personally and which he delegates and how he spends his working day. A leadership approach is a coherent, explicit management style rather than a reflection of a personal style. That is the basic distinction. Leaders should not choose a style that suits them personally, but an approach that best suits the needs of the organization and its business situation. There are several approaches that can be used in practice.

The first is strategic . Those who use this approach believe that their most important job is to create, test and design the implementation of a long-term strategy. These CEOs dedicate up to 80% of their time to the external environment of the company, and less to business control. Another approach is to treat staff as a priority asset of the company . The point is the administration - its growth and development of individuals in the company. The goal is to have people at all levels in the organizational structure who make decisions as he would do himself. The third is the expert approach . General di - rector believes that its primary task is to select areas of the company where expertise is the basis for competitive advantage in the market. The fourth approach aims to create a system of control - financial, cool - touring or both - which will ensure uniformity and predictability in the behavior of employees in serving their customers. The fifth is the approach to change , that is, the continuous renewal of the organization, even if the environment does not always react favorably to it. In the most successful companies, CEOs record the situation well, establish what the company expects from its leader and choose the approach to leadership that best meets these requirements.

Today, it is considered that leadership skills can be learned. It is necessary to create conditions that favor the development of talent, which can become a significant source of competitive advantage for the company. Creating a leader is in itself the responsibility of leadership. If talents are developed by gaining different



experience, you need to find people who need to gain experience.

Leadership and power

There are several sources of power that a leader can use. Each of the sources of power a leader can possess to a different degree. The use of one power affects the others. The tendency to use power can result in greater effectiveness if power is used successfully by a leader while failure to use power can have the opposite effect.

Acquiring power largely depends on the type of power he wants to acquire. Therefore, anyone who wants to gain power must understand the mechanism of acquiring power, that is, the different types of power that exist and the sources and emergence of these types of power.

For the first time, the basics or sources of power are discussed in a systematic way in a study by the University of Michigan Institute in the late 1950s. The study identified six bases of power: 1. *the power of reward* , 2. *the power of coercion* , 3. *the legitimate power* , 4. *the power of reference* , 5. *the power of experts* and 6. *the power of information* .

The first three sources arise from positional power and the other three from personal power.





Sources of positional power

An important source of power in the organization is the position of the leader in the company. A certain position in the hierarchy of authority gives the leader theoretical power. How real that power will be depends on the personality of the leader. There are usually three types of positional power: the power of reward, coercive and legitimate power.

The power of reward refers to the leader's privilege of being able to reward the right person. The leader is in a position to be able to increase the salary, to determine bonuses, to give oral and written praise, as well as to give other privileges to those who he believes have deserved it with their work. The power of reward is "Carrot", and the power of coercion is "beating".

The power of coercion is based on authority or the possibility of punishment if the job is not done properly, or the employee is insufficiently engaged or does not behave appropriately. Sometimes this can only end with verbal reprimands, or other milder or more severe punishments. In more drastic cases, there may be a proposal for exclusion from the organization.

Legitimate power is based on the formal control of the authorities. The leader gives directions and subordinates according to what he thinks is best for the given situation. Using his position, he convinces people of the need to perform a given job in the way he has determined.

It comes from a position in the managerial hierarchy and authority based on that position.

Legitimate power is based on the willingness of others to accept it. That is why orders that are known in advance not to be executed should not be given. It is important that the requirements and directives are given clearly, that the persons to whom they are addressed fully understand them.



Sources of personal power

Sources of personal power derive from personal characteristics and skills of manager. This, above all, refers to leadership abilities, and not to positional power. Personal power refers to *reference*, *expert* and *information power*.

Referent power is a very important feature of the leader. It is the ability to make people do what he wants, through admiration and identification with him as a leader. Reference power comes from charisma or from the attractiveness of the leader in communicating with other people.

It is necessary to maintain these features and develop them in order to last as long as possible. Positional power is never enough in an effort to subordinate to do what they want. They also need to have strong personal power, which is the main characteristic of a leader, through expertise and reference power.

The manager should always be ready to acquire new knowledge and information in order to be always up to date and to be able to respond to the complex problems that are set before him. It is certain that in solving these problems, where possible, it should be left to employees to contribute through the delegation of power where their expertise allows it.

Expert power is based on knowledge and talent. An individual with the power of an expert is in a situation to influence others, because it can be seen that he has knowledge and talent in a given field. The power of experts is based on expertise that others do not possess.

It is often necessary to use expertise and give the right arguments in favor of a decision. The leader must avoid making contradictory decisions or taking an inconsistent position. Trust increases if expertise is demonstrated. That is why managers are obliged to constantly improve, to be up to date with the latest knowledge.

Information power is based on access to and control over the distribution of important information about a company's business and its plans. In a modern company, the emphasis is on controlling vital information, because power goes along with those who control important information. It is very important to be constantly, well and timely informed.

In addition to the above six bases or sources of power, some very important sources are being talked about and written about today. This is how the power of a position based on formal authority is spoken of. He believes that legitimate power,



the power of reward, the power of coercion and the power of information arise from the power of position. The power of a position is the power gained from an organization.

Personal or personal power derives from personality characteristics. From the behavior and characteristics of the one who possesses power, the power of the expert, the reference power and the power of prestige emerge. It is all characterized as personal power, because it is derived from the person before the organization. The power of prestige stems from status and reputation. A manager who has important business successes behind him gains the power of prestige.

According to new research, personal power is leadership power, that is, the use of personal power. To effectively use a position of power a leader needs to have characteristics such as: integrity, initiative and desire to lead, expertise in command, and emotional stability. Sometimes power is gained from intimacy, that is, intimacy with those who have power.

Political power includes control over the decision-making process, coalition building, and co-opting into the board of directors of people of influence in the economy and society. Politics is the acquisition, development and use of power in achieving goals.

Ownership is an undoubted source of power in a company. Leaders hold executive management positions in the company and gain power in their function as someone who works on behalf of shareholders (company owners). The strength of ownership depends on how closely the leader is connected to shareholders and board members. His power increases if he is also a shareholder of the company. Then there is less danger of losing his job.

Power is also gained by the ability to provide the scarce resources a company needs to gain a competitive advantage. Practice has shown that the one who loses control over the sources also loses power. An individual or organizational unit that can provide resources gains power. Power is also gained when someone is in the right place at the right time and takes appropriate action. A leader expands his power by meeting the needs of the company at the right time. A leader who successfully implements a turn strategy gains more power in the company.

The various sources of power and influence on which it is based are the basis for three known types of leadership: transactional, charismatic, and transformational.

Transactional leadership is based on coercion. Power is derived from rewards and punishments, which are determined and exercised by the leader. The power of influence is the power of effects on each other and results from the effects of individuals, but also from the coordination of actions of several people. Transactional



leadership is control over others.

Charismatic leaders base their power on the degree to which followers identify with them. There is a danger that charismatic leaders translate their quest for power into the need for directive, control, and even domination over others. From an ethical point of view, that is very important. Firstly, because it is often in practice, and secondly, it leaves major consequences.

Transformational leadership, unlike transactional and charismatic, differs in the behavior of a leader who seeks to influence employees by internalizing certain values. In contrast to the transactional and charismatic leader, the transformation leader seeks to define and make explicit the important values that leaders and employees have in common. That is why the transformation leader is seen by many as a servant rather than a boss in the organization. A transformational leader does not base his power on rewards and punishments. We are going to authorize associates. Empowering leaders and associates is driven by a shared vision. There are situations when transformational leaders can act in a way that not only generates a charismatic feeling among followers but also consciously creates and exploits that charismatic effect.

Leaders and followers

Leadership is defined as a way of behaving that influences others. It is also defined as an instrument for achieving goals. Namely, leadership is a process in which an individual influences a group of people to achieve a goal. Without influence there is no leadership. A group or organization is the context in which leadership is achieved. Leaders are not above followers or better than them, they perform different roles. Leaders and followers need to understand each other.

Leadership does not exist without followers. In order for a group or organization to do something, they need to know why and how. Leaders must have followers and this does not require the existence of a formal organization. The qualities needed by a leader become more complex as responsibilities and job structures expand.

There is a kind of exchange between leaders and followers. Namely, different types of relationships are created between leaders and followers, and it is not easy to understand what someone gives and receives from that relationship. Relationships



in the group between leaders and followers are characterized by trust, loyalty and cooperation. Followers develop relationships with the leader of their choice, not necessarily with those who have authority over them. In organizations, the same people are not leaders in all situations.

The leader should constantly demonstrate special competence that followers respect. Otherwise, his authority is in question. Only the business success of the company maintains the leader's authority. The freedom of the leader to choose solutions brings a sense of independence and allows him to look at his own interest, to evaluate alternatives from the point of view of benefits and costs. In order to make rational choices, an individual must learn to suppress feelings and impulses. Businesses need talented people who can improve business performance continuously. Unfortunately, imagination and creativity are not qualities that a large number of people possess. In addition to a leader who needs to lead, a successful organization needs followers who know how to follow. Therefore, ineffective followers can be a handicap for an organization. It is considered that effective followers should have the following characteristics:

- *To manage themselves well*. That they are able to think for themselves. To be able to work independently and without direct supervision.

- *That they are attached to the group, organization and idea*, despite the fact that they take care of themselves. Most people like to work with colleagues who are emotionally attached to their work.

- *To create their competence* and focus their efforts on achieving the best possible results. To improve in their profession, to be useful to their organization and to have higher standards of performance than the job or organizational unit requires.

- *That they are brave, honest, reliable and efficient followers* and set themselves up as independent thinkers whose creative opinion and assessments can be trusted.

They should have high ethical standards. They praise when it is needed, but they are not afraid to point out mistakes. Of course, they do it with the best of intentions.

Leadership is the process of directing and influencing activities relevant to achieving the goals of group members. This definition of leadership has three implications. First, it is people - associates or followers - who are willing to accept directives from leaders and make the leadership process possible, because without associates all the qualities of a leader become irrelevant. Second, leadership involves an unequal distribution of power between leaders and group members. The



members of the group are not powerless. They can and do perform group activity in a variety of ways. Yet it is normal for a leader to have more power. Power is the right to influence, that is, to change the attitudes or behavior of group members. The third aspect of leadership is the ability to use different forms of power to influence associates to behave in a certain way. An impact is any action or behavior that causes changes in the attitudes or behavior of other people or a group as a whole.

Gaining followers for change is the goal of leadership in modern companies. True leadership is finding solutions to adapt to changes in the modern global economy. Managers decide for themselves, and leaders use employees to find a common solution. This introduces certain disturbances in the company, because employees need to learn new roles. The way the business is done in the company is changing. The leader must always keep in mind the context and therefore it is not good to be self-engaged in the implementation of the solution. A leader must know how capable employees are of learning new ways of doing things. It is very important to create confidence that the job can be done in a new way.

It should always be borne in mind that the interaction of leaders and followers does not take place in a vacuum but is located in a historical and cultural framework and certain institutional conditions. These conditions affect the character of the interaction and the attributes of leadership. Great leaders emerge when their attributes are aligned with the context and conditions in which they operate.

It is believed that leadership should be a balance between a directive style that shows direction and a milder one that maximizes the potential of individuals in the organization. Borders are needed. Within the limits of the work takes place, and after - only children have the freedom to be creative and to take responsibility for their actions. Boundaries allow the leader to be both - the one who enables and the one who maintains. Leadership is not so much what the leader does but how much he influences those around him. But what he does largely determines the degree of influence on his followers. The ways in which leadership behavior influences followers is communicating messages of what is expected and what can be achieved. The leader communicates the goals of the organization through actions and behaviors using an appropriate form of communication.

Empowerment of staff is related to the transformational leader - leadership. The emphasis shifts from the leader as an individual with certain personal characteristics, to the leader of the organization. The focus changes from the effectiveness of the leader to the effectiveness of the organization. The end result is empowered leadership - empowerment. Not only the profits and earnings



that usually accompany empowerment, but also the culture of the organization is important so that employees understand the meaning of their work and have the desire to change, to improve the success of the organization.



MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

Managers and leaders as individuals

When it comes to leadership and leaders, it is necessary to make a parallel and distinction between managers and leaders. Although both the manager and the leader guide people in performing certain activities, there are significant differences between them. The manager performs all sub-processes of management: planning, organizing, staffing, leading and controlling. Its role is reflected, above all, in planning goals and actions, organizing and leading people to their execution, as well as in controlling execution. The leader deals only with guiding people and directing them and motivating them to follow them in achieving the future goals and strategic visions of the company.



A manager does not have to be a leader, and also, a leader does not have to be a manager. Managers have the formal authority on which they act, while leaders do not have to have it. They may have informal power provided by the role of leader. The manager, therefore, has an officially assigned function, an official position in the organization, which allows him to perform his managerial tasks. A manager must be successful in doing the work he is in charge of, but he does not have to be successful in influencing other people to follow and listen to him.

A leader does not have to have an official function or position in the organization, but he can still convince other people to follow and listen to him. He has a special ability, a special power or authority, which enables him to convince and motivate people to follow him and do what he tells them. For every company, ie for every organization, it is very important to have managers with the characteristics of leaders, that is - leaders in managerial affairs. This means that there is a manager who is a leader, and he leads people from the official managerial position in the organization to achieve changes and strategic goals of the company. Managers with leadership characteristics are the most important for the successful development of any organization. Because only managerial leaders can lead good and successful organizations and realize the strategic visions of the company.

In today's complex environment of changing environments, companies cannot adapt to change and move forward without managerial leadership. Only strategically oriented leaders, who can predict future events and actions, can lead people to follow them in realizing the planned actions and changes.

In the Western world, especially in the United States, it is believed that modern companies have too many managers and too few leaders. This is, among other things, presented as a significant shortcoming that hinders the rapid development of companies and leads to the fact that companies in Japan work much more productively and efficiently compared to similar companies in the West.

If we want to briefly list the main differences between managers and leaders, then, first of all, it is necessary to emphasize that the manager is a man who knows how to adapt well to different situations and conditions in the company, while the leader is a man who strives for innovation and with them he tries to bring the company on the path of progress. The manager strives to achieve stable business conditions and, on that basis, more efficient results, while the leader strives exclusively to introduce changes that bring a better position in the future and more efficient results.

The manager bases his approach to leadership on a rational approach to planning and controlling jobs and tasks, in order to achieve positive business



results, while the leader creates his own vision of the future place and business of the company, and directs and leads people to achieve that vision. The manager tries to follow the known paths in the realization of his managerial functions, and to take as few risks as possible. The leader consciously takes the risk, because only in that way can he achieve the future goals and strategies that he has foreseen and defined. Risk is a part of the daily business and behavior of a leader, and a companion of future actions and events to which he aspires.

The main question in this area is: what can a leader - is primarily different from the managers, what's two - me and makes specific? The first studies in this area focused on personal characteristics. Price - line has been that some people are born leaders, and that leadership is an inborn talent. If that were so, it would be extremely easy to identify features which makes people leaders, or leaders who have and do not have them "ordinary people". If we identify these properties, it would be relatively simple to be able to choose people for the position - is in need of a leader. However, the matter is far more complex. As in many other areas of life, a little talent, developed emotional intelligence, a lot of knowledgeable - and I work on it, are the basic prerequisites for the development of leaders.

The question is, how do they differ from other managers in the organization? There are highly efficient individuals who work quickly, concentrated, and perform their tasks properly. But if you ask them to start teams for big changes, to carry out a revolution in terms of reorganization, that would be very difficult.

Managers are, however, crucial layer control in all organizations. Management provides the basic preconditions for the efficient functioning of an organization, but leadership is needed to take the organization further, often with courage - into new changes. The complexity of daily operations management up - are run through planning and organizing, conducting a true organization begins with the development vision and communication between those who are on the road of realizing vision. The leaders are great communicators, have a developed sense of empathy and human them in the truth - ski respect.

Management realizes the plan for organizing and control and leadership reaches whose inspiration people. Leaders inspire faith and create energy that moves people to action. The manager therefore develops control, while the leader builds trust. It is often said that a manager asks how and when, a leader asks what and why. The point is that the manager in essence administrator, he maintains the system working status - it performs "minor repairs and regular check-ups." Managers can also contribute to business growth by doing the same thing they do all the time, only a little better, faster and more efficiently.



So the manager maintains, and the leader develops. It follows that the manager of struggling with the complexity and the lid - also with uncertainty. Due to the fact that mainly works the same actions and fight for accuracy of the system is considered to be the manager - imitator, and that the leader - the innovator. That is why the manager works with certainty, and the leader with probability.

Sometimes the differences between a manager and a leader are dramatized: the manager implements, and the leader innovates; the manager is a copy and the leader is the original; the manager has a focus on systems and structures, and the leader is focused on people; managers rely on control, and the leader inspires behavior; the manager has a short-term and the leader a long-term view; the manager asks how and when, and the leader asks what and why; the manager focuses his eyes on the baseline of the performance, and the leader on the horizon; the manager imitates, and the leader is original; the manager accepts the status quo, and the leader questions it; the manager is a classic good soldier, and the leader is a special person.

While leaders create the mission of the organization and create strategies to achieve it, managers are responsible for its realization. In practice, many leaders are responsible for managerial affairs. Hence, although there is a distinction between leaders and managers, the difference is often blurred in practice.

Management and leadership as processes

The problems that companies face in the 21st century can hardly be solved well without successful organizations, and organizations cannot be successful without effective leadership. All other sources that it lacks (technology, capital, etc.) the company can obtain with more or less effort. However, companies that do not have leadership have limited chances to face the problems that the globalization of the world economy brings. In the absence of leadership they continue to deal with those which have been practicing, and the way in this field. The improvement of existing routines and existing business orientation continues.

Kotter is the most important author who makes a clear distinction between management and leadership. His thesis is that leadership and management are two different and complementary systems of action. Each system of action has its own functions and characteristics. Both systems are needed in the modern



economy. According to him, management refers to dealing with complexity, and leadership to dealing with change. Businesses manage the complexity of planning and budgeting activities. On the contrary, leadership is setting the direction, the vision of the future with the strategy for leading change to realize the vision. Management creates the ability to realize the plan by organizing (providing the necessary staff and creating an organizational structure). Leadership is connecting people, conceiving a new direction that creates a coalition that understands the vision and is interested in its realization. Management relies on control and problem solving, and leadership requires motivation and inspiration for people to go in the right direction. Since the function of leadership is to bring about change, that vision or setting the direction of change is fundamental to leadership.

When the environment in which a company conducts its business activity changes, it becomes clear that the leadership expertise of managers must be increased. Namely, managers can be leaders. In general, managers solve problems rationally, and leaders are more intuitive and more visionary. Leaders are primarily interested in the results.

Moving from manager to leader requires a significant change in their position and role in the company. The manager is understood as the “boss” in the company, and the leader trains associates for action. The manager strives to control people, and the leader to empower them to express their professional abilities more freely. Managers often seek to centralize authority, and leaders tend to “distribute” leadership to have it at multiple levels in the organization. Managers are often internally oriented and mostly deal with problems in their company, and leaders are externally oriented and deal with events in the environment and the place of the company in the branch and economy. Managers emphasize the obedience of their associates, and leaders win them over to cooperation. Managers are predominantly focused on tasks and figures, and leaders on quality, services, and consumers. Managers make changes out of necessity or in a crisis situation, and leaders are continuously learning and prone to innovations of various kinds.

Many see the differences between leaders and managers in their specific characteristics. The manager is characterized by - resource power, the leader - integrative power. The manager is characterized by a hierarchical position, and the leader by consciousness management. The manager plans, organizes and controls, and the leader creates and leads change. The manager implements, and the leader creates the vision. The manager strives to achieve the highest possible efficiency, and the leader strives to achieve the highest possible efficiency. The manager wants stable business conditions, and the leader perceives turbulent conditions as



a challenge and an opportunity.

Modern management realizes its essence through the following phases:

- *Planning and budgeting* - setting goals for the future, defining the stages to achieve these goals, which includes determining the time, job sketches and allocating resources to achieve these plans.

- *Organizing and providing staff* - establishing the organizational structure and determining the tasks for the implementation of the plan, appointing individuals to jobs that are qualified, communicating the plan, delegating responsibility to do the job and implement the plan and setting up a monitoring system.

- *Control and problem solving* - monitoring the results in relation to the plan in detail, formally and informally through reports, standards and the like, identifying deviations that are usually called "problem" and then planning and organizing to solve problems.

While management ensures order and consistency, leadership does not, it produces movement. Always the leaders brought a change, sometimes for the better and sometimes not. Leadership is associated with constructive and participatory change. This is accomplished through the following activities:

- *Determining the direction* - by creating a vision of the future, often for the future, together with strategies to implement the intended changes in order to achieve the vision.

- *Connecting people* - communicating the direction to those who cooperate, it is necessary to create a coalition that understands the vision and is ready to make it happen.

- *Motivation and inspiration* ensures that people move in the right direction, according to important, but often unclear needs of people, values and emotions.

Management and leadership defined in this way are similar. Both include what needs to be decided to do something, creating a network of people and relationships that can achieve a given goal. Both are complex systems of action. Those who say - lasting that management is only part of the implementation of leadership forget chi - The fact that the leadership has its own application process: connecting people to new direction, inspiring them to achieve it. It is similar with those who think of leadership as part of management - the aspect of motivation, ignoring the aspect of guidance in leadership.

Management provides a degree of predictability and order and has the potential for consistency by delivering the key results expected by different stakeholders. Leadership results in change often to a dramatic degree and has the potential to do so. Leadership results in beneficial change, and management



results in regular results that enable efficiency. This is not to say that management is never associated with change in tandem with effective leadership. It can help bring about a real process of change. However, management itself never leads to significant radical changes. Both systems are needed for an organization to thrive.

Setting a direction in leadership does not result in a plan, but in creating a vision and strategy. The process of guidance, once it begins, proceeds continuously, although it usually goes through periods of large and small activities. Neither plans, nor visions and strategies are substitutes for each other, because they serve different purposes.

In leadership, networking refers to getting people to stand behind the vision and set of strategies, to successfully deal with problems in the environment in which the company conducts its business activity. The main challenge of communicating is to contact a large number of people so that they understand and believe in the vision and strategy. Connecting helps to ensure better organization and use of people in the company.

Charismatic leadership theory

The essence of charismatic leadership is that it is based on the personal charisma of the leader, on the basis of which he attracts a large number of followers. According to this understanding, the leader creates and develops specific relationships with followers, which inspires them and gives them the strength to achieve success even in the most difficult moments. Charismatic leaders are able to motivate subordinates so much that they can even exceed their expectations. They have a clear vision and a developed value system. They create an atmosphere of change and are full of ideas. This type of leader is dynamic, restless, and less predictable than other types of leaders.

It is paradoxical, but there are two contradictory positions of forming the image of a leader. One denies any influence of the leader on organizational effectiveness at all, and the other overemphasizes the importance of it and leads to the formation of leadership charisma and the attempt of followers to attribute to the leader almost magical, and in some cases divine qualities, (Stalin, Hitler). Charisma is



a form of influencing others through personal attraction, which evokes support and recognition and provides the bearer of charisma with power over followers. Many believe that the acquisition of charisma is related to the ability of leaders to find their fans and admirers, and even to change their composition depending on the situation. Others define charisma as the sum of specific leadership qualities. Based on that, the concept of charismatic leadership was created, which is in its essence a continuation of the concept of attributive leadership and which is built by a combination of characteristics and behaviors of leaders.

A leader who is able to leave a strong impression on his followers with the strength of his personal qualities is considered charismatic. Leaders of this type have a strong desire for power, have a strong need for action, and are convinced of the moral correctness of what they stand for and what they believe in. The desire for power motivates them in their efforts to become leaders. Belief in their correctness reinforces this need. Such a person's desire for activity leaves the impression, in people, that he is capable of being a leader. These qualities develop such characteristics of charismatic behavior as role shaping, creating a pattern of behavior, the ability to present big goals as realistic and accessible, awakening hope for success and inspiration for work with followers.

Research shows that charisma has a negative side (usurpation of personal power, or completely directing the leader to emphasize his personality), but also a positive side (distribution of power between leaders and followers and their strong motivation).

In general, the charismatic leader is characterized by belief in themselves, a high sense of environment, vision solutions to the problems in and out of the current situation, input reduction of vision to a level that is understandable and acceptable for followers and fans, inserted mobilizing and encouraging the masses to exceptional activity for the realization of its visions.

Models of charismatic leadership differ in the degree of development of charisma itself and in the relationship with followers. But the process of creation is, for the most part, standard. It is believed that the problem should be demystified first so that it can be criticized later. Next, a vision of idealized solutions to that problem needs to be created. The vision should contain a new proposal that no one has announced before, as well as that what is being proposed means a radical and quick solution to the problem.

The next step involves the ability of the leader to communicate his vision to the followers. The way of communication must be spectacular, have a very convincing effect on the masses and mobilize them. In order to gain followers around him,



the leader must create relationships of trust, demonstrate his abilities, knowledge, skills, taking the risk and responsibility for the successful outcome of the radical measures he proposes. In the last phase, the leader is obliged to demonstrate the ability to realize his vision. He accomplishes this by delegating authority to his followers. He includes them in the decision-making process, entrusts them with the realization of difficult and important tasks, removes various bureaucratic barriers, and rewards them for the achieved results. Experience shows that in ordinary situations, charismatic leadership does not necessarily require major business results. It approaches this, especially when the followers strongly ideologize their desires and the ways of their realization. In business, the importance of charismatic leadership grows as the need to implement radical changes in the organization, in relation to the critical situation. In these situations, a different concept of leadership is born - the concept of a transitional leader or a reformer leader.

Charismatic leadership is characterized by the emotional attachment of followers to the leader. Followers accept the leader primarily out of respect and identify with him.

Charismatic leadership is possible under certain conditions. The beliefs of the followers must be similar to those of the leader. Unconditional acceptance and commitment to the leader must exist. Members of a group or organization are willing to listen to the leader, and must be emotionally involved in the mission of the charismatic leader. Followers must have a strong desire to identify with the leader. Some believe that charismatic leaders have followers who are susceptible to influence and dependent. That explains the acceptance of a self-confident and directive charismatic leader. Followers are more likely to attribute charisma to leaders who use personal power and successful persuasion performances than to those who use authority or a participatory decision-making process. A leader who seems confident in his proposal will be seen as charismatic rather than one who is in doubt or confused. If the leader does not show confidence in communication, the success of the innovated strategy will be attributed to happy circumstances, rather than to his expertise. The leader's self-confidence and enthusiasm are very important.

Charismatic leadership is seen primarily as a collective rather than a dual process. Personal identification with a leader may occur for some followers, but social identification is more important as a process of influence. People who identify with a group or organization become proud to be a part of something and view their membership (in a group or organization) as their most important



identity. A charismatic leader can increase social identification. Giving a group a unique identity that is different from others (groups and organizations) makes it look special.

Numerous conditions contribute to the emergence of charismatic leadership. The charismatic leader will likely find when an organization has a mission that can be associated with the values of followers, and their identity, charismatic leaders before appearing in the organization that are in the establishment where it is not clear what should be done to ensure the survival and prosperity. These conditions favor the role of a leader who is able to define a crisis situation and offer compelling strategy for successfully coping with the crisis. However, the charismatic effect of such leaders will be temporary if the vision is not continuously realized, as the immediate crisis is overcome. Charismatic leaders can also emerge in organizations that have the opportunity to undertake a new activity that is acceptable to the followers as an idea.

Charismatic leaders transform the needs, values, preferences and aspirations of followers from personal interests to common interests. They enable followers to become very willing to personally commit and sacrifice for the realization of the leader's mission and to work beyond what is their obligation.

That is why a leader who engages in very different and idealized visions and who uses unconventional ways to realize the vision, is seen by employees as a charismatic leader. Especially if he takes a high personal risk.

Numerous characteristics of a charismatic leader are listed in the literature:

- *Vision* . A charismatic leader offers an exceptional image of the path the organization should take and how to get there. A vision is more than a prediction because it describes an ideal version of the future of an entire organization or organizational unit.

- *Mastery of communication skills* . To inspire people, a charismatic leader uses a special way of expression with many metaphors and anecdotes.

- *Ability to inspire the trust* of group members (organizations) and stakeholders. They are very confident in the integrity of the charismatic leader and are willing to risk their careers to realize his vision.

- *Ability to make group members feel capable*. One of the techniques to make group members feel more capable is to enable them to succeed on relatively easier projects. The leader encourages group members to achieve success and gives them more complex tasks.

- *Energy and action orientation*. As entrepreneurs, many charismatic leaders are active and serve as a model to get things done on time.



- *Emotional expressiveness and warmth.* A key characteristic of a charismatic leader is his ability to openly express his feelings. This also applies to non-verbal expressions.

- *Willingness to take personal risk.* A charismatic leader is typically risk-averse, which contributes to his charisma.

- *Using unconventional strategies .* A charismatic leader inspires others by formulating unusual strategies for achieving important goals.

- *A self-promoting person .* A charismatic leader is not modest and he always emphasizes how important he is.

- *Ability to appear during a crisis .* Earlier, it was pointed out that the charismatic leader appears in response to the crisis. This is typical of political leadership.

- *Minimum intimate contacts .* A charismatic leader is confident and convinced that he is right, even if he encounters opposition. He has fewer internal conflicts between emotions, impulses, feelings and their consequences than most people. Because he believes that he is right, he has less guilt due to incompatibility with his associates.

Newer theories of charismatic leadership have several characteristics. First, they all try to explain how a leader is able to lead an organization - to achieve more significant results. It can be a leading position of the company in the branch, a successful strategy of turning in a very competitive environment, as well as major social reforms. Second, theories of this paradigm seek to explain how certain leaders are able to achieve an extraordinary level of follower motivation, appreciation, loyalty, and performance. Third, they emphasize symbolic and emotional performances in the behavior of leaders, as well as visionary, a certain degree of risk-taking. Fourth, the effects include leadership commitment, sensitivity and identification with the leader's vision, stimulation and performance trail - servants.

From an ethical point of view, it is an interesting and very important fact that charismatic leadership can be used for ill-intentioned purposes. According to some, charismatic leaders are experts in the promise of utopia. Since the goal is ideal, many actions are initiated according to the rule "the goal justifies the means". Sometimes actions are taken for immoral purposes, and followers, since they blindly follow the leader because of their referential power, are set up in a certain way.

It was noted several serious problems that occur with charismatic leaders, which in some cases can occur in charismatic political leader. First are bad interpersonal relationships. Some are so narcissistic that they don't pay attention



to others. Second, there are negative consequences of impulsive and uncontrolled behavior. That is why people's attitude towards the charismatic leader is polarized - some adore him and some despise him. Third, there are negative consequences management through impressions. New charismatic leaders strive to create the impression that they are exceptional and that they are very important to the organization. Charismatic leaders deny responsibility for mistakes. Negative charismatically leaders are not willing to learn from mistakes. Fourth, poor governance - detachments practice. The reason for that is only the preoccupation with the whole and the lack of ability to notice the details of everyday work. They are good at defining but not implementing the vision. Fifth, the negative consequences are confident charismatic leader as he often lost in the facing problems of applying vision.

These are leaders who do not have many restrictions on the use of power so that they can best serve their interests. It is a leader who imposes his goals on a group or organization and respects employees only if they support his goals. His followers are usually dependent, obedient, and can be more easily influenced.

The third type is a charismatic leader who is more in position has in the organization, rather than personal characteristics and therefore enjoys trust while in office. If he has a high position, he also has a high status.

The fourth type is a personal-charismatic leader. He is the opposite of the third type. He is a leader whom his followers trust because of his personal qualities. He enjoys respect regardless of the position he occupies, due to his personal qualities and characteristics.





Transformational leadership

This leadership emerged from the waves of major organizational changes that took place in the 1980s.

Transitional leadership or leadership for change has many similarities with charismatic leadership, but also certain specifics, which is why it is analyzed separately. Leadership for change is tied to leaders who have a vision and have the ability to drive innovation and change. These leaders are able to devise a vision of change, as well as the strategy and tactics of achieving it. The relationships they establish with their followers are not based on order, but on voluntary cooperation, trust, joint sharing of results and responsibilities. The reforming leader motivates followers by increasing their level of knowledge of the importance and value of set goals, explains the possibility of harmonizing their personal interests with the general social ones, creating an atmosphere of trust and convincing followers of the necessity of relying on their own strength.

A reforming leader is a transformer, a bearer of change, not a savior. He announces creativity, not routine. Behind it is reality, not myths. He leads followers from result to result, not from promise to promise. It directs people to work and not to dividends. His goal is not to change the world, but to change the world, through development.

The model of transformational or reformist leadership implies such a character of leaders and followers that can be used for creative problem solving in crisis situations. The model has a number of specifics. First, it is considered necessary for a leader to gain his followers through their involvement in management, to be part of the collective himself, and not to “stand above it”. He enthusiastically supports joint efforts. Followers are not asked to blindly follow the leader, but to critically evaluate the set goals and the announced path of their realization, reduce the influence of emotions, and increase rationality in behavior. Second, if the atmosphere of trust grows into a strong interdependence between the leader and the followers, then there is a serious danger that the leader will surround himself with like-minded people, or vice versa, that the leader will start following the followers. These two traditional approaches are not suitable for a reformist leader.



Precisely because of that possible use, but also the abuse of charisma, it must always be considered in the context of certain moral principles. This is how the *model of a moral and immoral charismatic leader* was created. While an immoral charismatic leader uses power solely to pursue personal interests, a moral charismatic leader does so in the interests of others. An immoral charismatic leader expands his personal vision, and a moral one creates a vision in accordance with the needs of the company and the interests of his followers. An immoral leader does not tolerate criticism of his work, either publicly or secretly.

If that happens, he strongly opposes it and immediately interrupts it. A moral leader even stimulates criticism. He understands this as a well-meaning conversation and tries to learn lessons for himself from it.

The immoral charismatic leader insists on the strict execution of his orders, without discussion. A moral leader asks followers to take a creative approach to carrying out his orders.

An immoral leader communicates one-way, from himself down to his associates. Communication is sparse, short, sharp. It comes down to command. A moral leader prefers two-way communication. He is ready to issue orders, but he also wants to hear feedback.

An immoral leader has no ear for the needs and problems of his followers. He attributes all the glory of success to himself, and blames others for his failures. A moral leader, on the other hand, has a lot of understanding for the needs and problems of his associates. He shares the glory of success with others. He tries to emphasize everyone's merit in that. He also bravely stands behind personal failure.

An immoral leader often invokes some external moral standards that support him, and a moral leader also invokes and relies on internal moral standards to meet the interests of the organization and society.





CONCLUSION

When we talk about leadership in sports, we primarily mean coaches and athletes who have the role of team captain. However, today we must by no means neglect whose sports managers the role and position increasingly gained in importance and responsibility. Insufficiently informed individuals they often confuse the roles and activities of sports managers with the role of a club coach. Lawrence points out that the title of manager in British football is clearly different from coaching, and that it is very close to the responsibilities that head coaches have in American sports or sports directors.

While Weinberg and Gould consider the roles of manager and leader differing from each other, Crust and Lawrence point out that the role of a football manager sums up in itself elements of both roles. While management implies leadership, leaders do not necessarily be and managers. The role of the manager is to maximize the results of the organization through organizing, planning, staffing, guidance and control. Leadership is just one aspect of a managerial guiding role. Weinberg and Gould point out that the manager is generally focused on taking care of things like planning, organizing, programming, budgeting, staffing and recruitment. Although leaders often perform these same functions (or delegate them to others), they do it in a much different way. They provide a vision that helps determine direction in which the organization or team will go, including their goals and tasks. Leaders are trying to provide resources and support to get the job done. Many coaches become excellent managers when you accept such activities that contribute to the



smooth running of the business. You should have u seeing that there is a big difference in providing the leadership that players and teams need who are in the process of growing and maturing in relation to the leadership needed by adult seniors amateur and / or professional athletes and teams. So the manager takes care of things like programming, budgeting, planning and organizing, while being a leader is more concentrated on directing the organization, including its goals and tasks.

How are sports leaders chosen? When it comes to coaches as leaders, they are usually chosen as well appointed by the sports director or the board of directors of the sports organization. Such as the school principal elects the teachers, the director of the clinical center the physician, and the sports director elects hires a coach when he expects to successfully fulfill the goals and tasks of the organization, follow its policy and contribute to its further affirmation. However, when we talk about game leaders, ie team captains, then in practice it exists more options:

a. A team captain may be **appointed or imposed** by an authority (usually from by the coach, at the suggestion of the professional team or sports director) and then we talk about to an appointed or imposed leader.

b. The captain may be **elected** by team members in a regular democratic procedure.

c. A captain can become a player who spontaneously imposes his leadership, teammates accept him and then we talk about a **spontaneously “emerging”** leader. The management of the club, as well as the players in the democratic selection of the captain, are guided similar criteria. The captain is usually chosen, if not the best athlete, then certainly one of the better ones, a player whose behavior instills confidence that he will successfully take care of achieving team goals, who has developed communication skills, who knows how to nurture good team relations. For club leaders, an important criterion in choosing a player leader is his loyalty to the club, as well as the fact whether he is a “child of the club”, whether he grew up in the club or came from the side, how long he has been in the team, and it is desirable that he be among the older and more experienced individuals because rich experience, combined with favorable personality traits, is an assumption successful team management in crisis and conflict situations, gaining the trust of teammates in captain and good mutual communication. The captain has specific duties and arrangements, both in relation to team members and in in relation to



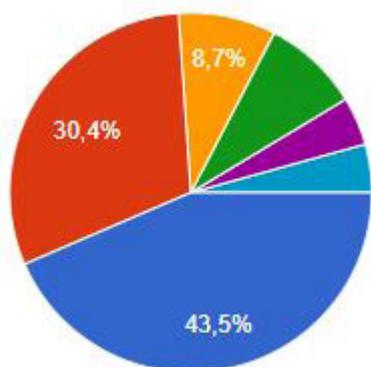
the coach (usually said to be the “extended arm of the coach”), the media, more broadly socially the environment. Similar to a coach, he is also expected to possess pronounced personal attributes and skills such as: high cognitive abilities, analytical, thoughtful, high level sports knowledge (technique, tactics, strategy), responsibility, communication, empathy, honesty, morality, dedication, high work ethic, ability to motivate and move on action, to inspire, cooperate, influence others, provide support, acknowledge, resolve conflicts, harmonizes relationships, encourages a positive team atmosphere. Of course, these are only desirable attributes and it is unrealistic to expect them all to be found in one person. Each captain is characterized by a specific leadership style - some care more about the team 's tasks (on the field, everything works properly, to achieve the set sports goals), while others focus more on team relations, make sure they are friendly, non-conflicting, that all players are satisfied, the cohesiveness of the team is high, mutual trust and cooperation on the highest level. About whether the more successful leaders in sports are task-oriented or they are primarily oriented to interpersonal relationships can be discussed a lot, as well as everything else important aspects of the role of the captain, his relationship with teammates and the coach, functioning team in conditions when there are more leaders and the like. Those who are especially interested can look for it research that sheds more light on these and other topics related to leadership in sports.





ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH RESULTS

The research on leadership in sports was conducted in cooperation and with the support of the Belgrade Association for School Sports, a prominent sports institution that deals with the development of school and sports in general, and which enjoys a great reputation in the sports community of Serbia. The research involved 121 sports institutions / experts who had the opportunity to assess the importance of leadership in sports through an online questionnaire .



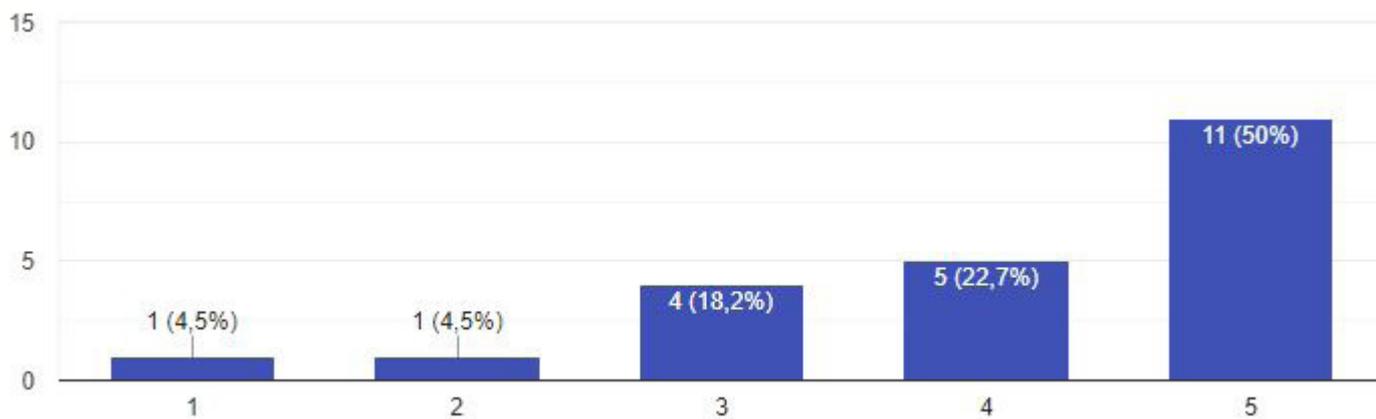
Body in front when you fill out the questionnaire?

- Sport club - blue
- Sports Association - red
- Sports expert - orange
- Individual expert - green
- Sports Association - Turquoise
- The rest - purple

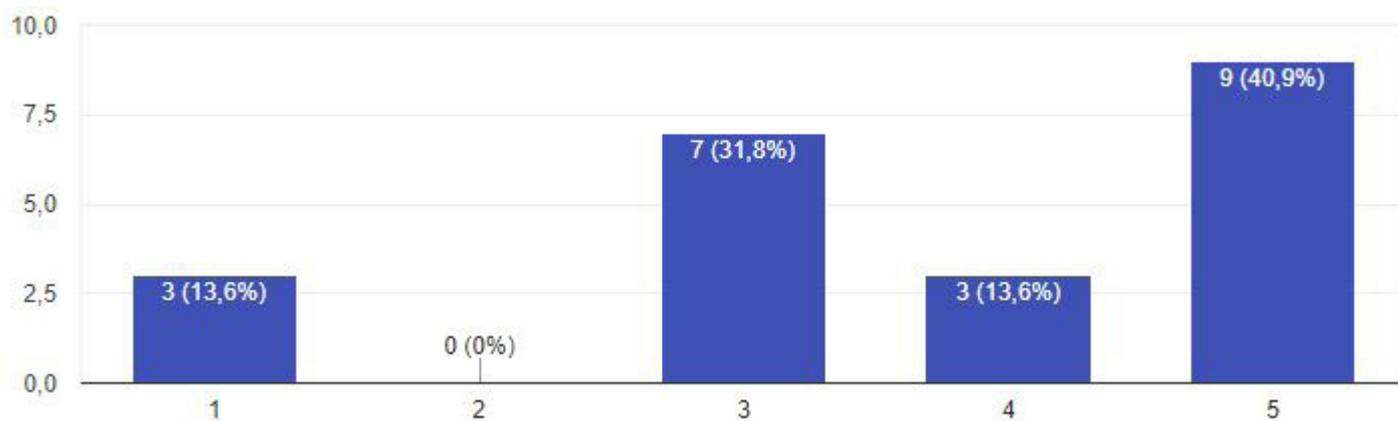
Most of the respondents filled in the research questionnaire in front of sports clubs and sports associations, so we can conclude that further answers were given with reference to extensive experience in direct work with athletes as well as with the management of the sports process.



How important is leadership in sports clubs for the progress and development of top athletes? (Score 1-5)

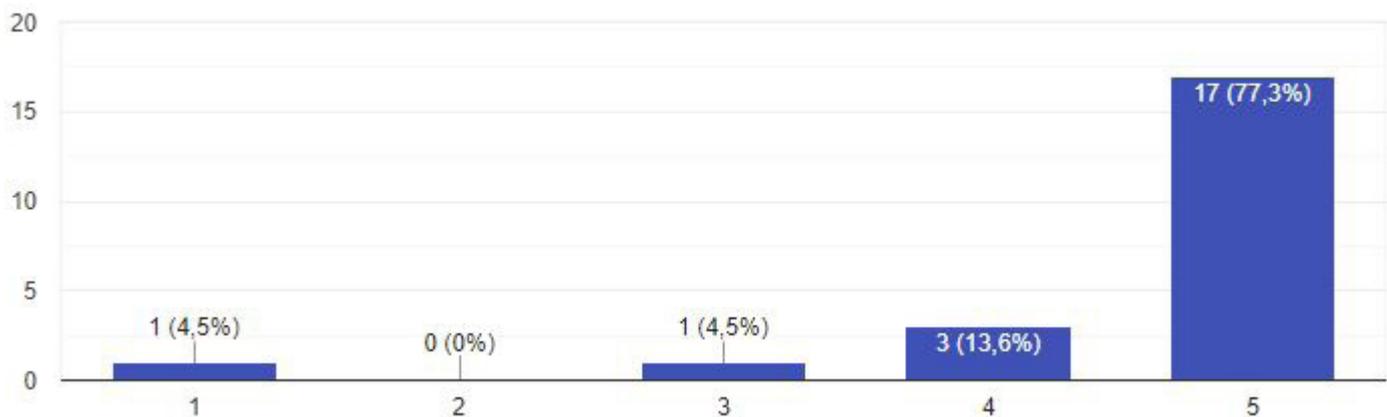


Is leadership athletes of crucial importance in team sports?





How crucial is the role of the coach as a sports pedagogue in the development and formation of a sports leader?





COMMUNICATION IN SPORT

The development of business ethics developed in accordance with the development of society, and in that sense it proceeded in accordance with current social phenomena. Therefore, in some periods, approaches related to the field of business ethics have changed.

Business ethics is especially the character of the 90s. It is a period of economic recession in many areas of business, a period of strong competition in the world market, a large reduction in the number of employees, mergers, exceptional labor mobility (which becomes international, consists of more races, both sexes, is more diverse and educated), etc. .

Business ethics means the obligation (commitment) to do the job in an appropriate way and means responsibility for its (dis)approval . In this sense, the morally responsible person undertakes to do the job and to accept responsibility for failure or error. Responsibility can be personal, when ethical norms are violated and the individual gains personal benefit at the expense of the general interests of the company, and it can also be corporate social responsibility.

One of the more acceptable definitions is the definition of S. Rakas. Starting from the basic principles of ethics and their application to business behavior, business ethics is defined as “a set of moral norms on behavior towards the socio-cultural business environment, other people with whom business contact is made and decision-making, duties, obligations, rights and responsibilities. in all aspects and spheres of business. ”It studies the moral rules of conduct in all busi-



ness activities aimed at a successful and profitable business. These rules must be consistent with general social attitudes and value systems.

In order to fully integrate business ethics into the business practice of an economic entity, it is necessary that it be realized on three levels:

1. *Individual level* - implies that employees and members of the body of the business entity, as well as persons employed on the basis of the contract in performing their work tasks and obligations act not only in accordance with legal regulations but also with basic moral values.
2. *Organizational level* - assumes the application of business ethics within the business entity. At the same time, it is very important to what extent the economic entity, when making and implementing business decisions, respects the basic ethical values and the character of mutual relations in the economic entity.
3. *Social level* - expresses the degree of respect for ethical principles in relations with the environment, because it is of mutual interest.

The relationship between law and morality occurs in the following relations:

- Many laws prohibit immoral practices.
- The law is mostly reactive.
- Not all laws are morally defensible.
- Not everything immoral can be declared illegal.

Business communications, as part of business ethics, is one of the more important activities in an organization. In this research, we will explain some of its main characteristics, the rules that must be followed, as well as the communication process itself. As in any process, there are certain obstacles in this one, but there are also ways to overcome them. Communication is necessary for a person, but quality business communication is necessary for every sports organization that wants to succeed.



CONCEPT AND CONTENT OF COMMUNICATION

The process of leadership and management is a multifactorial methodological function, which begins with ideas, attitudes and principles, and then, cascading, based on analysis, through the functions of planning, organization, communication, monitoring, control, leadership and coordination, decide on measures and actions that will most effectively try to achieve the set goals. This approach dates back to the end of the 19th century, when the first four basic functions of management were described: planning, organizing, leading and controlling. However, with the development of human thought, science, technology, communication skills, as well as due to political, economic and socio-cultural changes at the global level, it was concluded that communication, leadership and coordination are a kind of management triassic of modern times. necessary for management in a well-planned, organized and controlled environment, community, project team, institution or parts thereof.

Communication, as the third function of the managerial procedure, represents a two-way process and the basic need of living beings in general, and thus of man as a paradigm of the highest spiritual, mental and social value on the planet. We must not think of business communication skills as a group of partially related concepts or look for solutions exclusively at the level of those inherited and learned abilities, but to transfer our overall scientific, professional, educational and psychological knowledge in the right place at the right time, in the right way and to be done by the right people.

Communication is the process of transmitting information, meaning, from one person to another, through understandable symbols or signals, or a form of symbolic interaction. It is a way of mutual exchange of thoughts, ideas, desires, wills-messages, with the help of which human relations (intimate, personal, business, social and others) exist and are constantly evolving. That is why it is important to emphasize that the process of communication represents a personal and social relationship, that is, it contains a personal and social dimension. At the same time, communication is a socio-psychological relationship, which is established between two or more people in the current thought process.



Human communication is a creative activity-human for as much as it is in function, that is, for as much as it is a means for the realization of moral desires in the process of action. Through communication, a person moves, encourages and influences the world around him, the creation and upgrading of the same world, his environment, which he interprets and to which he constantly gives his answers. According to this, communication is *related to time (subject to decay, inertia and completion) and space*. This means that *space, time and organizational relevance are variables in the organizational environment through which the communication process takes place and in which and through which business ethics is achieved*. In that sense, communication is a human activity that starts or should start from ethical norms, and only then to express the idea of organization, organizational processes and organizational relations.

Having in mind the participants and the purpose of communication, many theorists define communication *as a conscious relationship between individuals (the connection between them is made up of various verbal, visual, sound and other signs), which is achieved in cases where the message is understood and encourages action or stimulates the recipient to a particular reaction*.

Communication means the path through which the subject of information passes with the information itself, to the place and from the place where it is created, as well as the place as its environment, to the place where it is built into a particular business or other system, as well as parts of the system which are direct products of information.

In etiological terms, *communication is a dimension of human behavior, and business communication is a dimension of human work or business* .

Communication consists of : *information, its subject, the place of creation with its structure and functions of creation, the way of transmission and the place of its use, as well as the use itself, and the results that result from it*.

Since in the definition of communication or communication the notion of information is the basic notion, it remains to define that notion first of all.

The term *information* implies knowledge about the presence of a phenomenon or its characteristics related to the origin, structure, functions and dynamics. Information consists of data on the phenomenon received by the subject of communication, i.e. the subject as an element of the communication system.



Information can be used to send, not just receive, data about a phenomenon or its properties, however, information that transports relevant data is usually said to be a message.

The message is therefore information that sends relevant data with the aim of achieving certain pre-projected goals in connection with the phenomenon to which this data refers. The message is intended information, i.e. information with which it is known in advance what can be achieved and from that point of view, it is launched into communication.

Information is an element of the communication process, and as such represents the content of the subject phenomenon, i.e. the event in connection with which the communication channel is opened. Also, information can be an opinion about a certain phenomenon.

An informative attitude is a part of a message that contains information and the determination of the subject of the attitude regarding the connection between the content and the goal of the information.

An appeal is a stimulating part of an informative message which makes known the importance of information, informative message or informational attitude.

The code also represents an element of information, where messages and other informative contents are formed through certain symbols. The code also contains the rules for transmitting informative content, so it appears as one of the basic elements in the structure of communication.

By connecting different codes in order to realize a part of the communication system, a *code system* is created, which is a model of regulating the communication process.

Commercials is information, an informative line or an informative attitude and an appeal that seeks to acquaint the public with a product and persuade it to be accepted.

Propaganda is an informative-communicative creation composed of advertising messages, information and attitudes expressed in the form of activities.



The nature and functions of communication

According to many theorists, communication has three basic functions:

Perceptual - means receiving a message in the communication process,

Evolutive - this function allows you to understand the message and make appropriate decisions based on the individual's previous experience, and

Transitive - implies the process of transmitting the message and interpreting its meaning.

The nature of communication, which according to the results of theoretical-empirical research is more functional, sets its functions. The general functions of communication are:

Instrumental. Communication is a means to achieve a goal in the organization and the goal of organizing the world of life and the world of work. That is its instrumental function. It serves as a tool in the decision-making process — an instrument for achieving control over the physical and mental organizational environment of people. In that sense, convincing employees in the organization is only one of the possible goals of communication. However, it should be borne in mind the empirical generalization that people in the organization, that management in the organization and through the organization enter the communication structure with an essentially instrumental goal: to make a decision, to obtain information, to achieve other goals, and achieve other purposes. Therefore, the instrumental function is a strategic activity in the organization and through the organization of the world of life and the world of work.

Consumable function is another important function that has an immediate value for the communicator itself. The goal of the consumptive function is to satisfy the need of the communicator, without the necessary intention to influence the other - persuasion for enjoying the story.



Based on the definition of the concept of communication and the types of messages that arise from them, Littlejohn distinguishes the following functions of communication: information, entertainment, instructions, persuasion. So, this author perceives the function of communication as a way to satisfy the need for communication. However, in everyday communication, all these functions are intertwined: information for fun, instruction with persuasions, fun with persuasions, etc. Although these are not the only functions of communication, they are very pronounced and can be applied to both personal and public communication.

Indicates and the six qualities that characterize modern communication:

1. Communication is comprehensive and represents a central cultural phenomenon.
2. It is continuous, never ceases, and neither the beginning nor the end can be determined.
3. It is based on the exchange of meanings.
4. It contains predictable, expected or conventional elements.
5. It occurs on several levels (between two individuals, between an individual and a group, between two or more groups, etc.).
6. It takes place among both equals and unequals (in terms of gender, age, education, social status, etc.)

In addition to these points and the other characteristics:

1. Communication is the process of making connections between people. Relationships can be between two people or a group, or more than one. Direct or indirect, and by their structure, they are determined by information, opinions and ideas that represent the essence of communication.
2. Communication is an activity. The individual is actively engaged in understanding and designing the communication message.
3. Communication is learned. The human being learns to communicate in order to meet his needs.

In every communication, regardless of its goals and intentions, there is some information in the organization of the world of life and the world of work. And information is recorded (registered) knowledge in written, oral or audio-visual form on some medium. Cognition is the result of an act of cognition, an act by which the

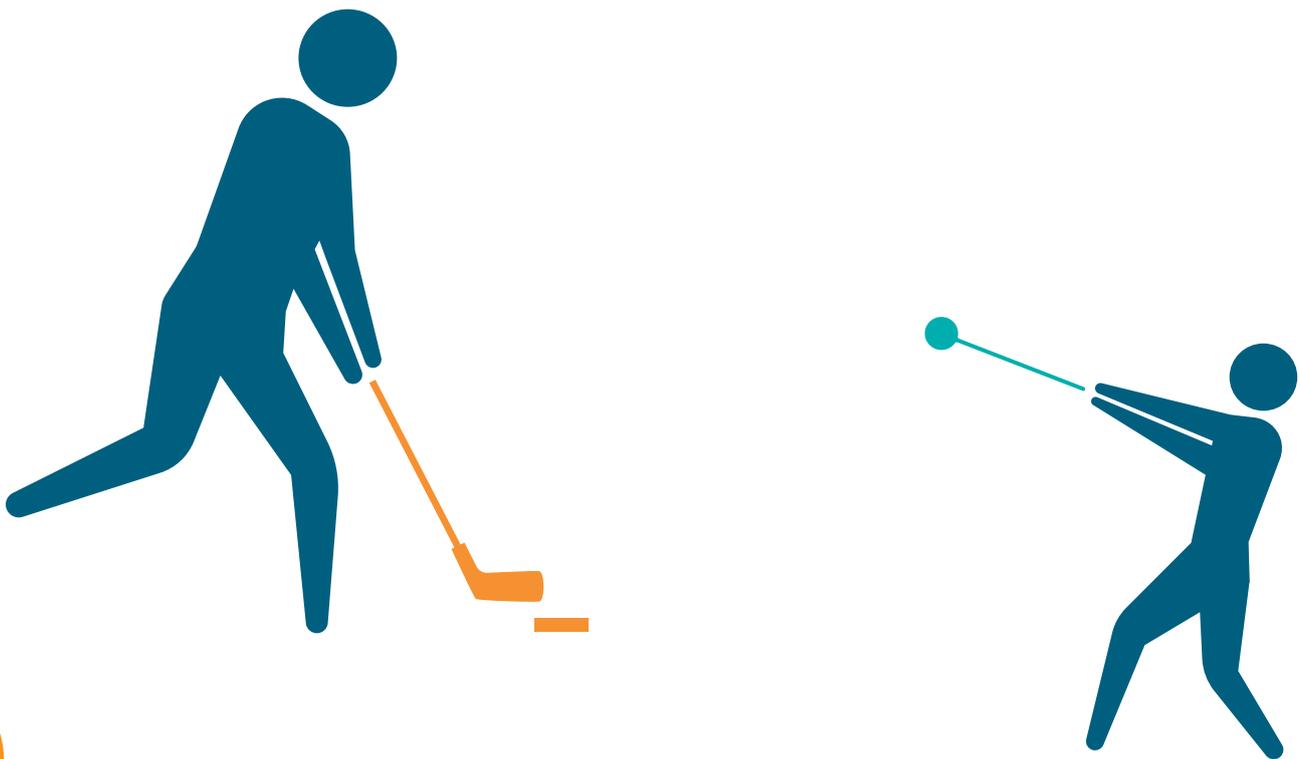


spirit perceives an object. Information also contains an element of meaning. It is the meaning that is transmitted to the conscious being through a message written on a certain space-time medium: printed , electrical signal, sound wave, etc.

According to the results of modern research by communicologists, the sphere of “messages includes a lot of what are other functions of entertainment and persuasion” and states that they are strengthened if the recipient of communication is less motivated for a topic or subject.

For the whole business communication, the most important function is persuasion. This function of communication is the most complex because it combines the previous three. Namely, the function of persuasion is personal - it influences the behavior and attitudes of others. On the other hand, we ourselves will also be more easily influenced when the message that needs to convince us of something corresponds to our personal needs, ideas, interests, values. Littlejone rightly believes that the following four preconditions need to be met for a message to be convincing:

1. It must arouse our attention and interest;
2. Through and with its help we must understand the proposal, ie. what we are asked to believe.
3. To give us personal reasons why we should respond to suggestions and
4. To move us , ie. to really accept an idea or to take some action.





COMMUNICATION PROCESS

In the process of communication, a very complex interaction between people takes place. Its basic elements are:

- Uploader (encoder)
- Receiver (decoder)
- Message (information)
- Communication channel (mediator) i
- Perception

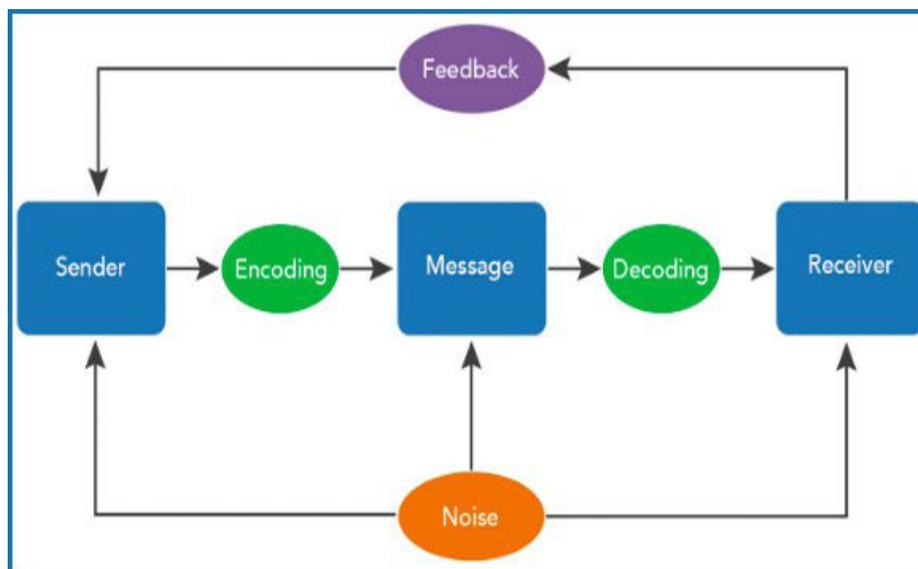


Figure 1 : Schematic of the communication process

- sender (encoder) is an individual or organization that sends a message to another person, group of people or mass audience. The communication process starts from the sender, as a result of which it is considered a source of initial information which starts the communication process. He forms the



information so that the recipient can understand it. , In order to be successful in this, the sender needs to have communication skills, experience and appropriate mental abilities.

- receiver (decoder) is the party that receives the message from the communicator and translates it to its level of understanding. The recipient can be an individual subject (in interpersonal communication), a group (in group communication), as well as a mass of recipients-listeners of the organization (economic , social , etc.).
- message (information) always has a certain meaning, at first glance noticeable or more or less hidden. It reduces uncertainty, that is, it is interpreted data that has been processed to add or create knowledge for the recipient. Information is the basis of the communication process.
- Communication channel (mediator) is a necessary material and physical condition for the communication process. It represents the way, space, means and media through which the message flows from the sender to the recipient. In interpersonal and group communication, these are: mouth, ears, eyes, body and the appearance of the participants in communication in general. If communication is performed at a distance, to the technical and financial means through which the encoding and decoding information. Thus, for example, in communication by telephone, communication channels are devices and networks for sending and receiving telephone messages. In communication through written correspondence, communication channels are letters, PTT equipment systems and delivery of written items.

Communication channels can be:

- *vertical* (direction goes either downwards or upwards) and
- *horizontal* (information is transmitted between associates of the same level).
- Feedback is the recipient's response to the information received and thus completes the communication process. Namely, during the entire communication process, a complex interaction relationship is created between the communicator and the recipient. The information goes from one to the other in a meaningful way , and then it returns, provoking certain reactions in the recipient, followed by an active or passive communication response. The entire this complex relationship between receiver and sender, if it is active



interdependent, is called a feedback control (feedback). The feedback shows that the communication process is not one-way and unambiguous, but is, as a rule, two-way or multi-way ,i.e.multi-meaning.

- Perception (perception) is important for both participants in communication,i.e.for encoding and decoding the message. Perception or perception can be defined as content based on sensory data, as a basic and very important function of man (and living beings in general), by which he, through his senses, establishes a cognitive connection with himself and his environment, with external and internal reality. Perception is the result of the action of the environment (stimuli), the work of sensory analyzers, but also other sociological and psychological factors, such as general and individual experience, knowledge, as well as the affective and conative dimensions of psychic systems. In the process of communication, perception does not imply comprehensible messages. This means that a person can hear the message sent to him, but not understand it if it is incomplete, communicated in an unknown, foreign language, incomprehensible and the like.

The communication process consists of several sub-processes or phases:

1. Sending a message,
2. Message filtering,
3. Receiving a message and
4. Interpretation and understanding of the message.

- *Sending a message* can be done in several ways:

- **The oral way of sending a message** is done through speech using words as a medium. The message sent in this way must be clear and precise for the other party to understand.

- *Text mode* is done by sending messages, drawings, graphs etc.

- *Non-verbal* messaging involves the use of visual cues. This is done through body language that includes various intentional and accidental gestures performed by different parts of the body.

- *Tactile messaging* is connected to the *sense of touch*.



- *Olfactor sending of messages* is done through the sense of smell.
- *Involuntary sending of a message* is about connecting the way of sending a message with reflex reactions of a person. These reactions are performed unconsciously.
- *Extrasensory messaging* goes beyond the ordinary senses and refers to special ways of sending messages.
- *Message filtering* . This is the stage of the communication process in which the message is distorted or refined. Message filtering occurs due to different needs of the sender or recipient, or due to different discrepancies and ambiguities that may arise between them, but also due to the understanding of environmental factors.
- *Receiving a message* depends on the way and quality of sending the message, but also on the way the recipient receives the message.
- *Interpretation and understanding of the message* mostly depends on the recipient of the message. It depends on the attention with which he received the message, but also on his intellectual and educational-cultural abilities and potentials. The difference in culture, education or intelligence between the sender and the recipient of the message can be a significant obstacle to the correct interpretation and understanding of the message.





Communication business processes in sports organization

The essence of the communication process in a sports organization is in the answer to the questions : *who and what says, in what way, to whom, and with what effects?* By discovering the communicator of information, the content of the message, the means of mediation, the recipient of the message and the feedback, we approach the essence of communication, which we can define as the transmission of information and knowledge through common symbols.

In a sports organization, there is no communication process unless a connection is established between the transmitter and the recipient of the message. This means that, depending on whether the information is only received or there is also feedback, *one-way and two-way communication processes* can be distinguished.

- *One-way communication processes* mark “bureaucratic communication”, which is in its essence one-way, hierarchical, downward, narrow, selected, and delayed. One-way messages are more often expressed in formal, formal and generally concise manner, achieving time savings, especially when it comes to a potentially large number of participants; it is more appropriate when it needs to be presented in a simple way, when it does not cause doubts and misunderstandings.
- *“Democratic” Communications* is at its center two-way nature, in the horizontal and vertical planes, broad, complete and timely. Two-way communication is usually more complex and slow, because the recipient of the message should not only understand the sender of the message, but also be trained and ready for feedback, which in itself implies knowledge of interests, needs, attitudes, values, feelings, etc.

Thus, one-way communication has certain advantages, on which we have already pointed out, but it carries with it certain disadvantages, which are mainly related to the problem of compliance and understanding in the communication stream. Therefore, the advantages on the other side are two-way communication, which requires more time, but is also more fruitful, especially when there are real



dangers of disagreement and misunderstanding of those who communicate.

According to empirical experiences, the communication process can be realized through three directions: descending, ascending, lateral and diagonal.

- *Downstream communication process* refers to communication whose source is in higher organizational levels (hierarchical points) and which is transferred to lower organizational levels - from top management to employees. It is used for informing (about organizational policy and procedures, about problems in the realization of organizational processes and relations...) giving orders (how to perform a certain process and with the help of which means), coordination and evaluation of employees. The basic meaning of downward communication is reflected in the effort to influence (direct) the behavior of people at the mentioned levels. Therefore, downstream communication has the following basic properties:
 - **It is of an** instructive nature (interprets the contents of work roles),
 - Encourages understanding of interrelation relations, in the organization (expands the functional horizons of employees),
 - Provides a broader basis for understanding the more general, strategic goals of the organization,
 - Provides appropriate information on the quantity and quality of tasks performed, individuals, groups, organizational units and organizations as a whole and
 - Her role also includes assessing the meaning of her "mission".

According to theoretical findings and empirical verifications, this type of communication relies on all known formal and informal types of information mediation.

- *Ascending communication process*, or communication upwards, is communication from employees to managers — it originates from lower organizational segments, from which it is transferred to higher hierarchical levels. These are reports on successes and failures - on all existing problems. The basic motivational meaning of ascending communication lies in the need to inform higher levels about what is happening at lower levels - what employees think about the implementation of processes and rela-



tionships in the organization, about their workplace, about their associates and the organization in general. At the same time, this provides insight into the effectiveness of downward communication and functional values of lower organizational parts, which is of great importance for assessing the success of achieving organizational goals and sub-goals. In practice, some examples of communication above include performance reports prepared by employees, suggestion boxes, reports on employee attitudes, complaint procedures, discussions between managers and employees, and informal group meetings where employees have the opportunity to engage in dialogue with managers on the implementation of processes and relationships in the organization. It follows that the incoming communication processes depend on the organizational culture. The climate of trust and honesty in the organization, as well as the participation of employees in decision-making, i.e. the practice of giving authority essentially stimulates communication upwards as employees provide relevant inputs for decision-making.

- *Lateral (lateral) communication process* (also known as horizontal communication) refers to communication between groups and individuals at the same organizational level. From the point of view of the organization, the main motivation for lateral communication is related to the need to perform tasks as successfully as possible. Lateral communication achieves the necessary coordination needed by individuals to work together, which depends on the share of each individual in the joint work. In this way, the course of lateral communication often follows the course of the work itself, so that individuals who are directly connected by work tend to communicate more intensively compared to those who are closely related in the work process. This connection, of course, does not refer exclusively to the physical proximity of (co) workers. Lateral communication also includes informal forms of “face-to-face” interaction, telephone conversations, short notes and memoranda, and then work orders, requests and the like. However, in the case of very complex tasks, which require a high degree of interdependence of members of large groups of people, this type of communication cannot be fruitful. Although it cannot be fruitful if the employees do not inform their managers (directors) about the decisions they make or the actions they intend to implement.



- *Diagonal communication process* is a communication that gives an intersection of organizational work and organizational level-communication between different organizational work and different organizational level. An example of this process is when a credit analyst communicates directly with a regional marketing manager. Diagonal communication is useful when efficiency and speed are needed. As such, it is made possible and facilitated by the use of e-mails - any employee can communicate via e-mail with any other employee, regardless of the organizational part or level. As in lateral communication, conflicts can occur if employees do not inform their superiors.



Communication channels

Organizations create many channels of communication. Communication channels are the means by which information is transmitted. They can be divided into formal (which are officially established in the organization) and informal. All official information and instructions are transmitted through formal channels.

Written formal communication within a sports organization is characterized by the following media through which the message travels:

- *Letters*, which the manager of different levels sends to all employees in the form of so-called "circulars" or only to certain people, whether there is a problem or praise. The letter, for example, can take the form of a general message for the entire team, usually on the occasion of an event important to the organization.



- *Notices* - all types of written notices, designed to be understandable. They can appear on bulletin boards or, as is the more common practice in the West, in envelopes with a salary. A bulletin board is often the main information point in an organization. Notices must be designed so that their tone, style, sentences and legibility correspond to the public they are addressing. In principle, shorter sentences and avoidance of vague words make the notice understandable. *Reports* can be a special form of communication, although they usually appear as an integral part of some other documentation. They talk in more detail about some aspect of the organization's work: the results at the end of the year or other accounting period, the results of just completed business negotiations, etc. For years, in the developed world, special attention has been paid to the preparation of annual reports, with superior design and printing. That report is often the crown of the business year in a symbolic sense. Reports should be in hard copy (via computer). In some organizations there is a so-called "collection center" where reports are delivered and distributed to users from there. The purpose of these centers is to reduce "walking" around the organization. Of course, if something is urgent or a business secret, this procedure does not apply.
- *Manuals* are a very important instrument of internal communication, because they contain all the important information necessary to perform a job in a unique way for the entire organization. They are adopted and adopted at the level of the central organization, and from there distributed to organizational units, with examples and explanations for use. The information contained in the manuals refers to the "house rules" of the organization, goals and policies, organization and other procedures important for the organization.
- *The content of the newsletters* covers formal and informal aspects of the "life of the organization". There may be published management messages, reports and business information, but also some informal ones. They are made quickly and easily, thanks to information technology.
- *Internal newspapers* are a more serious undertaking because they require a team to work on their design, as well as professional press preparation processes. They usually have the form of daily newspapers, and the material is prepared according to all the criteria of professional journalism. Large companies have entire editorial offices working on these newspapers, with a number of professional journalists and technical editors. They come out



weekly or monthly.

- *Internal magazines* have the richest and largest companies in the world, usually multinational companies with a large number of employees and numerous organizations around the world. Magazines are made according to all the principles that apply to this form, which means on very high quality paper, in full color and a format smaller than a newspaper. Magazines are usually printed on a monthly basis, but it is not a rare variant of a quarterly issue. This means of communication is primarily intended to strengthen the image of the organization and professionalize its market presence.
- *Audio-visual means* (internal television, radio network, displays, and documentaries). Modern audio-visual means enable communication to take place at an even higher level than the previously described means. Messages can be presented more dramatically, vividly and convincingly than on printed material. With internal radio, there is a good opportunity for messages to be broadcast during the work process, so that employees do not have to interrupt their work.
- *E-mail*, as a means of internal communication, is used to a large extent, due to the speed but also because of the easier transfer of large documents, in the case when computers are networked via modem and the connection should be established 24 hours per day. Some large global companies use e-mail to send data and information to their regional managers, when they prepare for media appearances, thus providing them with the latest information, in a very short time.





Business communication entities

The subjects of communication in the organization are all its members, but not in the same way and with full intensity. Managers are the ones who communicate the most, because they develop plans through communication.

Based on and with the help of the elements of the communication process, it is possible to point out the relevant characteristics of both the transmitter and the receiver of information.

First, according to research, numerous shortcomings and misunderstandings in the communication process stemmed from insufficient training and preparation of communication actors. These inadequacies are noticed both on the side of the content of information and on the side of the forms of their mediation.

Second, the value of information, the meaning of certain symbols important for its transmission through the lens can cause different behavior of participants in communication.

Third, the behavior of an individual, active or passive, is significantly determined by the needs of those who communicate, depending on whether they are basic derived needs, permanent or occasional, whether they can be fully or partially met in a particular organization, whether they are an expression the will of the majority or minority.

Fourth, personality characteristics are also important for the quality of communication.

Fifth, the attitudes and emotions of those who communicate, prejudices, various prejudices, stereotypes, values, likes and dislikes and various affective states that significantly affect the course and outcome of communication.

Sixth, the “status distance” between the subjects of communication is also a significant variable: the smaller the distance, the more open, comfortable, informal, and vice versa the communication.



Seventh, assumptions about the properties of the communication partner; how communication will unfold in terms of its efficiency and effectiveness certainly depends on a number of assumptions that the subjects of communication have about each other.

Eighth, communication will be unfettered and free if such interpersonal relationships are established in which the values of the subject of communication are partially or fully realized.

Types of communication

Communications can be divided in different ways. Thus, in relation to the scope of the communication process, four categories of communication are distinguished :

- *Intrapersonal communication* is a conversation of a subject with himself, and it also refers to the exchange of messages with an imaginary interlocutor - a real or metaphysical being directly or indirectly. Intrapersonal communication is the basic driver of the development of the subject, his opinion, feelings, artistic and scientific creation, conscious and subconscious processes.
- *Interpersonal communication* is the reciprocal exchange of messages between two or more individuals, directly or indirectly, with reciprocal variability of the roles of communicators and recipients and direct feedback in the process of exchanging messages. The elementarity and prevalence of interpersonal communication are an expression of the fact that man is a social being and is directed to social life, but not in abstract communities or theoretical social categories, but primarily in primary groups - from family to various reference forms of grouping.
- *Group communication* is the exchange of messages between one or more



communicators with many recipients, directly or indirectly, within permanently or ad hoc organized social groups, where the criterion of their organization is the common current or permanent interest of individuals for a predetermined communication framework space and in a certain period of time.

- *Mass communication* - by the term mass communication we mean the type of communicative practice, within which, by manipulating the symbols of meaning, education, messages spread in space and time through mass media, instruments of mass information of recipients.

Depending on the relationship that is established between the participants, communication can be:

- *Directly* , which means that the communicator (sender) personally communicates with the other party - verbally and non-verbally, with the help of certain technical means and in other ways. There are no intermediaries in this type of communication.
- *Indirectly* , in which contacts are made through one or more intermediaries, ie. media. In communication of this type, the media can be natural persons and legal entities, but in a broader sense also technical means. Thus, the example, in the commercial media businesses may be: commercial agents, intermediaries and other agencies. In this business, objects and certain services, i.e. work activities, can be used as media. These can be: products and equipment, space (shop windows, decorated exteriors and interiors of the building), ways of addressing, serving and more. In the field of media business (professional sports, show business, etc.), famous athletes, singers or other exposed media individuals, very often and gladly hire professional agents (managers), who in their name and on their behalf - as media in mediated communication. - perform gender related to their professional engagements.

According to the status and form, there are two types of communication:

- *Formal communication* is usually applied when it comes to a job or an officially codified relationship. It is performed within the organizational hierarchy, between higher and lower levels, as well as between the same hierarchical levels, i.e. it is realized in the vertical and horizontal direction. Vertical



communication has two flows: descending (top-down) and ascending (bottom -up) and exists in hierarchical structural systems (police, army, etc.). It is based on the procedure of subordination (superiority and subordination).

Formal communication networks can have manifestations of centralization such as: wheel, chain and in the form of the letter “Y”, and decentralization, such as a circle and a multichannel network (star).

- *Centralized networks* are traditional forms of communication, which are tied to a vertical hierarchical structure in the organization. The basic characteristics of centralized networks are: employees do not have equal access to information, information is transmitted through an intermediary who controls the flow of information, they are efficient for simple and routine tasks, reduced motivation and satisfaction of employees, difficult coordination.
- *Decentralized networks* are modern forms of communication that follow the operational logic of a decentralized, horizontal organization. The basic characteristics of a decentralized network are: employees have equal access to information, information is transmitted directly, simple and efficient coordination, greater motivation and satisfaction of employees because they are involved in decision-making, efficient for complex and sophisticated jobs.
- *Informal communication* moves outside formal channels and is most often personal, relaxed and spontaneous, and takes place outside formal communication networks. It does not follow the internal organizational hierarchy (chain of leadership and management), nor the horizontal connection of organizational units. According to its expressive contents and manifestations, it can also be verbal, visual, tactile, etc.

Although there is an opinion among most managers about the informal communication flow, research shows that it is a natural part of the overall communication system in the organization, a significant force within the working group, which helps to achieve teamwork, motivate people and create corporate (collaborative) identity.

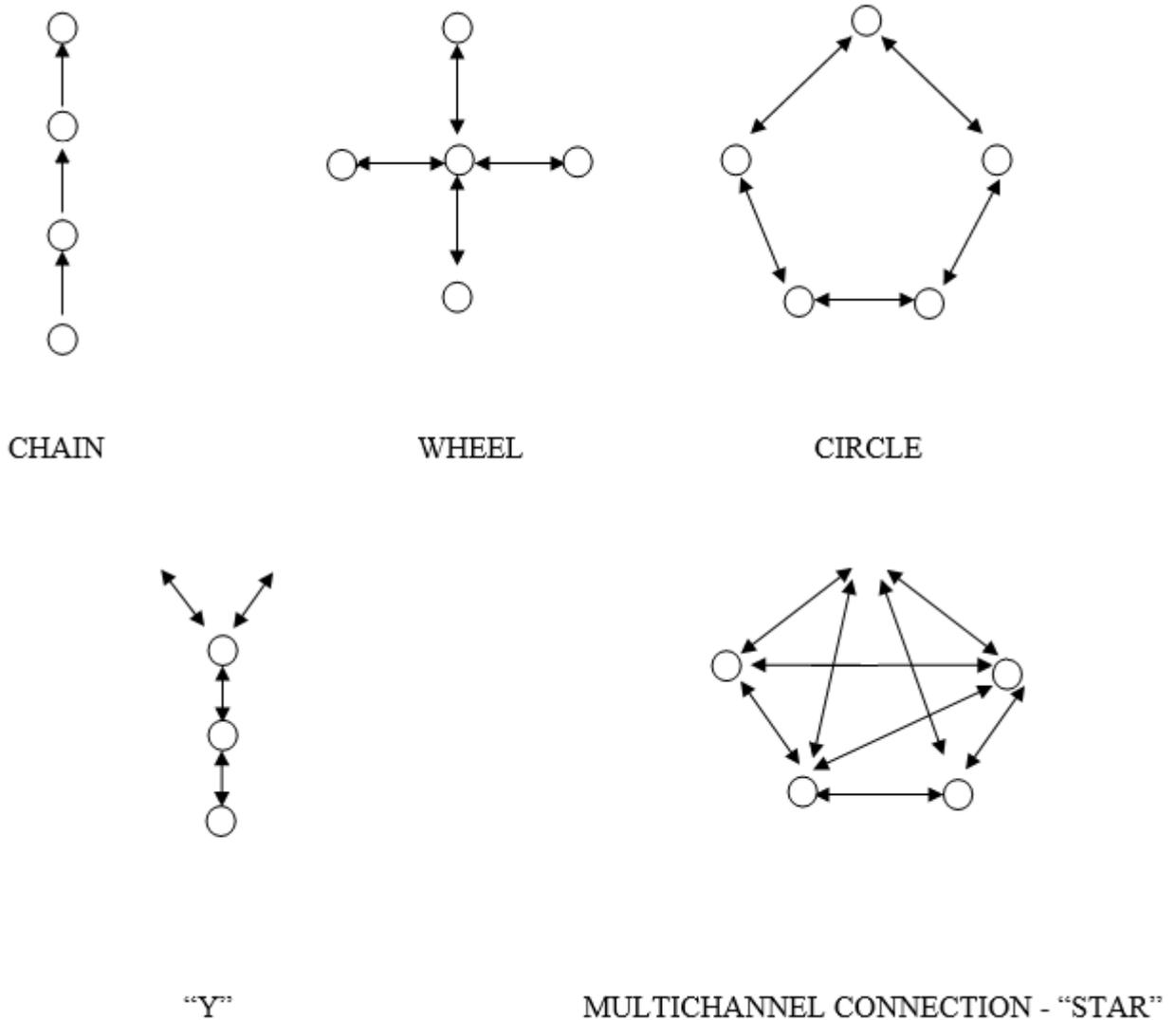


Figure 2: Ways of communication in different types of communication networks

According to the method of realization, there are also two types of communication:

- *Verbal*, which refers to the understanding of messages expressed in speech or words. In order to express the meaning in words, words are used on the basis of grammatical rules, by placing different parts of speech in appropriate frequencies. In that way, information is created and given to others about



some facts or experiences, attitudes and beliefs are expressed on some important issues and the like.

- *Non-verbal*, which allows people to communicate without the use of words. It is achieved by sending information through signals about feelings, attitudes, opinions. Nonverbal communication has six basic functions:
 1. Emphasis,
 2. Complementing verbal communication,
 3. Contradiction - non-verbal messages can show a meaning opposite to verbal messages,
 4. Regulation - control and harmonization of verbal communication between interlocutors,
 5. Repetition of a verbal message, and
 6. Substitution for verbal communication.

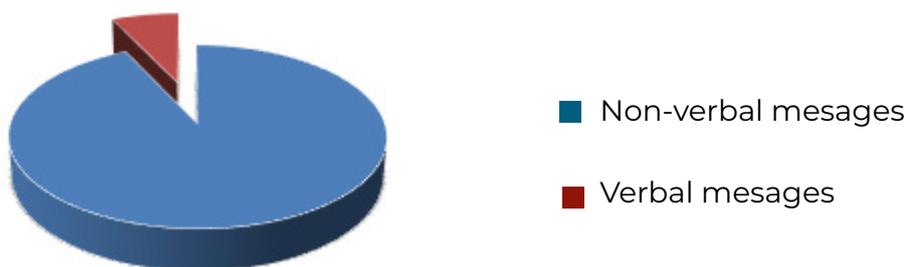


Figure 3: Research has shown that nonverbal cues make up as much as 93%, while verbal ones make up 7%.



Barriers to communication

An obstacle in communication is a technological or human factor that prevents the message from being received and understood. Technological factors are a form of noise, so we can treat them as obstacles, but also as classic obstacles. Obstacles to otherwise far more human than technological origins. Human barriers can be:

1. Socio-cultural
2. Psychological
3. Organizational.

Socio-cultural barriers

Culture is a group or social phenomenon, which an individual can carry on his own, but not create on his own. In parallel with this, you should know that more people always participate in communications.

Man unconsciously believe in their culture and obeys its principles which is of great importance for communication because it is this fact causes the culture at the national, ethnic, regional and organizational level can be an obstacle to communication flows. Participating in a culture, a person, consciously or unconsciously, obeys social norms, which are by definition tacit or informal rules about what is being built, how and when and where. From the point of view of communication skills, social norms and cultural characteristics enable us, on the one hand, better and faster communication, while on the other hand, in specific situations, they can be an obstacle in communication.



The main socio-cultural elements that can become an obstacle in communication are:

1. Group opinion,
2. Conflict of values and beliefs,
3. Stereotypes and ethnocentrism,
4. Language and jargon.

Group opinion

Group thinking is a social phenomenon that occurs when group behavior becomes dominant and begins to hinder the process of individual decision-making .

Thus, there are situations when social norms and consensus groups become an obstacle to making decisions that are in the best interest of a given group.

Group opinion is characterized by the following elements:

- Similarities and hidden differences
- Reliance on common rationalizations
- Collective model of defensive avoidance
- Lack of alertness
- Hiding flaws
- Unjustified optimism
- Thinking in slogans

Conflict of values and beliefs

The degree of development of a civilization is best seen in its achieved culture, which is based on common beliefs and values. In cases when communication takes place above the level of reached cultural boundaries, the possibility of misunder-



standing increases. Unsuccessful business communications in conversations of managers from different cultures occur mainly due to ignorance of mutual fundamental values and norms. In some cultures, the success of business communication is based on establishing closer ties, while in others it remains a purely business transaction. Therefore, only by knowing the values, beliefs and norms of another culture is it possible to avoid obstacles in communication.

Stereotypes and ethnocentrism

A stereotype is an attempt to predict a person's behavior based on his belonging to a certain group. Stereotypes are often superficial and inaccurate because they are not based on one's own beliefs and norms. They therefore become an obstacle in communication because people are not seen as individuals but as representatives of the group, which can result in deep prejudice, discrimination, and even signs of racism. Ethnocentrism is a kind of national stereotype when a certain group sees its culture as the only valuable and advanced one. Therefore, in business communications, ethnocentric people measure everything according to the standards of their own culture as superior, which is always a big and difficult to solve communication barrier.

Language and jargon

Language is a culturally specific way of coding the meaning of a message and as such can be an obstacle to communication on multiple levels. The first level is when the interlocutors speak the same mother tongue. At the same time, status and class differences influence the different use of language, which often identifies or excludes certain groups of people. The second level is when the interlocutors do not speak the same mother tongue, so due to poor translation or misinterpretation of idioms and dialects, there is an obstacle in communication. Jargon is the third level of possible obstacles because it directly interferes with the signal from sender to receiver in cases where the receiver does not know it. In business communications, managers should avoid technical or scientific jargon as much as possible,



which is best to remain present exclusively in a narrow circle of experts.

Psychological obstacles

Psychological obstacles are a consequence of an individual's mental and emotional state. The main psychological obstacles are:

1. Filtering,
2. Perceptions,
3. Poor memory,
4. Careless listening,
5. Emotional reactions.

Filtering

In communications, people often filter the signals by the sender of the message, missing to the level only what they want to hear is also called "selective bias" which directly depends on the level of self-values and cultural background of the recipient of the message. The phenomenon of filtering can be avoided by listening carefully and reading the spoken or written message in more detail. A special problem of modern civilization is the excessive amount of information for the limited cognitive capacity of man,

This phenomenon of excess information in the context of Simon's limited cognitive abilities_ calls the framework of thinking, and is caused by:

- Limited time when collecting information
- Different criteria that determine the importance of information
- Limited ability to understand, process and use information

Taking into account the framework of thinking, managers mostly rely on experience, tradition and the rule of the stronger when they need to select information in order to make the best decision and decision. This way of making decisions has



proven to be the most common way of making business decisions.

Perceptions

Each individual has his own perceptions of different situations and events that later form his judgment or attitude about most life issues, dilemmas and desires. In accordance with these often do not notice that we filter information and discard those that are contrary to our perception. Therefore, perceptions can be an obstacle in communication. Most often, “a priori” rejection of a message through communication channels occurs because we have already formed the idea of the importance or insignificance of a given message before the communication took place .

Poor memory

The ability to remember or store information is a strictly individual characteristic that is genetically determined, but is partly conditioned by various aspects that a person can acquire, such as: breadth of education, deepening one’s knowledge, specific trainings for active recollection, information selection and the like. If someone does not remember the message transmitted via a communication channel, then the communication is marked as incomplete or unsuccessful. That is why memory occupies a special place in communications and is so important for a successful manager that sometimes it is necessary to practice the so-called memory exercises in order to achieve the necessary storage and retrieval of the most important information.

Psychological research has shown that what we experience through action, listening, reading, smelling or touching, we never lose, only the way of getting that information differs from person to person and depends on many factors. Communication experts again believe that it takes some time for the received to turn into the so-called “long-term memory”. Therefore, there are several techniques that help you not forget information by sending new information to long-term memory.

The main elements that enable better memory are:

- Understanding



- The breadth of knowledge
- Active recollection
- Additional learning
- Associations
 - *For a better understanding* of what is important for us to remember, it is to organize the details of the preparation of information by placing their mutual relations in a framework that suits us. If we “frame” the information as a whole that makes sense, we allow the signal to be amplified in the process of memory, and the memorized fact marked in an adequate way. Management students who understand social historical and theoretical trends within their discipline will remember details and how they fit into an integrated system of business or strategic management. Therefore, one should always remember in the context of principles, theories, attitudes, trends, and significant generalizations, and accordingly structure the message and “recommunicate” its main parts.
 - *Dissemination of knowledge* increases the number of associative connections between the two aspects of the topic and makes the whole structure stronger. Additional reading, solving priority problems and searching for alternatives significantly help the recipient of information in business communications. The slogan “the more we know about the topic, the easier it is to remember” remains one of the basic values of successful memory.
 - *Technique of actively remembering* what we have just heard or read is the third element for better memory. By consciously trying to remember the main ideas that we have read or heard while they are still fresh in our heads, a channel of memory opens at the level of our own reminder, which we can always activate later.
 - *Additional learning* or study of already existing material enables more stable storage of already learned facts, which enables permanent memory. Therefore, we talk about the phenomenon of “learning” as one of the memory techniques when learning foreign languages or memorizing formulas and business plans. This happens when we have completely mastered a subject and yet we continue to study it, which always results



in the same answer to the same question. In this way, communication becomes far faster and more efficient.

- *Building associations* between what we already know and what we have yet to remember is the fifth, and for many the most effective memory technique. In essence, one creates one's own communication chain that can take us to the other end. Visualization and verbal memory techniques are the most common. Visualization is the memory of how things look, and indeed many people have such a talent that is genetically conditioned by the ability to remember appearance or structure. Verbal memory implies the use of abbreviations, secondary or associative meanings and the like. One example of associative reasoning, and thus memory, is the so-called "swot-analysis", which compares strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats in the context of the political, economic, social and technological environment.

Careless listening

Poor or insufficient memory can also be a consequence of inattentive listening, which is causally related to a drop in concentration. A special problem related to psychological barriers is external disturbances or lack of interest in the topic. Some authors elaborate on two very subtle models called "verbal struggle" and "fact-finding." The first refers to the moment when instead of listening and remembering the facts we concentrate on counter-arguments and criticisms of what the interlocutor is telling us, and the second when we concentrate on details and lose the integrity of the message. One thinks four times faster than one speaks. This difference between thinking and speed of speech often leads the listener to fill his free time with other processes such as daydreaming, verbal fighting or hunting for facts.



Emotional reactions

In the process of communication and emotional reactions can be an obstacle in both sending and receiving messages. Any form of visible emotional response significantly affects the communication abilities of the sender or recipient. These include: anger, fear, sadness, irritability, hyperactivity, depression, fascination, alienation, and other reactions. Emotional reactions can have a positive effect by directly improving the flow of the message in both directions. And if in some situations the same emotion helps, and in others it is an obstacle in the communication process, there is a common denominator that makes the message colored by emotions. Namely, any deviation from the meaning of the message in the presence of an excessive or inappropriate emotional reaction is considered to have occurred precisely because of the “emotional deviation” from the essence.

Ethical rules in communication

Employees in organizations, especially managers, who due to the nature of their work come into contact with a large number of people on a daily basis, must have a wide range of business behavior and the ability to quickly assess interlocutors.

There are certain rules that should always be applied, regardless of who the interlocutor is. *Calmness* is a very important trait. It must take place, regardless of the content and course of the conversation. The performances affect, people often make decisions that are not appropriate given situation, and sometimes even not rational. *Own identity and style in conducting conversations* are also important features. They encourage the interlocutor to pay attention to the content of



the conversation, which achieves greater efficiency of communication. It should be emphasized that identity and style must nevertheless remain within ethical frameworks. *Good manners and manners* must be an integral part of every communication process.

The business interview process itself should have the following characteristics:

- The interlocutor should look into the eyes and preserve a cheerful facial expression,
- Occasionally it should be addressed by last name, i.e. first name,
- Maintain a decent tone throughout the conversation,
- In no way underestimate or disparage the interlocutor,
- You don't have to be ironic or sarcastic,
- Maintain calm regardless of the behavior of the interlocutor,
- The interlocutor's argument should not be rejected in advance,
- One should give in to small things, have patience and pay attention to important issues,
- The presentation should be concise, precise and clear, avoiding unnecessary detail,
- Respect the authority, but they should not be undermined.
- Never allow disagreement to grow into debate and debate into conflict; there is no place for anger in business life;
- At the end of the conversation, one should greet each other culturally
- Apologies like, "sorry for bothering" etc., are not appropriate for a businessman,
- We shouldn't talk about what we don't understand,
- It is not good to impose your "I", and especially not by the power of your authority,
- Street jargon and swearing have no place in the business world,
- One should not emphasize one's origin and education with the aim of stand-



ing out in society,

- Upon arrival in the company should be greeted first, regardless of age, rank or year of service,
- Persons significantly older by age or position should not be addressed by name.

Business correspondence

Much of the time devoted to communication is related to *business correspondence*. Therefore, it is of great importance to define the basic rules of business correspondence.

There are three basic rules of correspondence:

1. Be clear;
2. Core;
3. Human

Respect for etiquette in the written word implies several unique principles, the most important of which are:

- Before you write something, think well about what you are writing.
- A letter that is not addressed correctly or that is not written in an appropriate tone can easily offend the person to whom it is addressed. You need to make sure that the person you are writing to understands you in the right way.
- If you want the letter to be delivered to a specific person, indicate this on the letter. The first rule is to state the recipient's name, title and function in both the letter and the envelope.
- Adapt the form and style of business correspondence to the recipient to whom most business correspondence is addressed in the form "Dear Sir"



or “Sincerely”, and the content of the letter must be clear and unambiguous.

- When you write a letter, read it and ask yourself, “Would I say the same thing if I met the person I am writing to in person”.
- Humor, irony and sarcasm should not be used as a technique when it comes to work.
- When sending a copy of a letter to someone other than the person to whom you are addressing the original, this should be clearly indicated at the bottom of the letter. Letter delivered...
- The letter should be answered immediately - no later than one week after receiving the letter. If, for justified reasons, you are unable to respond because you lack the requested data or information, you are required to acknowledge receipt of the letter in writing and state that you will respond in more detail as soon as you have collected the required information.
- Honest answers should be given; if you can't give an answer, say so, if you need to apologize, do so without hesitation.

Business letter

There are certain rules whose non-compliance can not only affect the prestige of your company, but also be an obstacle to concluding good contracts.

A business letter is a document that can validly do a job, so a business letter consists of mandatory (main) and optional (secondary) parts. Mandatory parts are essential and cannot be left out, while optional parts have only an auxiliary function, they can enrich the message with information that is not decisive, but which can play a significant role.



Mandatory parts of the letter

- *Header* It contains all the necessary information that identifies the sender of the business letter, company name, activity, street and number, postal code, place of business. Phone and fax numbers, e-mail, website, bank account number, branch list, year of establishment and company trademark can also be added. The header is written at the top of the business letter, usually in the middle, so that it is conspicuous and clearly marked. The design of this part of the letter should be given special attention. If the company logo and other propaganda tags are added to the header, a memorandum is created. The memorandum must be concise, with a few of the most important references about the company - the most prominent part is the logo, because it must be immediately clear who the business partner is.
- *Place and date of writing.* They are listed immediately after the header. The date of writing is important in many ways. Based on the date of writing - and not on the date of receipt - it is determined whether the letter was written on time. The date is important in order to establish which regulations of that date were in force and the axis of which a certain job was realized.
- *Name and address of the recipient.* Like the header, they consist of the following elements: the name of the company, its activity and destination (street and number, postal code and place).
- *Call signs (labels).* They are in the function of easier sorting of letters and mail in general. These can be the initials of the person or department of the company in which the letter was written. For example: your sign, our sign, your letter, our letter, etc.
- *Subject (summary) of the letter.* It represents the shortest contents of a business letter, a brief guideline which immediately points to what was going on and that is the main theme of the letter.
- *Letter content.* This is the most important part of the letter, which determines it and when it was written. With its content, the letter should be in the function of performing a business task. It is neces-



sary for the language of expression to be simple, precise, and clear, to respect syntaxes and spelling rules, and to take into account the economics of content. The basic structure of the content of written messages consists of several separate units:

- The *beginning of the statement* is addressing the business partner. The way of addressing is very important, especially at the first contact.
- *Message introduction* provides insight into the basic content of the message.
- The *message or essence of the statement* is its central and most important part, in which the essential information is presented. The writing style is official and administrative.
- The *conclusion* is a summary of the content and aims to determine, i.e. emphasize ambiguity again.
- *Hello*. As part of business etiquette, it is a kind farewell to a business partner and a sign of respect.
 - *Signature and stamp*. Every business letter must be signed, because without a signature it does not have the function of an official document. The authorized person representing the company (usually the owner of the company or the director) signs the letter.

The signature consists of: the name of the company, the function of the person authorized to sign, the handwritten signature and the printed name and surname with the personal titles of the person signing the letter.

Optional parts of the letter

- *Attachments*. These are all documents that are attached to the letter as a supplement or proof of its content. These can be brochures, catalogs, advertisements, price lists, samples, etc.
- *Indication of the method of sending the letter*. If the letter is sent by



ordinary mail, it is not specifically marked, but if it is sent by registered mail or in some other way, it must be stated at the end of the letter, after the attachment.

- *Schedule copies.* The letter is written in several copies. The original is sent to the business partner, and copies are distributed as needed. When a copy of a letter is sent to anyone other than the person to whom the original is addressed, this should be clearly indicated at the bottom of the letter. Sending copies of a letter to people at a higher hierarchical level can be wrong, sending copies should always be mentioned in the text of the letter.
- *Plug-in or postscript.* It is about the subsequent addition of the text (after the PS sign) at the end of the letter, after the signature and the seal. This part of the letter should be dedicated to the main argument of business cooperation. What is missed in the letter should never be added post scriptum, because you leave the impression of negligence and carelessness and initiate a negative opinion about the sender. The addition of grass should be as short and clear as possible.

Business letter design

In the business world, two basic forms of writing business letters are most often used, the American and European (or French) form as well as their variants.

In business letters written in *American or block form*, each part of the letter starts from the left margin (titles, subheadings, paragraphs, etc.) and each line, if it is full, are written from the right margin of the line. This means that each part (paragraph) is aligned on the left and right margins of the text, but there is a possibility that - if the line of text is not full - the right margin will be jagged, i.e. stepped.

When using the *French, stepped or perforated form of a business letter*, the name and address of the recipient are written in the middle of the line. Start each paragraph draws to 10-15 characters return to the left margin, and other lines of text begin from the left margin. Although it is not stipulated in



this form that the lines must be aligned on the right margin, it is recommended to do so.

Since a large number of business entities have their own memorandum, in practice it is often very difficult to always comply with one or another form of business letter. Therefore, there are deviations and various modifications, i.e. combined forms. One of them is the *American-French form* or semi-block. In this form, the name and address of the recipient are written in American, and the text in French. The second variant is the *French-American form* or a modified block, in which it is usual for the name and address to be in French, and the text of the letter in the American form.

When writing a letter, it is very important that the recipient's address is always written correctly, which on the one hand allows the letter to be forwarded to the desired address, and on the other hand, the absence of this can lead to dissatisfaction of the recipient.

Routine formal correspondence should begin the following way «Sincerely,» «Dear sir-ma'am». The text of the letter should be in the first person plural («We consider it your offer»). This form, however, is not appropriate when it comes to inquiries and complaints. At the end of the letter, if there is a closer relationship with the correspondent, it is common to use "Best regards". This phrase should always be used in later correspondence, because if it is used in the earlier, and not later, it can be understood as "cooling of relations".

In letters of a personal nature, "Dear... «, «Your...» can be used, with both being written by hand.

It is of great importance to address persons with titles, officials, diplomats and other officials in an appropriate manner.

Examples referring to the royal family, the clergy, some politicians and local government (refers to Great Britain). As these letters are written, we will give them in the original:

1. Letters to the Pope:

They start: *Your Holiness* or *Most Holy Father*.

2. Letters to the Prime Minister:

Beginning: *Dear Prime Minister*.



3. *Letter to the Minister of the Interior or Foreign Affairs:*

4. *Local government:*

They begin: *Dear Lord Mayor* or if the mayor is a female person *Dear Lady Mayor*. If you are addressing the mayor's wife then it is *Dear Lady Mayoress*.

5. *Royal House:*

Letters to princes and princesses:

They begin: *Your Royal Highness*.

Sometimes business letters can be refreshed with a certain amount of moderate humor, in order to alleviate the monotony of formality, which they usually bring with them. Irony and sarcasm should not be used as a technique when it comes to work. We can never be sure how it will be accepted by the recipient. The written word can always be interpreted in various ways, and that is beyond the control of the author of the letter.

It is best to respond to letters immediately or as soon as possible. In your usual business practice, this means within a period of five working days from the date of receipt of the letter. It is advisable to respond to the letters in person, whenever possible.

Correspondence is not the most suitable when it comes to conflicts. Many things can be vague or misinterpreted in this way, which can deepen the conflict. Therefore, in these cases, the following should be resorted to:

1. If you point to a conflict:

- Simply and clearly explain the problem to the person who made the mistake;
- Provide all necessary information related to what is being written about;
- Indicate the timeframe in which the problem is expected to be resolved, as well as the steps to be taken if the conflict is not resolved;
- If a solution is not reached even after this, contact the higher instances.

2. If you have a problem, you should:

- Inform your older colleagues about it;
- Show them the concepts of all the questions you intend to ask;



- Stick to the facts and the essence of the problem;
- Be polite and patient.

It is very important to consider using internal mail or a circular. An internal message or circulars are used if:

- A written trace of a decision, conversation or information should be left;
- A proposal or program that deserves careful study should be reviewed
- The topic that is being written requires to be discussed after working hours.

The content of the internal message or circular looks like this:

- The header of the message should emphasize how hit or confidential it is;
- The message should begin with a paragraph summarizing its content or its basic conclusion;
- The message should be written concisely, precisely and logically

Internal mail should not be used to criticize or humiliate someone . Personal criticism or disagreements should be resolved face to face, not in writing.

All advice given in connection with internal mail also applies to e-mail.





CONCLUSION

The success of business communication depends exclusively on the person. If a person is familiar with the basic moral and ethical principles, and adheres to them, then he will certainly establish quality communication.

There are many factors that affect the process of written and oral correspondence, but the key things are patience, education, courtesy, respect.

Through communication people learn to think. That is why we do not use only the offensive in our program and defensive system - we use a communication system.

(Mike Krzyzewski, coach Duke University men's basketball team).

It's not a matter of what you told them - it's about what they heard

(Red Auerbach, former coach Boston Celtics).

You can communicate without motivation, but it is impossible to motivate without communication

(John Thomson, former coach of the Georgetown University men's basketball team)



Coaching is communication. Successful coaches are masters of communication, and unsuccessful ones are often not they succeed , not because they have no knowledge of sports, but because of poor communication skills.

Sports psychologists (Yukelson, Carron, Horn, Jowet, Orlick, Smith, Smoll & Curtis, Harris & Harris, Anshel) emphasized that effective communication is key to success of each team, organization and their members. It affects the attitudes, motivations, expectations, satisfaction , team cohesion, team performance, coaching efficiency, feedback principles and reinforcements , conflict resolution skills, and overall behavior. Ability to be efficient expressions of thoughts, feelings and needs as well as the ability to understand thoughts, feelings, the ideas and needs of others is central to good communication As coaches, you need to be able to communicate effectively in countless situations such as a conversation with irritated parents, curious journalists, an excited athlete who is just “earned” another exclusion or suffered a serious injury, the judge who by wrong decision damaged your team, dissatisfied board members, members his professional team, his colleagues, fan representatives and others. Effective communication is crucial for successful training, as well as for all other aspects of our lives - marriage, parenting , professional career. So that we can say something more about communication in sports , it is necessary to provide information on the basics of the communication process.

Communication is the core of the group process. If a group wants to function successfully, its members they must communicate with each other openly, honestly, easily and efficiently. We have already said that from ways of communication between athletes, athletes and coaches, coaches and other important persons in closer and further sports environment, depends on the cohesiveness of the team, the quality of the team atmosphere, the success of the team and the satisfaction of its members. When we talk about communication in sports, we usually keep in mind:

1. *Communication between coach and team (coach-team)*
2. *Communication between coach and athlete (coach-athlete)*
3. *Communication between athletes (athletes-athletes)*

Coach-team communication. Team unity, cohesion, synergy or “chemistry “ are the result of good communication between the coach and his team, communica-



tion that motivates each team member to combine their skills and abilities with other team members in order to achieve together goals . The goal of the coach is to achieve agreement and commitment to team goals, training procedures, rules, norms of behavior. To achieve this he will need input from team members on what needs to be done to “keep everyone on the same side”, with a collective desire to be successful. Psychologist Yukelson suggests to the coaches that they keep in touch with the team the following useful principles:

Communicate important information to athletes regarding rules, expectations, work procedures

and the goals the team / club wants to achieve. Explain the mission of the team, describe the strategies and action plans to achieve team goals and objectives. Club staff and athletes involve them in the decision-making process that directly affects them.

Inspire athletes to give their maximum. Communicate with enthusiasm, be honest , direct and sincere. Instill in athletes a sense of pride, commitment, and belief and team spirit. Try to make every member of the team feel valuable and important.

Monitor team progress. Set goals, control them, evaluate and adjust if necessary. Give athletes feedback on their work to achieve personal and team goals and encourage them to accept the challenge of further advancement.

Clarify how things work. You speak openly about the commitment required to achieve team goals. Encourage athletes to accept responsibility for their own procedures , to continuously strive, be focused and follow the set goal.

Support the behaviors you want your athletes to adopt. Motivate them to do the right thing, provide a lot of support, encouragement and positive support. Discipline athletes accordingly with its coaching philosophy and team mission. Correct mistakes in a positive way.

Coach-athlete communication. Sport abounds with examples of good and bad communication between coach and athlete. The reasons for inefficient communication can be different. The coach doesn't know athlete , does not know what his needs, interests, strengths and weaknesses are, how he reacts to criticism, what ap-



proach motivates him and what demotivates him. Communication problems also occur when they are people under stress, when they are agitated, when the result is very important to them (which is often the case in sports). Inefficient communication can be caused by poor communication skills and coaches and athletes, carelessness of the athlete, his insufficient knowledge and the like. Combining Martens and Mackenzie factors that cause communication interference coach-athlete, we can summarize them as follows:

- The content that the coach communicates / communicates to the athletes does not correspond to the situation.
- The transmitted message does not state what the coach's intention is, because he lacks verbal and non-verbal skills needed to clearly, unambiguously and understandably formulate and send a message.
- The athlete did not receive the message because he did not pay attention (he was not careful).
- The athlete immediately started to conclude instead of listening carefully and understanding first and accepted.
- The athlete misunderstood or did not understand the received message because he misses listening skills or nonverbal skills.
- Athletes lack the knowledge needed to properly understand the content of a coach's message.
- The athlete understands the content of the message, but misinterprets its intention.
- Athletes lack the motivation to listen to information or turn it into action.
- Messages from the coaches are inconsistent (inconsistent) and confusing - confusing athlete and make it uncertain as to the meaning of their content.
- Perception athletes in connection with something different from your own.
- Strong emotions, excitement and stress can interfere with the communication process.
- There is a personal conflict between the coach and the athlete.

Disorders in communication are mutual, so are coaches who want to improve com-



munication they must consider carefully. The messages they send should be short, concise and clear, pronounced in an appropriate tone and accompanied by appropriate “body language” so as not to occur inconsistencies between the content of the verbal message and the nonverbal signals that accompany it. Since only 10% of the information people receive comes from spoken words, it is useful for coaches find out which style of learning and information processing their athletes prefer (visual, auditory or kinesthetic). In the sports - psychological literature there are many suggestions for improving the efficiency of communication between coaches and athletes.

Athlete-athlete communication. Forming sports teams is a dynamic process that goes through certain phases (formation, storm and storm, standardization and execution). It has been known for a long time that a set of people is not the same as a group, and a group is not the same as a team. The key difference between the group and the team is in the interaction between its members, and especially the one that arises in the process of achievement common goals. Members of sports teams are in a relationship of interdependence in striving to achieve common goals. That is why they should truly support each other they take care of each other both on and off the sports field. There are many examples that they confirm that athletes transfer their extraordinary relations to other areas of life - they become godparents , business partners or lifelong friends. However, as we have already mentioned, the formation of team cohesion and harmonious relations between athletes do not always run smoothly. Yukelson thinks sports teams are like families, so from time to time there are conflicts, misunderstandings, problems, frustration and tension. This is understandable because the players come from different racial, ethnic, religious, socio-economic environments, and these deep-rooted elements of culture lead to intercultural misunderstanding. Because values, beliefs, attitudes and rational roles differ from culture to culture, athletes need to learn to be tolerant, to each other accept , respect and understand. Potential conflicts, mutual misunderstanding and non-acceptance, as well as other communication problems, which occur more often in situations of failure, in competitive contexts fraught with high pressure and stress, they can be significantly reduced if athletes get to know each other better. Better knowledge contributes to deeper mutual understanding, support and acceptance, the development of a sense of team unity and belonging, and can be achieved through various group discussions, team building activities, or other coaching actions. Orlick says: “Communication is open an important step in preventing and resolving potential problems among team members. Hard is to respect the needs, feelings or perspectives of others when you don't know who



they are. “ He never did too late or too early to move in a positive direction, to turn negatively in positive or wrong in right. Drawing on Orlick’s considerations and his own experience, Yukelson suggests several suggestions for improving the process of interpersonal communication in sports teams:

- Make sure all members are pulling to the same side (the team comes first). Also, it is necessary to understand that the more open they are to each other, the more chances they have to achieve their goals.
- Discuss strategies for improving team harmony, including ways mutual support and assistance on and off the field.
- Listen to others, and they will listen to you. Put yourself in someone else’s shoes. Try to understand another person’s perspective .
- Learn how to constructively give and receive feedback or criticism. Assess what the message is of what has been said. Avoid receiving things in person.
- Learn how to better tolerate each other. Accept team members as they are including their flaws, personal whims, specifics, little funny habits that make them unique.
- Avoid gossiping and gossiping about teammates. Interpersonal cliques and petty jealousies they can quickly destroy team morale.
- Conduct discussions privately, avoid public confrontations. Work with the person directly.
- Accept that not all conflicts can be resolved, but most can be managed more successfully if both sides communicate.





Analysis of research results

The research on communication in sports was conducted in cooperation and with the support of the Belgrade Association for School Sports, a prominent sports institution that deals with the development of school and sports in general, and which enjoys a great reputation in the sports community of Serbia. The research involved 121 sports institutions / experts who had the opportunity to assess the importance of communication in sports through an online questionnaire .

Body in front when you fill out the questionnaire?

Sports club - blue

Sports Association - red

Sports expert - orange

Individual expert - green

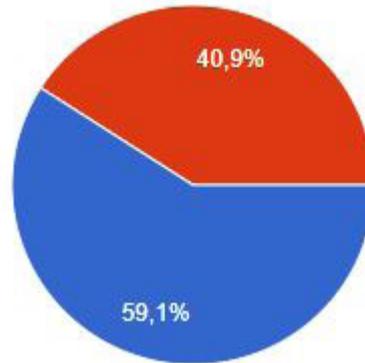
Sports Association -turquoise

The rest - purple

Most of the respondents filled in the research questionnaire in front of sports clubs and sports associations, so we can conclude that further answers were given with reference to extensive experience in direct work with athletes as well as with the management of the sports process.



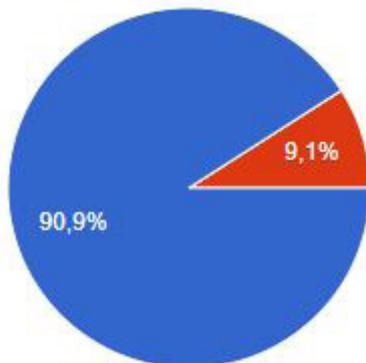
What form of communication do you consider more important for the development of young athletes?



Informal communication - blue

Formal communication - red

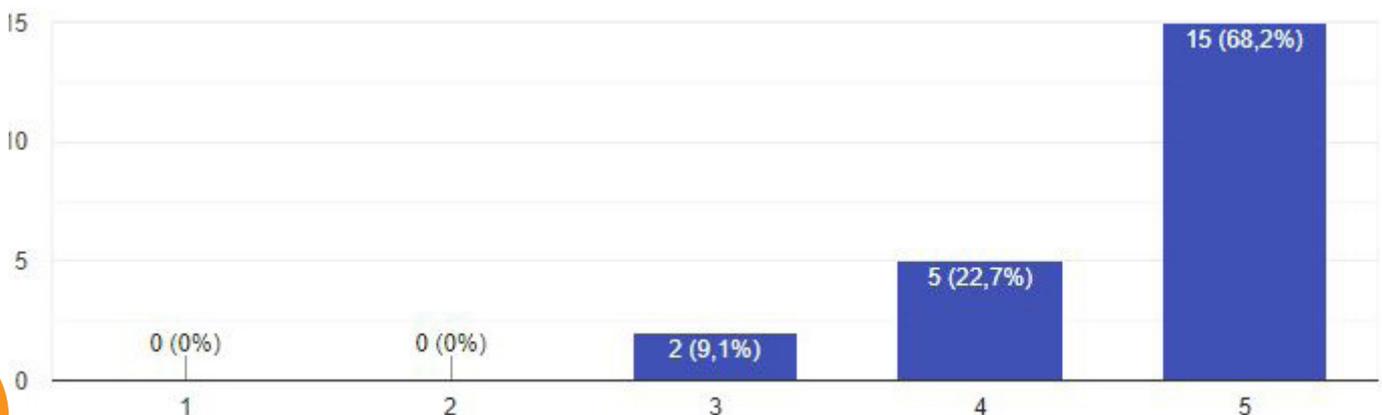
Which channel of communication do you consider more effective in one-way communication in sports?



Verbal (speech, text) - blue

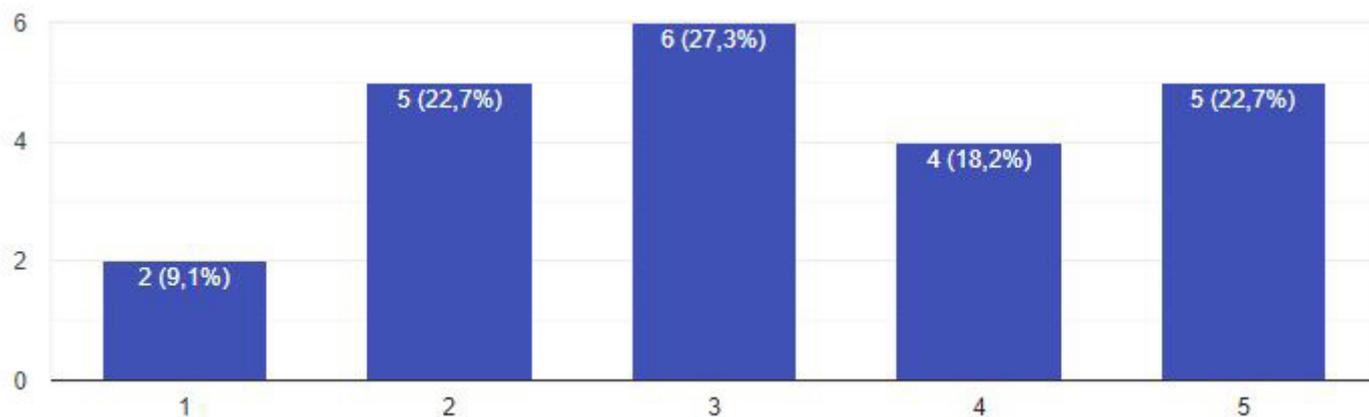
Nonverbal (body language, facial expression, mood) - red

How much importance in achieving top results is achieved by proper training of athletes to communicate with the team?

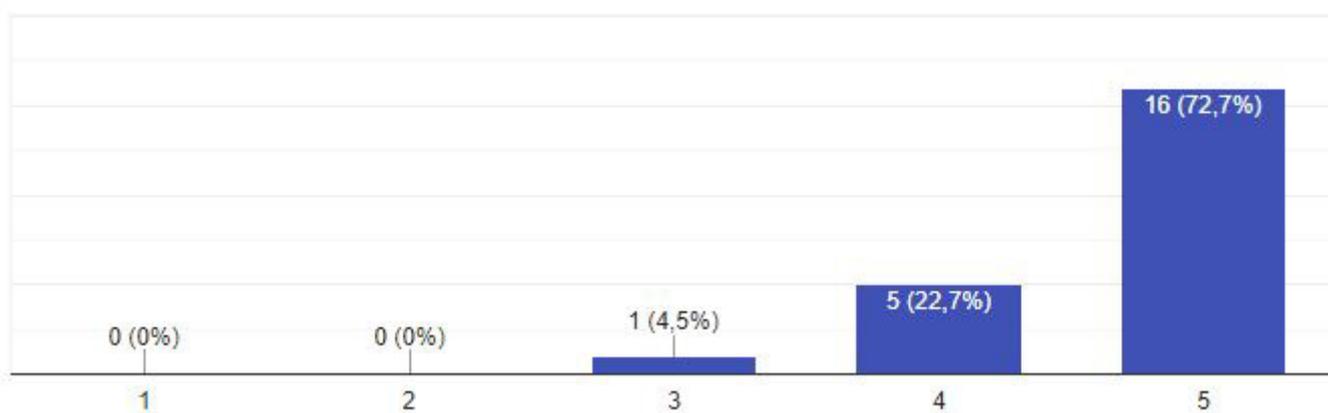




How do you assess the cooperation with the competent state institutions?



How important is the communication of sports clubs with branch federations?





POSITIVE APPROACH TO THE TRAINING PROCESS



Approaches to coaching

Generally speaking, there are positive and negative approaches to training and coaching in sports. At the core of both approaches are the principles of corroboration. Reinforcement is the use of rewards and punishments that will increase or decrease the likelihood that similar responses or behaviors will occur in the future. Reinforcements are used when we want to strengthen certain behaviors or modify those that we feel are inadequate. Reinforcement is any operation that strengthens a behavior, and punishment is any operation that weakens the behavior. Reinforcement can appear in two forms: as the presence of something positive (positive reinforcement) or as the removal of something negative (negative reinforcement). Similarly, punishment appears as the presence of something negative, or as the removal (denial) of something positive. The principles of reward and punishment are closely related to effective behavior modification. The first principle involves the application of rewards. If some activities or behaviors result in favorable, positive consequences (such as receiving rewards - verbal, symbolic, material), then people tend to repeat such behaviors in order to be rewarded again. The second principle involves the application of penalties. If some activities result in unpleasant consequences (such as different types of punishment), then people show a tendency to avoid such behaviors in order to avoid the expected negative consequences, punishments. Coaches try to influence the behavior of their athletes in different ways. One of their main goals, Smith points out, is to create situations suitable for learning and improving the technical and tactical skills that athletes need to succeed as individuals and as a team. Another priority for most coaches is to create a supportive social environment in which athletes can experience positive



interactions with each other, build team cohesion, teamwork, commitment to common goals, develop “mental strength” and team spirit, and learn many other life skills. Most coaches in their work with athletes, in an attempt to motivate them to learn sports skills, combine both a positive and a negative approach. However, sports psychologists agree that the basic approach in working with athletes, especially young people, should be positive. They believe that 80% - 90% of the reinforcement should be positive. Psychologist Kauss (1980, according to 58) believes that punishment, as a means to change and control behavior should not be used in excess of 5%. In principle, punishing unwanted behavior should lead to a reduction of such behavior, however, in practice it can cause many problems such as strengthening unwanted behavior, reducing the motivation of athletes, attracting attention, interrupting the learning process, etc. To more effectively influence the behavior of their athletes, coaches use basic learning principles such as: positivity (as opposed to a negative approach), control, reinforcement, and performance-related feedback. The essence, or “ABC” behavior control, is contained in the setting: IF a stimulus (Antecedent) A is present and behavior B (Behavior) takes place, THEN a certain consequence C (Consequence) will appear. All people, even athletes, through experience they learn which behaviors and under what conditions lead to certain consequences. Certain antecedents or stimuli signal the likelihood of consequences of a given behavior in given situations. When the goalkeeper sees the opponent’s attacker breaking through to his goal without any major problems, it is a sure sign for him that a shot will follow. That is why he prepares in time and puts himself on the side of the goal for which he expects the ball to be sent. Or, players quickly learn that it is not appropriate to make jokes at the expense of a player who missed the winning penalty. So, when antecedents influence someone’s behavior, then it is said that the behavior is under the control of the stimulus. In sports, says Smith, many behaviors are under the control of stimuli, because they often react automatically and recklessly. But, what happens after a particular stimulus elicits a response? This response or behavior is accompanied by certain consequences, and it depends on whether they are positive or negative whether such behavior will be strengthened or weakened.

A positive approach to coaching

Unlike a negative approach that primarily focuses on punishing unwanted behavior often by creating fear of mistakes and failure, a positive approach focuses on seeking, rewarding, and reinforcing things that athletes do well and forming new desirable behaviors. Depending on whether athletes are punished or rewarded, they are motivated either by the need to avoid mistakes and bad behaviors, or by the need to repeat and stand up desired performances and adequate behaviors. Most coaches use both reinforcements (rewards) and punishments to encourage and develop the desired motivational orientation and shape the desired behaviors.



Positive and negative approaches to coaching, in fact, represent positive and negative control of athletes' behavior. Both types of control are based on the fact that the behavior is strongly influenced by the consequences it produces. Positive reinforcement and punishment are the main pillars of positive and negative behavior control. Positive and negative control in turn form the basis of a positive and negative approach in coaching. A positive approach is designed to empower (reinforce, reinforce) desired behaviors by motivating athletes to perform them and reinforcing such behaviors when they occur. Another, negative approach involves attempts to eliminate negative behaviors through punishment and criticism. Fear is a basic motivating factor in a negative approach. Coach observation research shows that most coaches use a combination of positive and negative control. Weinberg and Gould, as well as Smith point out that in almost every society, negative control through punishment is perhaps the most widespread means of controlling behavior. On the negative control, ie. our legal system is based on the fear of punishment, our school system on the fear of failure and bad grades, etc. In sports, negative control and fear of punishment are the basis of a negative approach in coaching.

Smith and Smoll and their associates made the greatest contribution to the empirical study of the behavior of coaches on the field (trainings and competitions) and the impact of such behavior on the nature of their athletes' sports experiences. About their CBAS system for observing coaching behavior and the results of a large study they conducted in 1979 on athletes trained by trained coaches (to use a positive approach - rewarding, positive reinforcement, general technical instructions, performance-related feedback, general encouragement, constructive approach in correcting mistakes, etc.) and athletes led by coaches who did not undergo specific training to apply a positive approach, we talked in the chapter on leadership in sports - more precisely in describing the cognitive mediation model of Smith and Small. The mentioned research, as well as a number of later ones, unequivocally confirmed that two thirds of the observed coaches use a positive approach in coaching and that the behavior of coaches is related to the attitudes and satisfaction of athletes. Athletes who played for positively oriented coaches compared to those who played for untrained coaches, preferred their coaches, liked clubmates and teammates more, showed greater readiness to continue playing sports in the coming seasons, ie. . they left the sport less. It was determined that the coach's popularity is not significantly related to recently won or lost matches, but the athletes concluded that the winning coaches like their parents more than the coaches of losing teams. Smoll and Smith concluded that victory makes little difference between children, but they know that victory is important for adults. Also, a generally positive approach that combines instruction, reinforcement and encouragement, has shown a positive impact on increasing athletes' self-confidence, general self-esteem, as well as on success in learning techniques in football, gymnastics, swimming, baseball, golf and tennis. It was also confirmed that a positive approach in with special emphasis on the formation of a motivational climate oriented to mastery, leads to a decrease in both components (somatic and



cognitive) of sports anxiety. Positive effects of using psychological principles of rewarding, reinforcement, feedback, creating a motivational climate that forces the orientation to mastery and perfection, and not the so-called. ego orientation (result and placement in relation to others), in which success is defined more broadly than victory, in which “the athlete is primary and victory is secondary”, are reflected in shaping sports and fair play behavior and reducing all forms of aggressive, violent and hostile actions towards other participants in sports.

THEORY OF SPORTS TRAINING

The theory of sports training is a scientific, teaching, methodological and practical discipline, which studies kinesiological, anthropological, methodological and methodological laws of planning, sports training programming and control.

In the broadest sense, the theory of sports training studies the laws of transformation processes (adaptation) of anthropological characteristics athlete, as a multidimensional, dynamic and complex system, in order to maximize the potential of the organism to achieve the highest sports achievements. The word training is of Latin origin and comes from the verb “trehere” which means to pull, to pull out. Like the term appears in Old French, and seems to have passed from the Normans from France to England. In England, it is used in equestrian sports where a new one is formed meaning - taking a horse out of the barn with the aim of training, increasing abilities, training. Most likely, the term “training” was transferred from equestrian sports to sports as a whole. It is not known exactly when the word “training” took on its current meaning in sports. Thanks to the theory of sports training as a scientific discipline, we know exactly what is happening in the athlete’s body under the influence of very hard training work and great stress during competition, what happens in the nervous system during learning certain technical and tactical knowledge, how to prepare athletes in terms of altitude training and how to ensure quality nutrition under conditions of aerobic and anaerobic loads or loads directed at strength development. Although science in sports, and especially the theory of sports training, is young scientific discipline, today we have very important data on the best biomechanical analyzes of movements and movements, on the basis of which the learning process can be effectively controlled motor skills.



* The name **kinesiology** was first used by Dally (1857), and Stedson and Douman (1953) were suggested that kinesiology be treated as an independent science. From during and after this period the term and the development of kinesiology is associated with a number of problems. Today, in a broader sense, it is under kinesiology implies a science that studies the laws of management of anthropological transformation processes characteristics under the influence of programmed exercise, in order to achieve the appropriate desired states (starting points) in various kinesiological activities (sports, sports recreation, fitness, education and kinesiotherapy), as well as the consequences (effects) of these processes on the human body. Dramatic progress in the ability of athletes, and thus sports results, makes an even greater demand that today top training must rely on the latest scientific knowledge from many scientific ones disciplines, which are combined into scientific theories within the theory and methodology of training. Therefore, the theory and methodology of training, uses processes and transforms into new scientific knowledge information from a number of anthropological sciences.

GOALS OF SPORTS TRAINING THEORY

The main goal of the theory of sports training in the global sense is to **determine the legality functioning of the integral system**, when it consists of the athlete, sports activity and sports environment (athletes and coaches and their relationship).

The next **important goal of the** theory of sports training is to determine the **laws according to which it is possible define the characteristics of sports activity**, which are the result of structural, biomechanical, functional and other, analyzes and the basis of knowledge about the specifics of certain sports disciplines.

Structural analysis is used in determining typical structures, substructures and structural units of sports activity. This analysis solves the issue of hierarchy and characteristics of typical phases, sub phases and structural units that make up the motor content of a particular sport. Biomechanical analysis refers to the determination of basic kinematic and kinetic parameters movements, that is, the analysis of spatial, temporal and spatio-temporal characteristics movements, as well as dynamometric analysis of forces that develop in muscles and muscle groups during motor activity. Biomechanical data are useful in the determination efficiency of performing the technique, where deviations can be determined in a very simple way performance of a movement in relation to the ideal model of performance, because both one and the other can be described by an equal parametric system of biomechanical quantities. That's how I can be obtain data on differences in angular values, in indicators of speed and acceleration and the parameters of the force between the movements performed by a particular athlete and those movement techniques that realizes a top athlete.



Functional analysis provides information on the structure and dominance of energy processes in certain sports and disciplines. According to Fox (1972) basic energy processes are defined as aerobic and anaerobic and participate differently in sports. Undoubtedly in cyclic endurance-type sports activities, aerobic energy plays a leading role oxygen capacity and consumption as a measure of an athlete's aerobic capacity. In sports disciplines of relatively short duration that require a high degree of speed and strength, for the most part energy is provided from anaerobic reserves. In this group there are sports games like activities of high pace and maximum intensity, as well as martial arts in which it dominates glycolytic anaerobic energy process. So, based on functional analysis, sports activities can be classified into anaerobic, aerobic and mixed sports.

The next goal of sports training theory is to determine the **laws that enable analysis personal characteristics of the athlete**, ie his abilities, traits and characteristics, which enable the achievement of high sports results. This is actually the task of sports theory training, to answer the question of which trait, abilities and characteristics of the athlete depends achieving a sports result and what are their mutual relations. When all of the above is known, it is now necessary to determine the **laws by which it is possible to optimally methodically shape the training process**, in order to work most efficiently to the transformation of precisely those abilities that are responsible for high training and sportsmanship form, with each individual and sports team.

A further goal of the theory of sports training is to determine the **laws according to which it would take place selection** (guidance and selection) of potential candidates for top sport. For this purpose the most important thing is to determine the precise (metrically tested) measuring instruments that will be used best able to measure, control and monitor the development of dominant traits, abilities and characteristic of the athlete. In the end, when all these conditions are met, the **goal** of sports training theory is to determine laws that enable **rational programming of training of athletes of different ages, gender and different quality levels**. The realization of the goals of the theory of sports training and the determination of legality is only possible successful if the scientific approach is based on such methodological procedures as they are basic structural elements: **scientific experiment, diagnostic methods, statistical and cybernetic methods**.





CONCEPT AND DEFINITION OF SPORTS TRAINING

The essence of the orientation of training as practically the most important legality is that the training process we focus on the development of those factors that are also contained in the hierarchical structure as a model of a particular sport. *Only in this way is it possible to achieve the desired final state defined at the top pyramid as a goal.* It follows logically and clearly that the top of the pyramid will be higher if the base (development basic anthropological characteristics dependent on genetic predisposition) change on the initial state or in the stage before the beginning of the systematic development of specific anthropological characteristic. In order to achieve top sports form as a condition for achieving the desired sports result, a stage of situational preparation is necessary, through which a specific one is raised competitive efficiency both in functional and structural sense (bioenergy, technique, tactics). The technological path in the training process begins with the diagnostics that are in the form of control and monitoring is repeated in each subsequent stage, ie in a transitive state. Each of the transient states is determined by new stimulating stimuli, ie the optimal one straining stimuli adequate to the current capabilities of the athlete detected through diagnostics. Optimal management of training technology therefore implies accurately estimated time duration of certain stages where there will be no unnecessary waste of time and energy. In this way, a precise progression of the adaptation of athletes to higher demands will be observed new steps on the way to the top of the pyramid. The essential tasks on this path are constant searches (experiments) for increasingly effective training tools, methods and loads that will be involved in each subsequent stage, or transitive state. Of course this is not possible without systematic and specific diagnostics (testing) of control and monitoring during the entire sports track as well as in all minor periods and cycles.

Numerous attempts to define sports training in the end always remain vague and with a lot integral concepts that need to be redefined. Thus the practical benefit of such the definition is reduced to zero, because the real essence and goal of this extremely complex has been lost process. On the other hand, when we talk about sports training today, we all act like we are fully aware of the meaning of this term, however, when trying to answer question, What is sports training ?, we encounter great difficulties. Every term that occasion we use it is still interpreted differently, and requires a more detailed explanation and what in the case favored approach (medical, physiological-biochemical, psychological, sociological, pedagogical ...) gives a very confusing and unrealistic picture of sports training. It would be overpowering in even an attempt to give the "best solution" for the objective and current is presented in this situation understanding the kinesiological-anthropological concept of sports training. No definition means much so long until we have studied what we are working on, and then every definition is over unnecessary (Mainland, according to Petz, 1981). That is why it is far better than the "unfortunate definition" emphasize the essence and concept of sports training through its goal, role and tasks. Since the human organism (exposed to systematic strenuous multi-year sports activity)



forced to use all its adaptive mechanisms in training and competition conditions and passes all individual specific processes in the system of adaptation syndrome 1. (in chapter footnote) it can rightly be said that precisely this complex process of adaptation underlies the concept sports training. Starting from this concept, **sports training could be defined as specific long-term intensive process of adaptation of the organism, achieved by application optimal training stimuli (means, nets, loads) at the right time 2(footnote) in order to transform those anthropological characteristics of which depends on achieving top sports results.** Thus, sports training is a targeted continuous process of adapting the organism to specific and increasing efforts that will provide super-adaptation processes and thus a high sports result.

The goal of such a process is certainly the optimal level of adaptation of all characteristics, abilities and characteristics on which the desired but realistically possible, therefore pre-planned sports the result. The essence of sports training, regardless of the different approaches to the definition of the term and different definition, is that always: *-causes adaptive changes,-represents a specific type of mental and physical work,-implemented systematically,-it is planned and programmed,-represents a long-term process of sports specialization,-represents an activity that is managed using specific means, methods and loads,- is carried out above the limit loads at which the maximum physical and mental are overcome efforts,-is aimed at maximizing abilities in accordance with the dispositions and conditions in which derivatives.* From this it can be seen that the training has a multi-layered character. This multi-layer is beautifully expressed in Vittori's (1982) definition of sports training, which reads: **Sports training is a complex pedagogical process that is concretized in an organized way exercise - work, which is repeated with such a load to activate physiological processes super compensation and adaptation of the organism. This improves physical, mental, intellectual, technical and tactical qualities of the athlete, which are manifested in raising competitive results.**

The basic role of sports training is to use the athlete's sports management system "introduces" into sports form and enables the achievement of maximum sports results. This management of the sports form implies a deep knowledge of individual characters optimal training loads. In the second part of this book, special attention is paid determining the optimal training loads, because huge mistakes are still made today precisely because of insufficient knowledge of the causes of certain consequences, so it is often "shot in empty" that is, unselected training stimuli are predominantly intuitively determined, with hoping that some of them will hit the target and make the necessary adaptation. Therefore, in this situation, it is impossible to determine the targeted effect of training stimuli and manage its output (consequences) or effects. The optimal harmonious composition of the means is still not applied in the training practice, methods and loads, because little is known about what efficiency depends on in certain sports disciplines.



Goals and tasks of sports training

The basic task of sports training is to give the athlete through organized diagnostic systems, control and monitoring of dominant ability traits and characteristics, with constant optimality planning and programming their development, leads to the desired goal. This means that the training process is focused on the development and maintenance of all important components of training and sports form that athletes will ensure their participation in competitions and achieve high sports results.

The tasks of sports training represent the set of desired effects that are sought to be achieved through organized and programmed training. Some basic and most important tasks of sports training are:- *Formation and improvement of specific abilities and knowledge for performing typical movement structures that make up the technique of the sports branch,- Formation and improvement of specific abilities and knowledge for performing typical structures of situations that make up the tactics of the sports branch,- Development and stabilization of primary and specific, functional and motor abilities which make the fitness of athletes,- Raising the level of efficiency of mental-cognitive abilities specific to the specific sports activity.- Positive direction and stimulation of the value system and motivation of athletes,- Improving the health status of athletes,- Development and maintenance of positive personality traits in accordance with the character of the sports branch,- Raising the capacity of microsocial adaptation,- Formation of integral efficiency of athletes, having in mind the relationship of individual determinants sporting success.*

Information important for achieving the goals, role and tasks of sports training.

Sports training, as we have said, aims to achieve sports results through development and perfecting sports form. However, there is no optimal management of sports, we know all the factors on which it depends. Before the operative stage in training technology, the **first question** that arises is what are these features, capabilities and characteristics on which the sports score depends. If it is not known the management of the sports training process it is not possible. Thus, only after determining the dominant anthropological characteristics for a particular sport can be approached by training programming. It is impossible to succeed program training if we do not have as much information as possible about the factors on which it depends efficiency or success in a particular sport. In such conditions it comes to intuitive and spontaneous work. Only those anthropological characteristics that are directly responsible to achieve a sports result, and the individual naturally (genotypic ally) possesses them, it is necessary systematically improve (phenotypically). It is very important to have it as well information on the genetic conditioning of each of the essential traits, abilities and characteristics. The one that is genetically highly conditioned, ie that has a high birth rate -heredity coefficient h^2 (the magnitude of the variance of each factor that is influenced by genetic components) has a limited ability to change under the influence of sports training. This specifically means that if in the hierarchical structure of the traits, abilities and characteristics of on which the sports result depends, finds at the beginning the one with a high



coefficient of innateness, the system of selection must be directed towards the discovery of those persons who are anthropological they have a “naturally” highly developed characteristic. Otherwise it will become a very big limiting factor in achieving a high score, which are unfortunately discovered much later when a lot of effort, time, and energy has already been invested. This process then becomes not economical and the trainings themselves means to “harassment” of athletes, with a series of health and psycho-social destructions. Of course, all this is not enough for successful training programming. A special problem represents the **answer to the questions:** what are the measuring instruments and what methods can be used measure and control the dominant anthropological characteristics, as well as which ones are optimal training stimuli (means, methods and loads) by which these are dominant characteristics can develop most effectively. Suppose we know on which anthropological characteristics the sports result depends, and we do not have the tools to measure and control their development, or even worse to evaluate those characteristics with measuring instruments that have very bad metric characteristics. The most difficult consequence is that we have measured something other than what we think we are and what we were supposed to measure. In this case, we started the whole chain catastrophic errors. All training contents that we determine on the basis of such assessment straits, abilities and characteristics are completely wrong, because we do not influence changes with the man anthropological characteristic that is important and that we think we have measured, rather than quite one another that may even have an antagonistic effect in a hierarchical system of factors of which depends on the sports result. So, the training is directed in the completely wrong direction. Instead of we get closer to the goal more and more, as time passes we move away from the goal (see fig.)

factor errors *With training technology, we need to list the process of transformation of dominant performance athletes towards achieving a goal (sports result) in a certain sport and discipline. So the direct path is along the line O-target with as few oscillatory waves as possible (errors and deviations). All deviations from the direction that leads to the desired state (goal) represent a mistake in training, ie training is redirected. We no longer develop those abilities, traits and characteristics on which success in a certain sport directly depends, but those that are most often needed for another sport or sports discipline, so the result in a trained discipline decreases more and more, and never reaches the desired state for a certain time as well as the final state during the sports career. Mistakes, weaker results and even shortening of sports career are bigger the bigger the deviations. Thus, mistakes make training increasingly uneconomical and, above all, inefficient.* The same consequence occurs in the case that we have accurately assessed the dominant anthropological characteristic, without knowing or applying the wrong training contents (means methods and loads) for its transformation. We will stimulate development again some other characteristics, which in turn can disrupt the necessary harmonious unity of the optimal preparedness of those anthropological characteristics on which the result depends. Information on certain **foods is** extremely important **for successful programming of spot training** principles and laws of sports training that condition and determine the course of adaptation process. **Every coach in order to be successful (creative, original) must be a specialist training programmer, and not work according to the program** , which is a consequence of poor knowledge of laws, whose basis is biological - physiological-biochemical nature, and the super structure methodological and technological. A special chapter (4) of this book talks in detail about the basics the laws of sports training. **As a training experiment that lasts continuously and it will never end** it is clear that the coaches who



manage such an experiment must well know and predict the effect of training stimuli, **which implies good knowledge laws of sports training**. **Otherwise, the “coach” will find himself in a chaotic, vicious, hopeless circle in search for ideal “recipe” programs (which of course do not exist) and lose every epithet the entity that manages the training process.** In the process of developing abilities and traits, an athlete, guided by his coach must be happy with the basic training factors, which are: Versatile physical development - base. Sports-specific physical development. Technical factors. Tactical factors. Psychological factors. Health factors. Injury prevention. Theoretical training. Also, in the entire process of sports training, the basic principles of I must be respected laws of sports training, and the most important are the following:

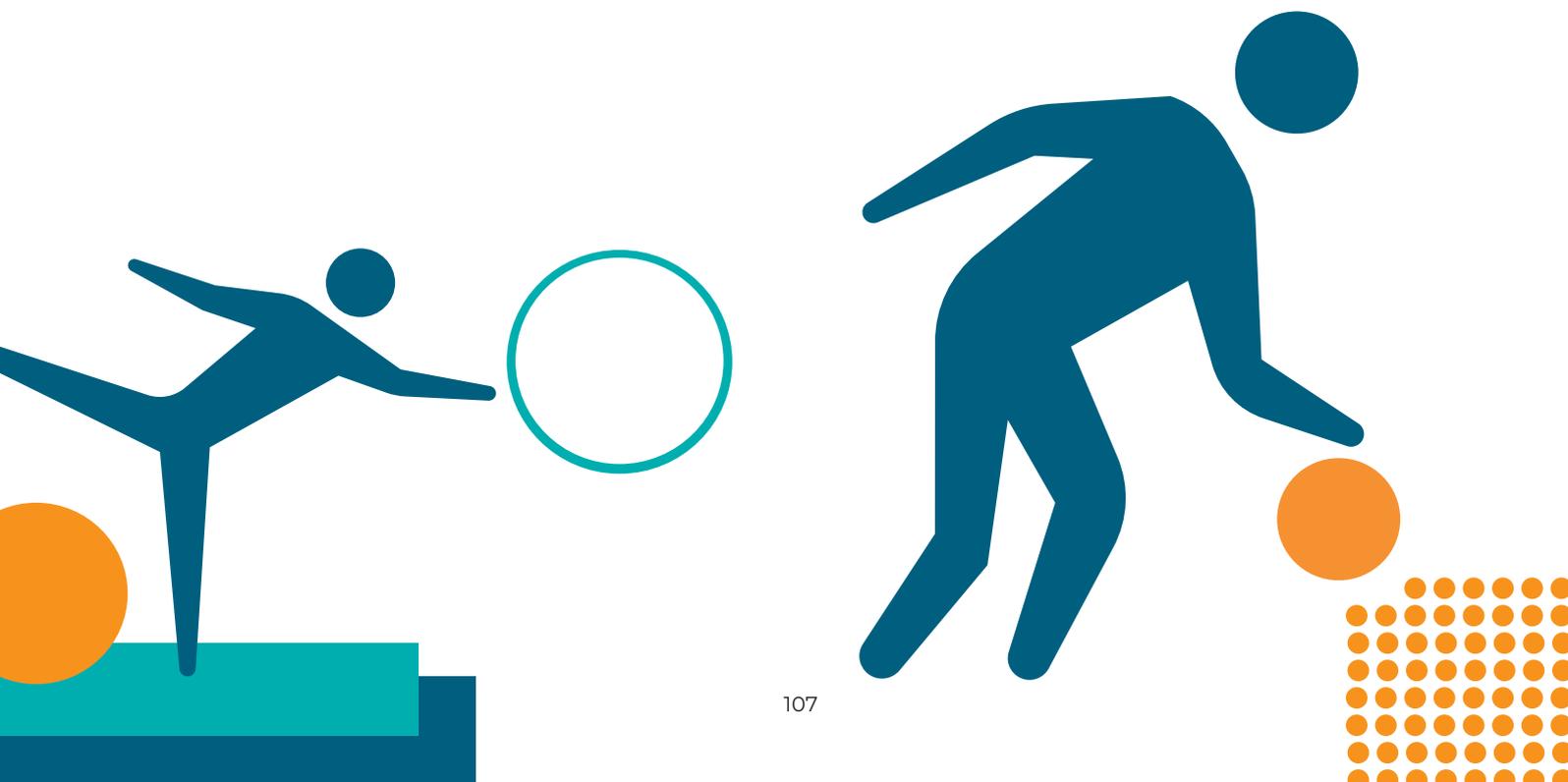
Laws of training Adaptability Orientation Continuity Cyclically

Principles of training . Training philosophy must be based on knowledge of the negative effects of early specialization (early sports-specific development) and positive effects of a multilateral (basic) program.

Sports training is not a process that can be learned, it needs to be explained and understood. Many scientific disciplines that are directly related to sports training (physiology, psychology, pedagogy, sociology, biology, biochemistry, genetics, etc.) in their definitions of training have confirmed its very great complexity. If partially approached or if any are measured function, thus determining only the state of a particular function and in no way gives us the right to we conclude about training as a whole or to give preference to a function in an integral process adaptations. The complexity of the training process is precisely in the multidisciplinary interdependence and interaction relations of a large number of criteria, which for now are practically impossible to take and to register in the form of a complete integral, unique phenomenon. That's why training is necessary understood as a very specific process in which it is constantly found for each individual appropriate optimal sequence of events (technological process) and the number of factors that are responsible for performance. The sports training process is not a template or any other mechanical procedure give in the form of a “recipe” valid for everyone, as unfortunately we still have the opportunity to see and hear many “experts” who offer the wrong solutions with unmistakable certainty, because they do not enough theoretical knowledge. The coach in addition to knowledge must have a strong intuition as a talent for the work he does, which is the case in all creative and creative activities, and must be able to decide for himself on the current need and type of help to an athlete by others experts (e.g. psychologists). The help of other experts, authorities in their profession, is far away needed by a coach than athletes and often in this relationship there are misconceptions and intimidation that bring great harm to the profession itself. Insufficient attention is still paid to genetic factors, so there are misconceptions about heredity motor conditioning is widespread. Genetic factors determine the unrepeatable biochemical individuality through the unique morpho functional organization of each individual. String these biochemical and morpho functional specificities require a completely different approach and different optimal stimuli in each individual in the process of maximum adaptation. It has long been believed that the process of sports training tries to “acquire” better motor skills. That's right it happened (unfortunately it is still present) that slower athletes worked at speed, weaker at strength, etc. These athletes have achieved and are achieving average results because of their abilities subordinate to



training and not training to their abilities that they possess and that are important for achieving a sports result. This certainly speaks of insufficient attention paid to genetics factors. Today's research (in the world) of the significance, degree and process of motor inheritance abilities, thanks primarily to genetic engineering and molecular biology, are crumbling broad paths to revolutionary knowledge in the field of sports genetics. It will all definitely work erase theoretical assumptions, such as misconceptions about recipes and formulas for achieving the top sports results. The coach will still have a wealth of resources, methods and loads in its vast variety, which with its intuition and great knowledge it needs select and adapt to each individual to such a degree of precision that the stimuli work exactly to the cause, as does some remarkable pharmacological preparation. Another misconception that harms our sports practice is the present opinion and the phenomenon that certain types of preparations as we call them in practice (as, technical, tactical, physical, psychological, etc.) are treated as some isolated dimensions of training from which they can arise solutions for high success without the operators of these preparations even being present physically or emotionally in the time and space of sports training (as the division of coaches into fitness, technical-tactical, psychologist in the club or national team, etc.). All this must be within scope coaching abilities, and for narrower knowledge and deeper knowledge as well as for raising the natural intuition to a higher level, great help should be sought from experts from other scientific disciplines which can help improve the training process. Simply put, it's big the misconception that the help of other experts is needed by an athlete rather than a coach. That's exactly the situation inverted. **Only talented coaches with a talented athlete can achieve success.** Very talented coaches without talented athletes are almost as powerless as very gifted athletes are thus predetermined for high results. Insufficient objectification in training unfortunately, it did not allow a statistical analysis of how many athletes celebrated the coach or how many is the number of coaches who have celebrated the athlete.





BASIC LAWS, PRINCIPLES AND RULES IN SPORTS TRAINING

At this point, the basic characteristics, ie the basic essence, will be presented the most important laws, principles and rules of sports training in particular, however, it must be pointed out that in training technology they cannot be considered partially, but integral, because only in this way can I encompass all aspects of the modern conception training work, ie the only way to optimally manage, plan and program, construct, control and effectively implement the process of sports training. **Training orientation** Sports training will be focused only when it is gradual, specific and individually, states in the direction of the goals to be achieved in a particular sport and discipline. This means that they must be optimal in the process of sports training to develop and perfect those abilities and characteristics, that is, all those qualities that are primary to achieve the greatest possible sports performance. In that sense, it is necessary to know structures and relations between anthropological characteristics of athletes, as well as methods for diagnosing the initial and predicting the final state of training. So only when there is a predicted goal and a model of hierarchical structure anthropological dimensions of athletes, which are necessary to achieve sports results, it is possible to approach the development of the structure and content of the training, which are directed in the desired direction. Athletes are very different from each other and for them are ways of development and improvement different. The orientation of training towards the characteristics of age is especially important, because it is known that due to the biological determinants of a child's development, training is in the first stages long-term preparations more focused on the development of a complex of knowledge and skills, while training in the later stages of sports development is focused on development and maintenance other sports and motor qualities. For the development of any motor ability is a must define the most favorable age (ie period of sensibility) of the child-athlete, in which it is especially sensitive to training stimuli of a certain orientation. For each age category, it is necessary to determine the degree of sensitivity, ie possibilities development of the athlete's primary abilities. Likewise every individual is indifferent initial state and has different final possibilities, according to which directs the training process. For these reasons, individual training is increasingly used based on diagnostics, planning, programming, control and analysis of training process. The principle of individuality, which we see, is based on all this must be respected for training to be targeted. The same is the case with the principle of gradualness, which is reflected in the fact that when starting training process (especially in young athletes) must gradually increase load, both volume and intensity. Of course, training will not be directed if the principle of specificity is not respected implies that most of the time in training should be devoted to development and improvement specific, for a given sport and discipline, characteristics and abilities.

Continuity of training The essence of training continuity is that in multi-year and one-year during the training cycle there is a constant change of work interval



and rest interval, ie loads and reliefs. So a continuous increase in athlete training can be sure not only gradually dosed optimal loads, but also optimal ones rest intervals. In this regard, the continuity of training implies that each the next training exceeds the effects of the previous training, ie rest intervals they should be such that the next load always falls in the supercompensation phase, which means that each subsequent workout relies on “traces” of the previous workout.

Preparation period is dominated by basic preparation, which primarily refers to the first part of the preparatory period, while the competition period is dominated by special and situational preparation including, of course, technical-tactical training with approaching the most important ones competitions basic preparation is reduced to a minimum and does not exceed 10-20% of the total training work.

TRAINING TECHNOLOGY

Technology is the science of skills and crafts (Greek techne, logos). When we say training technology then we mean the science of skill and craft that are called training. Since the purpose of technology is change, transformation, training technology is the highest form of this change because refers to the change of both the form and the internal structure of the human organism. Training technology uses all scientific knowledge from all areas touch on the adaptive abilities of the human body (multidisciplinary approach -anthropological, methodological, informational, cybernetic, organizational, operational etc.). It represents a scientific presentation of human activity whose purpose is optimal adaptation in order to achieve high sports results. Training technologist (coach) in this concept is a professional connoisseur of training as a skill and craft.

Technological procedures:

1. Defining the goal
2. Determining the condition of the subject
3. Determining limiting factors
4. Selection of training tools
5. Determining training loads
6. Choice of training methods



7. Control of transitive states

8. Analysis of final results

The goal of training technology is to achieve the highest possible efficiency in the shortest possible time. For the realization of such activities requires a multidisciplinary, complex and integral approach using all the essential factors in order to optimize the training process. In the stated technological procedures under the determination of limitation factors they are mostly genetic restrictions, ie the need to determine them genetic limits of each person. Optimizing the training process is exactly shortening the time maximizing efficiency or sports results, which largely depends on genetic predispositions (talent - degree and intensity of adaptation). Such optimization today in state-of-the-art training technology is accomplished at the expense of increase intensity (strength) of training, which of course requires additional effort in selection optimal training stimuli to develop those traits, abilities, and characteristics on which the sports result depends the most. It is often mentioned in professional and scientific literature (which refers to sports training) the term transformation (a well-accepted term) is therefore very important to explain briefly its notion or meaning. Transformation in the general sense means change. As the purpose of sports training is to change the sequence relevant elements from the initial, through a large number of transitional (transitive) states to the final state or goal (model - desired sports result) the term transformation is quite justifiably and correctly used. Basically cybernetic term, transformation means any change in the system, both input and output states and changes in elements and processes in the system itself. Certainly that system in sports training the human body. The process of changing (transforming) an organism athletes from the initial to the final state can also be called the transformation process. So the term transformational process of sports training in this concept has the same meaning as well as training technology, because in both the first and the second case we are talking about continuous change of the state of the human organism, through a series of stages in the goal achieving the highest possible sports result in a certain time.

ATHLETE FATIGUE

Biologically, fatigue is a signal as a natural defensive reaction from further loads that could damage the body and lead to pathological conditions. Fatigue in sports is complex in nature and still insufficiently studied. Basically that fatigue is a temporary disturbance of the internal balance of the organism (homeostasis) of which it is the main consequence is reduced working capacity. Athletes are in training and through competitive activities it manifests itself as a unique biopsychosocial functional whole, and therefore it is very difficult to determine the leading cause of fatigue and give one complete precise definition. Fatigue in sports is a stressor and a stimulus in the



process of adaptation. He is precisely dosed through the training methods (loads) they actually represent ways of fatigue. Research in sports biochemistry, ie specific study metabolism, provides an answer to the question of what type or character of fatigue cause a particular method of training. This is invaluable because it is the only one good knowledge of the biochemical characteristics of training methods can determine optimal loads, ie cause a specific type and amount of fatigue that stimulate the development of the athlete's essential bioenergetic ability. In sports training, depending on the nature of the work, there are local (when including up to 30% of muscle mass) acute fatigue, local chronic fatigue, general involved more than 70% of muscle mass) acute fatigue and general chronic fatigue. Fatigue which includes 30 to 70% of muscle mass is considered regional which can also be acute and chronic. There are certain theories for all these types of fatigue, that is explanations of what is the cause of a certain type of fatigue. The theory is most often discussed depletion of energy sources, theory of poisoning or accumulation of decomposition products metabolism, the theory of attenuation or lack of oxygen. The place of occurrence of fatigue it can be on the periphery - in the muscle (peripheral fatigue) or in the central nervous system (CNS) - central fatigue. On the periphery, fatigue occurs, in the motor nerve, on motor plate (synapses), in the calcium (Ca) tank and the T-tube system – tubular system. In the CNS, fatigue occurs in the motor and sensory centers. Fatigue can be intellectual, sensory, emotional and physical. In today's training and competition conditions very often all this occurs together but in different relationships, which are and they must be targeted. This makes athlete fatigue far more difficult to define as an integral phenomenon that includes central regulatory mechanisms in the central nervous system whose functions are infinitely many. We will not move much in perceiving and solving problems if the answer is no, we try to find through multidisciplinary cooperation (physiology, biochemistry, genetics, molecular biology, neuroscience, endocrinology, psychology, etc.) in common projects and with the help of well - organized clinical (laboratory and field, ie situational) research. With this approach, we will certainly get closer to the possibilities registration, ie objectification and all immeasurable subjective signs fatigue that have a special significance in sports training, especially from the point of view prevention against overtraining.

ATHLETE RECOVERY

Recovery of athletes in the essential sense represents the return of homeostasis and thus abilities of the athlete at the entry level. Recovery is basically the opposite process of fatigue because this is an anabolic phase while catabolic processes take place during fatigue. Return to normal or initial level of a number of physiological, biochemical and others process and thus the ability of all organs and systems is not simultaneous. This non-simultaneous or non-simultaneous return or establishment of homeostasis is called heterochrony of the recovery process and belongs to one of the laws of sports training. The complete recovery of some ability that was most involved in the work implies its return to the initial (full compensation) or to a higher level of recovery. However, training can also be done in the phase of insufficient



recovery precisely because of the heterochrony of recovery of different abilities.

The working interval (part of the organism-exhaustion curve) leads to the athlete's fatigue, which is stimulating part of the training process, and the rest interval (parts of the curve - compensation and supercompensation) relaxation that provides increased work capacity, as a result of anabolic (restorative) processes to a level higher than the initial, ie before the start of training. The appearance of supercompensation or overcompensation (overcompensation) is a phenomenon of functional reactions of the organism in the process of sports training, which is in fact the accumulation of effects and / or the development of the athlete's training. The dynamics and intensity of supercompensatory processes is very individual and it is necessary to know it for each athlete separately, because it is important that the next training falls at the time of the peak of the supercompensatory wave. Knowing the heterochrony, it is possible to find the optimal variant of shifting loads that are different in direction (and thus the engagement of certain systems, organs and processes) and sizes.

It has been found that this way work maximally engages adaptive abilities and increases the efficiency of training process. It is necessary to distinguish between fast or early and slow or late phase of recovery. Fast phase recovery is immediately after the end of the load and it is not yet determined exactly how much it lasts, that is, when it ends and the second or late-slow begins recovery phase. It all depends on the character and size of the load or the type of fatigue and it is always necessary to regularly register the current state of the organism in recovery process, to determine the optimal recovery time to the next workload. Modern science has enough data on specifics the course of the athlete's recovery process, but the impact on the course has been studied to a much lesser extent recovery process, ie less studied methods and means of active influence on speed of repair. Today, in training practice, the known means of recovery are divided into three large groups: training, psychological and medical.

Training means of recovery are fixed assets and are related to good planned and implemented process of sports training, optimal change of training and competitive loads and rest, application of various means and training methods, change of conditions and places of training, rhythm of training and life of athletes, etc.

Psychological means of recovery include mainly means that help in regulation mental state of the athlete. They are actually methods from the arsenal of psychotherapy, such as: methods of suggestion and self-suggestion. To date, the following have found application in sports training: psychological training, active self-suggestion and psychoregulatory training. Medical means of recovery are energy-substantial, which refer to sports nutrition (balancing energy balance) and allowed stimulant means related to food supplements, such as: vitamin and mineral preparations, lactic acid neutralizers, energizers, proteins, electro stimulation, physiotherapy. The speed at which an athlete recovers, especially after maximum effort, is extremely important parameter in the training process because it tells how fast the organism athletes, functionally and structurally, adapts to applied loads, such as a significant indicator of the athlete's talent and level of preparedness.



TRAINING METHODOLOGY

Training methodology is a highly creative scientific-practical discipline, which studies laws on ways (methods) and forms of training work. It contains and establishes new rules and principles for more efficient methodological procedures more suitable for development and maintenance abilities of the athlete (load methods) and development and maintenance of technical-tactical knowledge (training or learning methods).

The methodology of sports training is a complex integrated system of knowledge (information), which enables optimal selection, dosing, distribution and organization of training of different athletes age, characteristics, gender and quality. Methodically shaping training means choosing those training stimuli that correspond to set goals and individual characteristics an individual athlete, or the group with which the training is conducted and which will be the most reliable with them develop creativity and independence. The choice of training stimuli-operators (methods, means, loads) is special sensitive process in which coaches with insufficient knowledge and creativity can make big mistakes as well thereby adversely affecting the abilities and knowledge of the athlete, who realizes the wrong program. The methodology of sports training must enable training operators to be optimal stimuli to produce quantitative and qualitative changes in the athlete's training status.

The basic elements of the structure of sports training methodology are:- *Content of training (choice of training means - exercises);- Training load (dosing the volume and intensity of the load);- Distribution of training operators (distribution of resources and loads);- Training methods (modalities and ways of applying means and loads - modalities work);- Organizational forms of training;-Choice of training tools.*

At today's level of sports results and training requirements, it is very important to be selective and incorporate those means (exercises) that will leave the greatest effect in terms transformations of the athlete's primary ability. Creativity and wisdom of the coach in determining the choice training resources, is based on the knowledge that they are athletes in every developmental stage efficient only certain means and that in certain parts of the annual cycle the highest value it has a very specific composition of means. The most global distribution of training funds is onto groups: **direct or basic and indirect or specific**. Within these two groups there are subgroups, such as:- *General;- Introductory;- Basic;- Pre-competition;- Situation;- Imitating;- Technical;- Tactical, etc.* All of them, by their essential characteristics, belong to the direct and / or indirect funds. **The essence of training programming** - as the most important aspect of training methodology is to comply with the set goals, make a choice of those training contents, which will be completely appropriate the age characteristics of the athlete or group of athletes with whom the training is conducted. **In choosing the content of training work**, it is very important that coaches know the value equation any exercise in stimulating



fitness abilities or developing technical-tactical knowledge. It is known that every exercise-complex or composition of training activities is quite challenging certain motor reactions and have different effects on the overall training of the athlete and the level of sportsmanship forms.

TRAINING LOADS

Training loads are loads that strongly and selectively activate energy loads mechanisms, central and peripheral nervous system, transport (cardio-respiratory) system, activities of anaerobic and aerobic processes and many morph functional and psychological reactions athletes. In the theory and practice of sports training, we talk about **external and internal load**. The choice training contents, their quantity and quality (scope and intensity) is external load, and the integral reaction of the athlete's body to the effects of external loads represents an internal load.

Load intensity

Load intensity has its two components - **force** and **speed**. **Force** is defined the magnitude of the external load, and the **speed** with the speed of performing the training task. Although the same intensity can be achieved both at the expense of force and at the expense of speed, the two are completely different form of training work. In the first case, the external load is important (egg working with weights), and in the second the external load is zero but the maximum execution speed is (e.g. running down hair straight). Training intensity is expressed and dosed as a percentage of the maximum intensity, which can a particular athlete achieve (e.g. for strength on the 1RM-One repetition maximum test). Intensity can be: **Small - from 30 to 50%; Moderate - from 50 to 65%; Medium - from 65 to 75%; Large - from 75 to 85%; Sub maximal - from 85 to 95%; Maximum - from 95 to 100%.**

The intensity is determined depending on the goal and direction of the training. For example, if it is training aimed at speed development uses a maximum intensity over 95, up to 100%. For speed endurance sub maximal intensity is from 90% to 95%; for the development of general endurance are used intensities from moderate to medium to high (usually 75% to 85%). For strength development with weights, the intensity is dosed as a percentage of the maximum weight an athlete can achieve. Maximum intensity is used to develop maximum force. To develop endurance in strength a load with a weight of 25% to 50% of the maximum with a large number is used repetitions. *Intensity dosing can be performed on the basis of:*



1. **Tempo-rhythm** (number of strokes, steps, revolutions / min.);
2. **Subjective Feeling of Load (SOO)** - (*Rating of Perceived Exertion (RPE)*);
3. **An age** - the amount of performed mechanical work in a unit of time ($J / s = W$);
4. **Concentrations of lactate** in the blood at a certain load;
5. **Heart rate.**

Load volume

Load volume - extensibility consists of two components:

1. **Number of repetitions (individual exercises or series);**
2. **Time duration of performing exercises.**

All this applies to both individual training and the total amount of work in the microcycle, mesocycle and macrocycle. Volume is the total number of workouts, hours, kilometers and pounds in mentioned cycles. For the determination of the number of iterations on the training (*Number of repetitions*) needs to be known maximum possible number of repetitions for a particular athlete (**MR- repetitions maximum**) determined on the basis of 1RM- *One repetition maximum*, expressed as a percentage. **For example:** The athlete did a maximum of 12 reps with a weight of 165 kg. How-to calculate the number of repetitions for training with 75% of the volume? The following can be used for this purpose formula: **$RM \times \% / 100 = MR$, so $12 \times (75\%) / 100 = 9$** is the number of repetitions for a given phase training. It is important that the trainer knows the components of the load and their optimal dosage, because by their different application (doses and ratios) they activate different physiological and psychological ones athlete reactions. When the emphasis is on the intensity of the load, it is predominantly activated central and peripheral nervous system (it is about the speed of nerve impulse flow and activation of the great number of motor units), so primarily muscle adaptations are achieved. When it comes to emphasis on the scope-extent of work, the cardiovascular system is predominantly activated, which ensures the transport of oxygen and thus greater activity of aerobic energy processes. Volume of the training load, circulatory adaptations are realized, as a foundation on which upgrades intensity, as a factor that directly stimulates the growth of sports results. For the harmonious development of certain so-called fitness abilities need to be determined in total training load and appropriate ratio of volume and intensity not only in one training, than in all training cycles, stages and periods. Optimal ratio and dynamics of movement volume and intensity in the entire training cycle is the most important management factor the state of training of the athlete and his sports form. **The frequency of stimuli per unit time is**



called training density. It's a relationship between the duration of work and the rest time between repetitions. More training with greater volume and intensity represents a higher training density. *Duration of rest between two load directly depends on the intensity and duration of work, i.e. recovery period directly affects on the intensity and duration of work.* Load greater than submaximal requirement and longer recovery period before next work load. Lower intensity loads require a shorter recovery before the next effort, because the demands on athletes were also lower. When it comes to the heart rate method, there are more Herberger (1977) and Harre (1982) suggested that before starting the next load heart rate should drop to values of 120-140 rpm.

CLASSIFICATION OF TRAINING METHODS

The basic classification of training methods distinguishes the methods based on the method burdening athletes and methods based on the way of learning technical and tactical knowledge. When programming training, the trainer must know how to choose those training methods, which will effectively influence the development of the athlete's training at any time in the long run preparations.

This choice of method depends on the following:- Specifics of the sports branch or discipline;- Goals and tasks of sports preparation;- Level of training and sports form;- Developmental characteristics in certain age categories;- Conditions and possibilities in which the training process is performed .In the group of loading methods, we distinguish two basic ones:

The first is the continuous-permanent method - which achieves circulatory adaptations. **The second large group are interval training methods**, one of which (*longer work intervals*) achieve integral circulatory-muscular adaptation, while others (*shorter work intervals*) predominantly muscular adaptation. Both groups of methods can be performed with *standard or variable load*. If it is a matter of **standard** loads, the achieved level of effort is maintained from the beginning to the entraining activities at the same level. At **variable** loads, the effort varies, at which may have a trend of constant *progressive increase* , constant *regressive decrease* and constant variation in the direction of *increase or decrease* .**Methods of learning** technical-tactical knowledge belong to the field of motor learning, so they are described in the chapter "Motor Learning".



ORGANIZATIONAL FORMS OF TRAINING

Training work can be done individually, in groups and frontally - as a team. The principle of individualization of sports training is becoming more and more common in modern training practice pays attention. It is reflected in the fact that one athlete performs under the guidance of a coach training, which is programmed in relation to his current abilities and in relation to set goals. This form of training work is especially irreplaceable in situations when the athlete must be influenced to improve certain motor skills (through optimal loads), technical and tactical elements. **Group work** is carried out when groups of athletes are homogenized in relation to certain abilities that are emphasized in training. Formed groups must have approximately the same level of ability and knowledge, which will be further improved in group training. In this case, each individual must first undergo a certain diagnostic test procedure, in order to assess his abilities which will be the criterion for classification of training groups. The optimal training is determined for the groups thus formed aimed at the development of those qualities, which represent a barrier to their further sports development. This form of work received a special price during the conduct of fitness training in team sports, because it has shown high efficiency. **Frontal training** is an organizational form of work when the whole team performs the set training or training tasks. It is suitable for raising the quality of team response in the area technical-tactical action, when the whole team must reach the highest level of team efficiency and team unity.

ORGANIZATIONAL FORMS OF TRAINING

Organizational forms of training work are not yet at today's level of training development clearly defined. That is why it happens that coaches do not know and differentiate them enough, especially imprecisely used. The typical organizational form of the station contains 8-12 work tasks-exercises, set so that precisely defined order of execution. It does not matter whether they are placed in a circle or in some other form. The principle for the cell method is to perform multiple batches on a single task -between which a pause is made, and then a pause is determined between each subsequent task. The set tasks are visited only once. There are breaks between series and between work tasks and exercises. Training activities are performed in different modalities. **The discontinuous circular** organizational form is reflected in the fact that each working he performs the task in one series - between which there is a short break. The set tasks are bypassed several times, i.e. more laps between which a slightly longer pause is given. It is convenient to



each the next exercise engages another topological region of the body or within the same topological region of the body engages the opposite muscle group.

Continuous circular form of training has its two basic variants: to be done predetermined number of laps (usually 3) or to get the job done until canceled, when the goal is to-do as many laps as possible. In both cases, work tasks are performed in conditions of permanent work, i.e. without pause. It is possible to do only one round - then there are several repetitions of each working task between which there are no pauses.

The continuous polygonal organizational form is implemented in conditions of permanent work-without pause. In this form, the method from exercise to exercise is used, i.e. the athlete is constantly moving higher or at a lower speed while performing different modalities of activity. The trim track is one of polygonal organizational forms. The athlete runs without stopping with a different combination changes direction, jumps over various obstacles, crawls, climbs, wears certain training props, leads the ball, performs various jumps, etc. All these organizational forms can be performed **on different spaces, surfaces and various facilities** (*athletic stadium, forest, sports hall, on the embankment, on exercise machinist.*), bearing in mind that the selected sites may meet the criteria efficiency and economy of training work. Various **auxiliary training props** can be used (*weights, medical, Swedish chest, Swedish bench, various gymnastic equipment, bags with sand, screws, etc.*), as well as specially designed simulators, which have a special application in training of different dimensions of strength and endurance.

Training of functional abilities is characterized by stimulation and increase of aerobic efficiency and anaerobic energy mechanisms, primarily through function cardio respiratory system and metabolic (aerobic and anaerobic) muscle functions cell. The overall functional potential of an athlete is determined together by aerobic and anaerobic energy processes. In different sports, different energy prevails mechanism, so that in some aerobic predominates, in others anaerobic, and in others mixed aerobic-anaerobic or anaerobic-aerobic energy metabolism occurs. *A high level of functional abilities can ensure fitness training*, given that it activates both circulatory and muscular adaptation processes. For methodical design training aimed at raising the aerobic and anaerobic capacity of the athlete, it is necessary to the trainer is well acquainted with efficient methods for the development of certain bioenergetic mechanisms, which underlie functional abilities. These methods and their characteristics are described in the section "Biochemical and physiological bases of methods training" (Part I, Chapter 7). The main task of the methodology "physical" or as it is often called - fitness training in Athlete training is the development and maintenance of motor skills defined as: *strength, speed, endurance, flexibility, coordination and precision*. Research on motor skills in sports activities has confirmed that this segment impossible to describe with several latent dimensions (often three basic ones are given: speed, power and endurance - underlie all others), but it is a complex structure of quantitative and qualitative properties, which are still at the level of hypotheses.



ELEMENTAL DIDACTIC PRINCIPLES IN TRAINING WORK

Any training stimulus, observed in the long run, must be managed according to **biological pedagogical laws**. Based on them, motor skills can be developed by gradually increasing the load with the application of certain methods. Maximum adaptation, economy and efficiency, ie. maximum result in relatively minimal time with optimal energy consumption can only be achieved if the following principles are followed:- **From weaker stress to stronger;- From slower to faster movement;- From less to more endurance;- From rectilinear to curvilinear motion;- From higher to lower number of repetitions in one series;- From smaller to larger series in one training session;- From a smaller to a larger number of training days in one cycle- From smaller to larger number of trainings during the day;- From longer to shorter rest intervals during training and between trainings.**

METHODOLOGY OF TRAINING MOTOR SKILLS

Strength is the ability of an athlete, which is manifested when overcoming different ones resistance. Muscle strength depends on the physiological cross-section and length of the muscles, biochemical-metabolic processes, which take place during the work of the central nervous system (which is responsible for regulation and mobilization of the process of manifesting strength) and mental functions with dominance motivation. The strength expressed by the muscle depends on the number of activated motor units, where by the motor unit consists of one nerve cell and all the muscle cells (fibers) that it irritates, as well as the frequency of activation of motor units per unit time. It is conditioned muscle reactivity, ie. by the force with which the muscle responds to a particular impulse. *Given that there are a very large number of different sports activities in which strength manifests differently, it is quite clear that there are also a large number of types or forms of manifestation of power.* The general division of power types could be made on the basis of **several criteria: Therefore, in what mode the muscles develop strength (with or without movement) differs -dynamic and static (isotonic and isometric) power. With dynamic strength, the** muscles shorten and lengthen (when the muscles join, they move away, where by the so-called myometric strength), while **at static strength the** muscles are strengthened between the two fixed points with an increase in their internal tension. **According to the second criterion** - where



there is a requirement to *overcome the maximum loads by dynamic or static manifestation of power*, power is defined as **maximum**. Special The division into:- **Maximum absolute;- Maximum relative power**. **In the first** case, it is about the strength that the athlete develops when overcoming the maximum load, and **in the second** about the strength that is reduced to a kilogram of the athlete's body weight. An **explosive or high-speed** movement is required for maximum one-time movement **strength**, and the term is used for the ability to repeat a movement in which strength is manifested **repetitive power**.

The third criterion - *where the types of strength are related to endurance*, we distinguish: **strong endurance-endurance in strength** (but also repetitive strength, which is extremely saturated endurance). *It is a synthesis of strength and endurance* - **Stamina**. It is already clear from this that when defining strength, one should pay attention to terminology expressions, because for this motor ability there are different names (which also mean different), such as are: **force, power, strength**, etc., which is not yet defined by a single term.

The basic factors important for the manifestation of force and power area. The type of muscle fibers - the force (strength) of fast and slow fibers is similar, while fast fibers they can achieve greater strength;

b. Muscle architecture - the relationship between the length of muscle fibers and their surface physiological cross section. Of crucial importance for the force is the surface of the physiological section, and for maximum rate of muscle length contraction. The spindle muscles are longer and smaller physiological cross - section, and there are greater possibilities for the manifestation of speed and strength (m. biceps and triceps brachi, m. brachioradialis, m. quadriceps femoris, etc.). Feathery muscles they contract more slowly and can develop greater force (m. pectoralis major, m. soleus, etc.).

c. Fatigue and fever - with a significant drop in muscle temperature and / or with a large fatigue, muscles lose both force and strength in all modes of contraction. The force decreases less of strength.

d. Hormonal mechanisms - see in the section "Building muscle tissue and adaptive effects training".

e. Training - see in the section "The impact of training on muscle strength". Types of muscle strength and their development

Explosive power *is the ability of an athlete that allows him to give his maximum acceleration to one's own body, an object, or a partner. Basically explosive power lies the ability to invest maximum energy per unit time (in the shortest possible time).* It is most manifested in activities such as throws, jumps, kicks and sprints. Sprint many authors classify the speed force factor.



YOUTH TRAINING

Children and adolescents should not be treated as small adults. They have unique development process. The growth and development of their bones, muscles, nerves and organs is strong dictate their physiological capacity and motor abilities. The development of children follows the growth of all functional capacities. These are all motor skills, aerobic and anaerobic capacity. **Girls physiologically mature earlier (about 2-2.5 years) than boys.**

Motor skills increase in the first 18 years of life in both sexes, although in the female notices a plateau in development around puberty. That plateau is probably due to the elevation estrogen concentrations, which leads to greater fat accumulation. All **lung volumes** are increase to physical maturity. Until then, the maximum fan capacity and maximum ventilatory expiration increases in direct proportion to the increase in body size during tiring exercise. **Blood pressure** is directly related to body size - it is lower in children than in adults, but increases according to adult values at the end of the tenth year. With the increase of pulmonary and cardiovascular function, aerobic also develops continuously capacity. **(VO₂max)** expressed ul/ min. It reaches its peak between the ages of 17 and 21 in men and 12-15 years in girls, after which it decreases evenly. When VO₂max expressed in ml / kg / min plateau in men is observed from 6 to 25 years. In girls, it begins to decline around the age of 13. When VO₂ max. expressed in kg / min, it may be inaccurate in children aerobic capacity assessment. The relationships between VO₂max, body dimensions, and the system of functions during growth in children are enormous complex. It is for this reason that the issue of training intensity dosing is very sensitive, which should be strictly controlled and individually determined. **Anaerobic capacity** is lower in children than in adults. Ability in anaerobic activities in children is limited. They have a lower glycolytic capacity, probably due to a lower one glycolytic enzyme phosphofructokinase levels. **Laboratory tests** indicate that children are more sensitive to injuries and heat stress diseases, but many of the cases explained do not support this view. The children have a lower ability to give off heat by evaporation-sweating. **All the principles of training young** athletes rely on and respect the physiological characteristics of prepubertal and pubertal age, as well as during adolescence. Trainings can be aimed at developing strength, aerobic and anaerobic abilities. They must never be similar those as in adults. **Strength** in children increases predominantly due to neurological factors, not with by increasing muscle mass-volume. In adolescents, it is due to higher circulating levels testosterone predominantly increases at the expense of muscle mass-volume and specific tension-force. **Aerobic training** in preadolescents does not significantly alter VO₂max. to attribute it as training stimulus. VO₂max. increases at that age exclusively with increasing heart rate. Endurance is developed by aerobic training. In children, anaerobic capacity increases with anaerobic training. This happens because it increases the level of creatine phosphate (CP),ATP and glycogen, phosphofructokinase activity and maximum lactate concentration. **At**



puberty, significant secretion of estrogen in females and testosterone in males leads to their differences in body composition. **Between the ages of 12 and 14 (around puberty) there is no significant difference between the sexes in height, weight, girth, bone width, and skin folds.** Women generally have lower levels of VO₂max, expressed in ml / kg / min, because they have a higher amount of fat issues and lower hemoglobin levels, resulting in lower oxygen content in the arterial blood. **After puberty**, mean VO₂max of women is 70% -75% of the mean of men. The differences may be smaller depending on lifestyle and training. Cardiovascular and respiratory changes caused by cardiorespiratory endurance training are not gender specific. Relative increase in VO₂max through cardiorespiratory training endurance is almost the same in women and men. So far, the importance and notion of **optimal planning and programming** has been emphasized **training** - to the details of the elaborated training process. The most ideally made plan and program, conducted without observing the athlete during training, constant analysis and the ability of the coach to predict possible reactions that will cause certain means, methods and loads, can be a complete failure.

During the operational implementation of the plan and program, coach and the athlete come across a series of unknown elements, which need to be resolved immediately and on the spot. For this reason and the most precise plan and program represent only the general direction that represents the basis for programmed training. The essence of programmed training is optimal guiding of the athlete along the way means, methods and loads according to the necessary anticipated changes in the organism. **To control the success of the implemented plan and program and analysis of training operations** process, the coach **must make a registration-record of** all valuable data in during and after the end of each training: microcycle, mesocycle, period and macrocycle. In order to as clear as possible monitoring, control and more reliable analysis, the coach must provide all training stimuli, which he applies in training work to **classify**. In general, all of them are classified separately means, training methods and training loads by volume and intensity. To concentrate all relevant information in one place , **a work diary is used**, which should be led by coaches but also athletes. *Information that the trainer uses to process, analyze and finalize the effects of the training draws from recorded data on implemented training stimuli and results conducted control during training work.* **In order to be able to reliably assess the effect of training, the condition must be** monitored in an objective way athlete training. For this purpose, it is necessary to have a validated measuring battery instruments, as well as a set of control exercises and norms. In determining the initial state training, as well as when determining the condition at different time points, the same are applied measuring instruments with the same method of execution. This is the only way to compare and reliable analysis of the obtained results. When the **analysis** assesses that the applied training program has achieved the planned goal, it is clear that the training process was well directed and further work is needed to optimize the applied training content. Because this is a very dynamic process for each subsequent period required is to precisely determine the new optimal stimuli, because the athlete is higher every time degree of training. If it is concluded that the desired effects have not occurred during a certain period, it is necessary make a plan and program **correction**. This correction will be effective only if it is not late and if it is based on a detailed determination of the cause, due to which the desired effects were absent.



PHILOSOPHY OF COACHING

Perhaps some, mostly young and inexperienced coaches, will rightly ask “What will philosophy do for me, it is not my task to philosophize in vain, but to organize and lead trainings, to preparing athletes for competitions? ”The answer to such and similar questions is given by R. Martens reminding such coaches that their profession is full of situations in which to bring difficult decisions and solve ethical dilemmas. The role of a well-developed coaching philosophy is to help coaches to make such difficult decisions more easily, not to succumb to external pressures, not to violate their moral and professional integrity, to successfully meet the requirements of training, establish relationships of mutual trust and respect with athletes, to build a successful one coaching career. The philosophy of coaching is not something that is built independently of your personality, of what you really are and strive to become, of the conditions in which you live and work, of your general philosophy of life. Although the philosophy of coaching has been talked about by many successful coaches and sports directors such as Torre, J., Parsh, D., Horwood, D., Guthri M., yet psychologist R. Martens author of the book “Successfull Coaching”, which is the official text of the American program for gave the greatest contribution to the education of sports coaches, pointed out its importance, content, manner development and its ethical basis.

In his opinion, the coaching philosophy consists of:

1. The main goals you want to achieve.
2. Your beliefs and principles that help you achieve your goals.

They help you to deal with different life situations, because you will react in them in accordance with your own beliefs and principles, be aware of the consequences of such actions and be willing to their own beliefs and principles are either further strengthened, or changed and adjusted. The key to developing a coaching philosophy and a philosophy of life is your willingness to get to know each other yourself, to ask yourself and honestly answer the following three questions:

1. Why do I want to become a coach, or why did I choose to be a coach?
2. When do I want to train?
3. What kind of coach do I want to be?



The philosophy of coaching is not built by reading books that talk about it, nor by copying and adopting the philosophy of some famous coaches. It is acquired through work, it is the result of all your life experiences and should be in line with your general life principles, by your general philosophy of life. This means that you should treat athletes in the same way you do to people from other areas of your life. Of course, if you are a coach in children's and youth sports, then you have to adjust many of your actions needs of young people and do not treat them as you do adults. Always you must keep in mind that children are not miniature adults and that it is your job to follow the principles golden rule: "Treat others as you would like them to treat you", which would work with children and young people could read - "Treat young athletes the way they would like that other coaches treat your child".

And while Martens points out that for coaches nothing is as practical and useful as a well-developed philosophy of life and coaching, because it gives them direction, influences how they perceive and interpret things, experiences, people and events in their lives, determines their attitude towards the coaching role, goals and tasks they want to achieve - other experts in sports define it through certain rules of conduct in coaching, priorities in working with athletes, duties and responsibilities related to their role. For example. Tore considers the philosophy of coaching consists of building one's own strength and mental strength, the ability to focus athletes on performance, to get rid of the fear of competition, not to create panic and not to panic. A coach with a good philosophy, which also means the right approach to coaching, should prepare himself and his players well for the game, to properly schedule tasks, to make sure that each player performs what is expected of him, to strive to win every competition. "Not because it will bring him greater success, but because he is engaged (in charge) to do so".

Sports director Parsh believes that the philosophy of coaching is the basis of all coaching activities and that the most important element is deciding how coaches will treat athletes. It underlies their decision-making process, the goals they set for themselves, the climate they create in trainings and competitions. In order to develop their coaching philosophy, according to Parsh, coaches should studiously and honestly answer the following eight questions:

1. What do they want to achieve?
2. What are their priorities?
3. What are their responsibilities?
4. What training methods do they use?
5. How do you define success?
6. How will they organize trainings and matches?
7. Team rules and consequences
8. How will they convey (communicate) their philosophy?



Coach and sports director Don Horwood starts from the belief that a coach who does not know what he is striving for, will probably fail in everything. Most coaches base their philosophy on their beliefs, environment, and experience. As time goes on, they notice what is good and productive in their philosophy, and what is not, and that knowledge changes or strengthens their principles. In that way, they come to a stable and authentic philosophy that can provide them with a significant place in the coaching profession.

Although there are as many philosophies as there are coaches, all of them, in Horwood's opinion, cover the following important features of their behavior and attitudes in performing their coaching roles:

- Enthusiasm
- Importance of winning
- Discipline
- Rules and ideas about oneself
- Attitude towards alcohol, drugs and smoking

Athletic coach Mark Gathry, 65, also believes that coaching philosophy is key to how you will determine your coaching career and how your team will function in training and competition situations. And not only is it the foundation of your coaching program, a guide for you and your staff, but it also defines the work environment for the athletes on your team. It leads them to take responsibility for their own actions and decisions and encourages them to meet the expectations placed before them as individuals and as a team as a whole. Young coaches create a dynamic philosophy that is constantly evolving until they become confident in the correctness of their actions and decisions concerning their athletes and teams. The coaching philosophy is shaped by the experiences you gain as coaches by working with different athletes in different situations. Whether they are athletic coaches or coaches of other sports, their coaching philosophy consists of the following principles:

- Be your own, be authentic.
- Set your coaching goals.
- Set rules.
- Build and nurture relationships with athletes.
- Be organized.
- Involve assistant trainers.
- Help athletes cope with stress.

From the above, you can see that in the cited approaches to the content and explanation of coaching philosophy, there are many common elements that also represent the basic professional, pedagogical and psychological principles in working with athletes of all ages. We will talk about them in more detail in the following chapters, and now we will briefly look at two main tasks related to the development of coaching philosophy: better self-knowledge (development of self-awareness) and defining one's own goals in coaching.



Self-awareness

To help young athletes form self-awareness, develop their own identity, a positive attitude towards themselves and the world around them, as coaches you need to know who you are. The real picture is gained through honest self-insight, through thinking about your attitudes, principles and beliefs, through observing the reactions of others to you and your behavior.

The answers to questions like Who am I? What do I want from life? and similar questions form the self-concept of each person, and psychologists point out that it consists of three selves: ideal, public and real self. The ideal self refers to what kind of person you would like to be, what you expect and demand of yourself. A public self is an image that you think others have of you. Of course you want others to have a positive image of you, to appreciate, respect and love you. The real self is the sum of your subjective thoughts, feelings, and needs that you feel make you authentic. Through communication and interaction with others, the real self is accepted, understood, experienced and constantly changed. It is extremely important for you as coaches to develop strong self-esteem, ie. to see and experience yourself as a competent person worthy of your own and others' respect. Many coaches misjudge and value themselves based on their victories and defeats in competitions. To such coaches, Martens tells "Self-esteem is not achieved by defeating others, but by living according to one's own standards". Frank Reynolds points out that developing a coaching philosophy that will help you become a better coach, increase the satisfaction of your athletes and the quality of their competitive results requires you to:

1. Get to know yourself, your strengths and weaknesses to work on.
2. Find out what you can do about the various obstacles you may encounter.
3. Understand your athletes, their personalities, abilities, goals and motives why they play sports. but by living in accordance with one's own standards.

Only if you are honest in your self-assessment can you admit your own weaknesses and how much they can reduce the quality of performing your coaching tasks. However, there are also your strengths, your strengths, which when you become aware of them can significantly improve your professional work. Are you a good teacher, or a motivator, or a lecturer, or a former athlete? Are you a dynamic person, a person of the "easy" type, suspicious, open and friendly. **If** you take the time to seriously assess your strengths and weaknesses, morals, values and beliefs, you will be able to more successfully adapt your own work style to the athletes you train. Knowing yourself leads to self-confidence, self-esteem and a willingness to continually improve.



Main goals of sports coaches

Training of young athletes means that coaches in parallel, with the same enthusiasm and responsibility they perform two equally important activities - educational (training and improving the sports skills of young people) and educational (directing psychological and social development). Accordingly, coaches who have adopted a humanistic approach to youth sports, who recognize and respect its educational function, will not limit their goals only to the desire to be winning coaches. Martens believes that the goals of such coaches can be divided into three broad categories:

1. To have a winning team
2. To help young people have fun in sports and
3. To help young athletes to develop:
 - Physically (learn sports skills, gain fitness, develop healthy living habits).
 - Psychologically (become mature and integrated personalities, develop self-esteem, self-control, moral character).
 - Social (learn to cooperate, lead, successfully communicate, behave in accordance with social norms).
 -

The results of the self-assessment of most American coaches show that for them, the psychological, physical and social development of young people is the most important goal, followed by providing entertainment in sports, while winning is the least important goal. Is winning the least important of these three goals for you? To check this, do a small test. Try to be honest, do not give answers that are not in line with your behavior in training and competitions. Think carefully about whether you take only the best athletes to the competition, whether you respect the rule of equal playing time for athletes up to 12 years of age, how you react to their mistakes during the performance - in a word, what importance do you attach to winning? The results of the self-assessment of most American coaches show that for them, the psychological, physical and social development of young people is the most important goal, followed by providing entertainment in sports, while winning is the least important goal. Is winning the least important of these three goals for you? To check this, do a small test. Try to be honest, do not give answers that are not in line with your behavior in training and competitions. Think carefully about whether you take only the best athletes to the competition, whether you respect the rule of equal playing time for athletes up to 12 years of age, how you react to their mistakes during the performance - in a word, what importance do you attach to winning? The results of the self-assessment of most American coaches show that for them, the psychological, physical and social development of young people is the most important goal, followed by providing entertainment in sports, while winning is the least important goal. Is winning the least important of these three goals for you?



Examples of coaching philosophies

Many successful coaches are known for their well-developed specific coaching philosophies. The best example is John Wooden, a legendary basketball coach who had a clearly thought-out coaching philosophy that represents his cumulative wisdom accumulated over a long coaching career.

The essence of Wooden's philosophy is to put emphasis on training and coaching, striving for athletes to provide their maximum and quality performance, rather than winning. He asked both himself and his athletes to do everything in their power. Whether the result of such work is victory or defeat, it is enough for them to feel successful. In accordance with his coaching philosophy, Wooden believes that the most important duty of a coach is "to teach his players the correct and successful performance of the basic elements of the game." First of all, the coach is the TEACHER". That is why it is his duty to constantly improve. Wooden believes that the role of a coach as a LEADER is also extremely important, because "A team without leadership is like a stern boat that will probably end up going around, so as not to get anywhere". We will talk about his attitude towards victory later. Motto: ATHLETES ARE PRIMARY, WINNING IS SECONDARY, according to Rainer Martens, it should be the cornerstone of the coaching philosophy of all coaches who work with children and youth. This is also the official motto of the American coaching education program, and it means that every decision you make, every behavior you show, should primarily be based on assessing what is best for athletes, and only then on what can improve their chances or chances. teams to win. This motto is in line with the "Charter of the Rights of Young Athletes" (attachment) and the "Code of Conduct for Coaches" (attachment) and we hope that it will be the basis on which to build your coaching philosophy and goals and guide your overall behavior.

JIM BOUCHE, an experienced American football coach, says: I approach coaching with a very simple philosophy:

1. Be honest with the players
2. Explain my decisions to them and
3. Put the interests of the players first "If I do those things, I will gain their trust. Each member of my professional team is trained to allow each player to know what his contributions to the team are, whether he is a reserve player, a full-time or part-time player. The message is simple - Every player is part of the team! "



DAIL BROWN: American basketball coach says: The beauty of last year's success of my team consisted of two things:

1. Not creating panic and
2. The ability to admit mistakes.

According to him, the main denominator of successful coaches is: "Ability to react to failure" and the principle: "Don't try to impress others!"

Training planning

Training planning is a complex process that depends not only on how much the coach has the knowledge gained by modern sports science and practice, but also on whether he is in a situation to set goals and tasks at his own discretion that he wants to achieve in a particular season, with the individual athletes or team, or the plan must be adjusted to the goals defined by the management of the club or the national sports federation that hired him. The way to achieve the desired results must be planned, the training plan and program harmonized with the objective capabilities and characteristics of individuals and teams, material, technical, human and other resources available to coaches. When planning the training program, each coach starts from the assessment of the initial condition of the athlete or team (health status, morphological characteristics, the level of motor and functional abilities, the level of technical and tactical knowledge, the psychological profile of individuals and the team as a whole), as well as the defined final states that should enable the achievement of set development and / or competitive goals. To be successful in the development of a sports program, it is necessary, as Schloder and McGuire (96) suggest, to be creative, resourceful, ready to take certain risks, provide positive experiences, be innovative, organized, develop awareness of all aspects of the program, get involved in ongoing training and education programs, you create a network to gather information and support. Important rules in training planning:

- When planning a training program, you need to know what the expectations and goals of the club or sports organization are.
- The goals of the program should be presented and accepted by all persons involved in it (from athletes, assistant coaches, parents of athletes, club management).
- Duties and responsibilities of all participants should be clearly defined in order for its implementation to be successful.
- The leadership role of the coach, both in the implementation of the program and in presenting the organization to the public, should be clearly defined and accepted.
- Effective planning is the basis of a successful season. It is the result of thorough, systematic and careful preparation.



- Training season planning should include at least two meetings with the athlete's parents (at the beginning and end of the season).
- The plan and program for a particular season depends on the age of the athletes, the goals and aspirations of the team and athletes, the number, schedule and level of competition, technical, material and personnel equipment of the sports organization.

Elements (phases) of planning

Martens points out that the seasonal plan is a kind of guide that helps the coach to do everything necessary (train and practice all the desired tactical and technical skills, hold planned trainings, develop psychological skills of athletes, improve communication) to ensure success. Planning also helps coaches evaluate their work and develop a better plan for next season.

Each plan for a new training season, according to Martens, should include the following six elements or phases:

- a. Identifying the skills needed by athletes
- b. Getting to know your athletes
- c. Analysis of one's own situation
- d. Prioritization
- e. Choice of training methods
- f. Training plan

a. Identifying the skills your athletes need You first need to make a list of all those skills that you think your athletes lack or that need further training, because if you don't plan for them, you'll probably forget to train them. When identifying skills, you will use several different data sources: your previous coaching experience, professional literature in the field, knowledge gained in various seminars, data obtained via the Internet, valuable information obtained in communication with experienced coaches, careful observation of sports on TV, matches different competition levels and the like. Martens suggests and provides useful examples of skills that should be identified. In short, you need to identify technical, tactical, physical, mental and communication skills, as well as character development.



Technical skills are the basic skills that every athlete should possess in order to engage in their sport at a certain level of competition, age or stage of sports development (initial, developmental, specialization phase, top performance phase). Also, it is important that you as coaches consider the skills that are needed in your sport for players in every position, in every competition, in different situations of games / performances, attack players, defense players. When making a plan for the technical skills that need to be learned or improved in the next season, it is useful to divide them into several subgroups, as was done in the example for the college basketball team in which they are divided into: basic skills for all players (passing and receiving dogs, shooting - jump shot, set shot and free throw, movement and screening, winning the ball after a failed shot, positioning, blocking, dribbling with the left and right hand with the head raised); basic skills for certain positions (for positioned and for peripheral players); advanced skills for certain positions (for players of central and peripheral positions).

Tactical skills are problem-solving skills that are based on the players' ability to "read the game", "read the situation" and make decisions. They influence the decisions and actions of the players in the competition in order to gain an advantage over the opponent. In the plan for the next season, you should identify which skills you will work on (ability to read the situation, know the rules, situational tactics, strategy for the season, strategy-game plan for a specific game, self-analysis, etc.). We should not forget that athletes make better decisions if they know more about the rules, strategic plan for the season and a particular game, physical conditions in the hall / field where they perform, weaknesses and strengths of the opponent, their own strengths and weaknesses, tactical options for different situations.

Physical skills include preparing the body (athletes) to successfully respond to the physical demands of sports. They usually include strength, speed, power, endurance, flexibility, flexibility and the like. You can find a lot of information about them and it should not be a problem for you to identify them or define methods for bringing them to the desired level.

Mental skills are numerous and today their importance is not disputed. They enable adequate preparation of the consciousness of the individual and the team in order to successfully respond to the requirements of the competition. They develop and improve through psychological training, and cover a wide range, ranging from motivation, competitive orientation, self-confidence, self and collective efficiency, competitive anxiety, stress management skills, concentration and attention skills, to emotional control, positive team climate, cohesiveness, team unity and the like. If you are able, you can invite a psychologist to continuously work on improving the psychological skills of your athletes, but you must never forget that you yourself, consciously or unconsciously, significantly affect the psychological status of your athletes. From what climate you form in training (task or ego oriented), how you behave in pressure situations, what kind of feedback you provide to athletes, what approach you have in training (positive or negative), how you react to athletes'



mistakes - all this affects strengthening or weakening of their mental skills, on their motivation, aspiration levels, self-esteem, self-satisfaction and satisfaction with the achieved sports results.

Communication skills. Communication is the process of conveying messages. It can be verbal or nonverbal. Verbal includes written and spoken forms, and nonverbal so-called. body language (gestures, movements, facial expressions, body position / posture when communicating a message). Successful coaches are masters of communication, and unsuccessful ones usually fail, not because they have no knowledge of the sport, but because of their weak or scarce communication skills. We will pay special attention to communication in the process of training and guiding athletes, and we advise every coach to constantly work on improving their communication skills by reading psychological literature, attending specialized seminars, workshops and the like. Here it is worth mentioning the elements of communication on the development and improvement of which every coach should work: persuasiveness during communication, communication with a positive approach, sending messages with highly informative content, consistency in communication, improving listening skills and improving non-verbal communication.

Character development should be an integral part of your instructional / training plan. Coaches of young athletes must never forget that the development of moral character, sportsmanship and basic moral principles of our society is one of their primary duties. Martens points out: "We are confident that coaches can build character. Coaches are more than a skill instructor, fitness and tactics expert. They are experts, advisors and unrecognized heroes who build and change the spirit. Sports morality belongs to the general field of morality in the context of sports. It is manifested in beliefs, judgments and procedures relating to what is right, and what is wrong and immoral in sports, and includes: fair play, sportsmanship and character.

Fair play refers to respecting the rules of the game (sport) that are necessary for all participants to have an equal chance of winning. Sportsmanship is loyalty to fair play even when it can mean defeat in competition. It implies respect for opponents, referees, teammates, coaches and the sport itself. Sports behavior is a good character when participating in sports. Character represents the sum of our habits, a unique assortment of virtues and flaws. In sports, it implies self-control, conscientiousness, honesty, responsibility towards oneself and others (coach, teammates, referees, staff), perseverance, persistence, willingness to cooperate, understanding and compassion, honesty, respect - courtesy, courtesy, fairness.



CONCLUSION

Coaching is not an easy job, but it is full of beautiful moments and constant challenges. Coaching is complex activity, because coaches are not just teachers of sports skills, people who educate. Every coach is at the same time an educator, a man who leads children and young people through the most sensitive phases of their psychological development and maturation. His influence on the formation of young people is huge. Therefore he must have a wide range of knowledge from different fields - not just knowledge about the sport he is providing training, but specific knowledge about the characteristics of physical, motor and psychosocial growth and development of athletes of different ages. On the other hand, coaches have a unique opportunity to work with young people, share their joys and sorrows, to watch them grow and progress in sports, how they become mature, successful and responsible people. Young people get acquainted with sports through their coach. He is a key person in their sports career. The coach defines, builds and provides a unique positive or negative sport experience for every young person who gets involved in sports and thus significantly affects her satisfaction and motivation for further sports. To make this early sports experience for children and young people positive, exciting, rich, stimulating and motivating, coaches have to be well prepared to provide them with experiences, to be completely dedicated to their work, to love it and to constantly improve. About what personal attributes, professional knowledge and social skills, coaching styles and leadership, coaches make successful have spoken numerous experts in sports, from psychologists, sports managers and pedagogues to the coaches themselves who have achieved the greatest achievements with athletes and the teams they led, and are remembered for the unique philosophy they built. Their coaching philosophy and way of working is a source of inspiration and a guide for many young coaches who they want to play both their roles, educational and upbringing, in the best way, to help young people to maximize and use their sports abilities and build their human potentials.

Analysis of research results

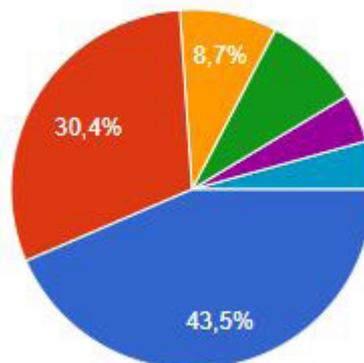
The research on positive approach to the training process was conducted in cooperation and with the support of the Belgrade Association for School Sports, a prominent sports institution that deals with the development of school and sports in general, and which enjoys a great reputation in the sports community of Serbia. The



research involved 121 sports institutions / experts who had the opportunity to assess the importance of leadership in sports through an online questionnaire .

Body in front when you fill out the questionnaire?

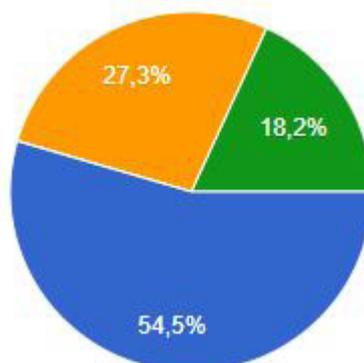
- Sport club - blue
- Sports Association - red
- Sports expert - orange
- Individual expert - green
- Sports Association - Turquoise
- The rest - purple



Most of the respondents filled in the research questionnaire in front of sports clubs and sports associations, so we can conclude that further answers were given with reference to extensive experience in direct work with athletes as well as with the management of the sports process.

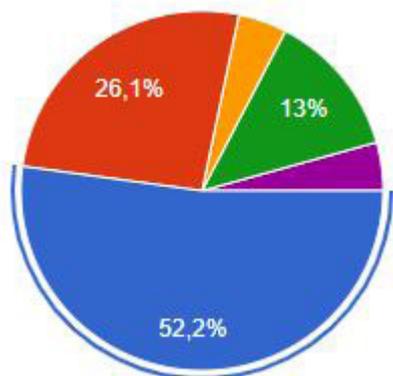
What type of preparation in the training process do you consider the most important for the proper development of young athletes?

- Technical preparation - blue
- Physical preparation - orange
- Psychological preparation – green





Which of the following training principles do you consider crucial for the preparation of young athletes?



Active participation of the athlete - blue

Versatile preparation - red

Individualization - orange

Load progressivity – green

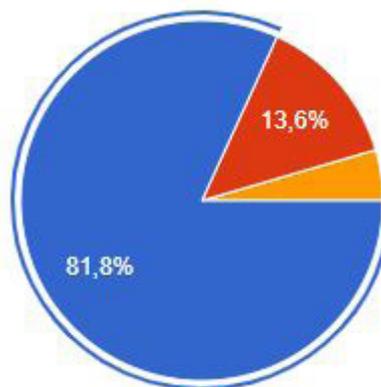
Other – purple

In your opinion, which phase of the training process should be given the most attention?

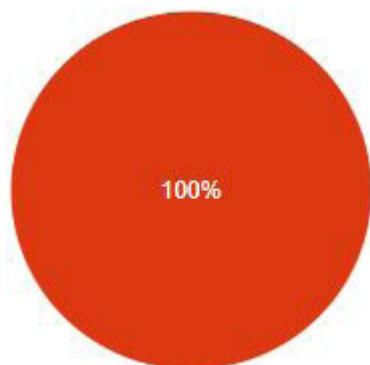
Preparatory phase - blue

Competition phase - red

transitional phase- orange

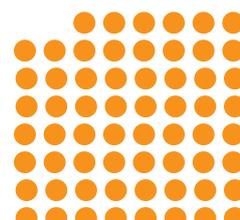


Which principle of the coaching approach do you consider more effective in the development of young athletes?



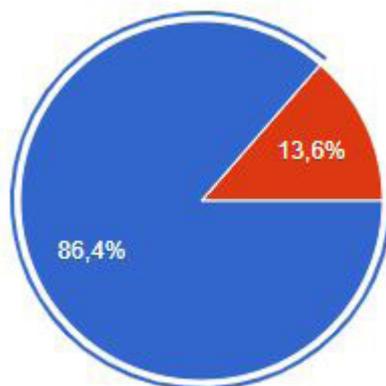
Repressive approach (punishment undesirable behavior) - blue

Positive approach (rewarding that what an athlete does well) – red





Do you think that the formal education of coaches is an important factor for quality work and achieving top results in sports?



yes- blue

no- red





LITERATURE

1. Australian Sports Commission (2005). *Junior Sport Guidelines*.
<http://www.ausport.gov.au/junior/>
2. Australian Sports Commission (2007). *Junior Sport Codes of Behaviour*.
<http://www.ausport.gov.au/junior/>
3. Bačanac, Lj., Savić, S., Radović, M. (1984). Sportsko takmičenje samo sebi cilj ili sredstvo za vaspitanje mladih sportista. *Sportska praksa*, 27(11-12), 37-39.
4. Bačanac, Lj., Lazarević, Lj., Arunović, D. (1994). Karakteristike motivacije mladih jugoslovenskih sportista za bavljenje sportom. *Fizička kultura*, 48, 203-211.
5. Bačanac, Lj., & Radovanovic I. (1995). Leadership Behavioural Characteristics of Soccer Coaches. *3rd International Congress on Physical Education & Sport, Komotini*, 19-21. May. Exercise & Society, *Journal of Sport Science, Supplement Issue, No 11*, p. 216.
6. Bačanac, Lj. (2005). *Elementi psihologije sporta*. Skripta za internu upotrebu, Beograd: Republički zavod za sport.
7. Bačanac Lj., Radovanović I. (2005). *Vaspitanje kroz sport*. Beograd: Učiteljski fakultet, Press Kosmajturist, Mladenovac.
8. Bačanac, Lj. (2005). Psihološki aspekti dečijeg i omladinskog sporta – problemi i perspektive. Izlaganje na javnoj tribini „Omladina i sport Srbije danas i sutra“ održanoj u Beogradu.
9. Bačanac, Lj., Juhas, I. (2006). Sport u funkciji psihološke dobrobiti žene. *Međunarodna konferencija i II nacionalni seminar „Žena i sport“- Zbornik radova* (pp. 39-52), Beograd: Fakultet sporta i fizičkog vaspitanja; Olimpijski komitet Srbije i Crne Gore.
10. Bačanac, Lj. (2006). Karakteristike psihološkog razvoja mladih uzrasta od 10-16 godina. Predavnje na *Seminaru Rukometnog Saveza Srbije*, Beograd.



11. Bačanac, Lj., Škof, B. (2007). Vzgojne naloge in ravnanja učiteljev/trenerjev pri delu z mladimi v športu. In Škof, B. (Ur.), *Šport po meri otrok in mladostnikov* (pp. 88-112), Ljubljana: Univerza v Ljubljani, Fakultet za šport, Institut za šport.
12. Bačanac, Lj., Radovic, M., Veskovic, A. (2007). Specificities of Motivational Profile of Young Athletes of Serbia. *Serbian Journal of Sports Sciences*, 1(1-4), 21-28.
13. Bačanac, Lj., Radovic, M., Veskovic, A. (2007). Frequency of sport injuries depending on gender, age, sport experience, nature of sports and training process. *Serbian Journal of Sports Sciences*, 1(1-4): 123-129.
14. Bačanac, Lj. (2008). Psihološke karakteristike dece i adolescenata. Predavanje na *Kursu za instruktore skijanja*. Beograd, FSFV.
15. Bačanac, Lj., Petrović, N., Manojlović, N. (2009). *Oblici i stepen nasilja u sportu Srbije*, Nepublikovan Izveštaj. Beograd: Ministarstvo za omladinu i sport.
16. Bačanac, Lj., Petrović, N., Manojlović, N. (2009). *Priručnik za roditelje mladih sportista*. Beograd: Republički zavod za sport, Portal.
17. Bačanac, Lj., Petrović, N., Manojlović, N. (2009). Uloga roditelja u oblikovanju agresivnog i nesportskog ponašanja mladih sportaša. *19. dani Ramira i Zorana Bujasa, Međunarodni psihologijski znanstveni skup, Zagreb, 22-25 travnja, 2009. Program i sažeci priopćenja*, str. 98, Odsjek za psihologiju, Sveučilište u Zagrebu, Školska knjiga.
18. Bačanac, Lj., Petrovic, N., Manojlovic, N. (2010). Sociodemographic and psychological characteristics of coaches with different training styles. *Fifth International Scientific Congress "Sport, stress, adaptation". Program and book of abstracts*, pp. 152-153.
19. Bačanac, Lj. (2010). *Motorne veštine – psihološki pristup*. Skripta za internu upotrebu, Beograd: Republički zavod za sport.
20. Bačanac, Lj. (2011). Psihološko pedagoški aspekti rada sa decom u sportu. U Jevtić, B., Radojević, J., Juhas, I., Ropert, R. (Ur.), *Dečji sport od prakse do akademske oblasti* (str. 118-147), Beograd: Fakultet sporta i fizičkog vaspitanja.
21. Bačanac, Lj. (2011). Psihosocijalni profil uspešnog trenera: Od teorijskog modela do realnosti naše prakse. *TRENER – Časopis udruženja košarkaških trenera*, XV(62/63), 8-17.
22. Bačanac, Lj. (2011). Psihološki i pedagoški aspekti rada sa mladim sportistima. Predavanje na *Tehničkom seminaru za trenere sinhronog plivanja*, Beograd: 18. februar, 2011.



23. Barton, M. & Stewart, C. (2010). Parental expectations of coaches: Closing the Communication Gap. <http://coachesinfo.com>.
24. Basic Tenets of Motor Learning. http://clem.msced.edu/~broida/hps450/chapter_outlines/
25. Biddle, S. (2003). How children see success and failure. In Lee, M. (Ed), *Coaching Children in Sport* (pp. 122-133), London and New York: Taylor & Francis e-Library.
26. Boeree, G. C. (2003). Jean Piaget and Cognitive Development. <http://webpace.ship.edu/cgboer/genpsypiaget.html>
27. Bolden, R., Gosling, J., Marturano, A. and Dennison, P. (2003). *A Review of Leadership Theory and Competency Frameworks*. Exeter: Centre for Leadership Studies University of Exeter.
28. Bompá, T. (2000). *Total Training for Young Champions*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics
29. Bompá, T. (2001). *Periodizacija: Teorija i metodologija treninga*. Zagreb: Hrvatski košarkaški savez, Udruga Hrvatskih košarkaških trenera.
30. Bompá, T. (2004). Primer on periodization. Newsletter Article, <http://coaching.usolympicteam.com/coaching/kpub.nsf/v/2June04>
31. Bouche, J. (1999). Football coaching: a matter of trust. Scholastic, Inc., <http://www.findarticles.com>
32. Brackenridge, C. (1998). Child Protection in British Sport – A position Statement. <http://www.sirc.ca/newsletters/may06/feat3.cfm>
33. Brown, D. (1982). Šest trenerskih “moraš”, *Medalist*.
34. Brustand, R., Babkes, M.L., & Smith, A.L. (2001). Youth in sport: Psychological Considerations. In Singer, R.N., Hausenblas, H.A., Janelle, C. (Eds.), *Handbook of Sport Psychology* (pp. 604-635). US: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
35. Burnett, D. (2003). Positive Coaching: A Behavior Checklist for Youth Sports Coaches. <http://www.midcitiesbasketbal.org>
36. Byrne, T. (2003). Sport: it's a family affair. In Lee, M. (Ed), *Coaching Children in sport* (pp. 39-47), London and New York: Routledge, Taylor & Francis e-Library.
37. Canadian Sport for Life –A SportParent's Guide (2007). Ottawa: Canadian



Sport Centers.

38. Cassidy, T., Jones, R. L. and Potrac, P. (2004). *Understanding sports coaching: The social, cultural and pedagogical foundations of coaching practice*. London: Routledge.

39. Chambers, K. *Training Through the (Growing) Years*. www.tridevelopment.info

40. Chelladurai, P. (1984). Leadership in Sport. In Silva & Weinberg (Eds.), *Psychological Foundation of Sport* (pp. 329-339) Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

41. Claro, F. (2008). *From Young Athlete to High Performance Rugby Player. Long Term Periodization: A Multilateral Path for Success*. <http://www.sportdevelopmentinternational.com>

42. Coaching Principles. <http://www.brianmac.co.uk/coaching>.

44. Coker, C.A., Fishchman, M. G. (2010). Motor Skill Learning for Effective Coaching and Performance. In Williams, J. M (Ed), *Applied Sport Psychology*, New York: McGraw Hill, International Edition.

45. Connell, R. (2003). Understanding the learner: Guidelines for the coach. In Lee, M. (Ed.), *Coaching Children in Sport – Principles and Practice* (pp.78-90), London: Taylor & Francis e-Library.

46. Cote, J. & Fraser-Thomas, J. (2008). Play, practice, and athlete development. In Farrow, D., Baker, J. & MacMahon, C. (Eds). *Developing Sport Expertise: Researchers and Coaches put Theory into Practice* (pp.17-28), Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.

47. Crust, L., Lawrence, I. (2006). A review of Leadership in Sport: Implication for Football Management. *Athletic Insight*, 8(4), 28-48.

48. Cumming, S., Ewing, M. (2006). Parental Involvement in Youth Sports: The Good, The Bad and the Ugly! <http://www.sirc.ca/newsletters/may06/feat3.cfm>

49. Davies, D. and Armstrong, M. (2005). *Psychological Factors in Competitive Sport*. London: Taylor & Francis e-Library.

50. Dorfman, H. A. (2005). *Coaching the Mental Game*. New York: Taylor Trade Publishing.

51. Đorđević, D. (1984). Razvojana psihologija. Gornji Milanovac: Dečije novine.



52. Fackler, A. (2006). Growth and Development, Ages 11 to 14 Years; Ages 15-18 Years. <http://www.providence.org/healthlibrary/contentViewer.aspx?>
53. Gibson, B. (2005). Performance Implication of Physical & Mental Growth of the Young Athlete. <http://WWW.coachesinfo.com>
54. Gilbert, W. D., Gilbert, J. N., Trudel, P. (2001a). Coaching Strategies for Youth Sports. Part 1: Athlete behavior and athlete performance. *The Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance (JOPERD)*, 72, 29-33.
55. Gilbert, W. D., Gilbert, J. N., & Trudel, P. (2001b). Coaching strategies for youth sports. Part 2: Personal characteristics, parental influence, and team organization. *The Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance (JOPERD)*, 72, 41-46.
56. Golonka, D. (2007). Growth and Development, Ages 2 to 5 Years. <http://children.webmd.com/tc/growth-and-development-ages-2-to-5-years-topicoverview>
57. Gill, D. L., Gross, J., and Huddleston, S. (1983). Participation motivation in youth sports. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 14, 1-14.
58. Gill, D. L. (1986). *Psychological dynamics of Sport*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
59. Goethals, G., Sorensen, G., Burns, J. (2004). *Encyclopedia of Leadership, Volume 1*, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
60. Gould, D & Horn, T. (1984). Participation Motivation In Young Athletes. In Silva J. M. & Weinberg, R. S. (Eds.), *Psychological Foundation Of Sport* (pp. 359-370), Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
61. Gould, D., Petlichkoff, L. (1988). Participation Motivation and Attrition in Young Athletes. In Smoll, F. L., Magill, R. A., Ash, M. J. (Eds), *Children in Sport* (pp. 161- 178). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics
62. Gould, D. (1988). Sport Psychology: Future Directions in Youth Sport Research. In Smoll, F. L., Magill, R. A. & Ash, M. J. (Eds.), *Children in Sport*, (pp. 317-333), Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
63. Golonka, D. (2007). Growth and Development, Ages 6 to 10 Years <http://www.cigna.com>
64. Growth and Development, Ages 15 to 18 Years. <http://www.sjmercyhealth.org/13604.cfm>
65. Guthri, M. (2010). 8 core principles in developing a coaching philosophy.



<http://www.humanakinetics.com/experts/experts/8-cor-principles-in-developing-a-coaching-philosophy>

66. Hardy, C. J., Burke, K. L. and Crace, R. K (2005). Coaching: An Effective Communication System. In Murphy, S. (Ed.), *The Sport Psychology Handbook* (pp. 191-212), Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

67. Heaton, J. E. The Teaching Dimension - A compilation of articles by Joan E. Heaton. <http://www.psia-e.org/ed/TeachingDimension.pdf>

68. Hopton, C., Phelan, J., Bardlin, J. (2007). Transformational Leadership in Sport. In Beauchamp, M. R & Eys, M. A (Eds.), *Group Dynamics in Exercise and Sport Psychology* (pp.45-60), London & New York: Routledge.

69. Horwood (2007). Your coaching philosophy. <http://findarticles.com>

70. Jevtić, B., Radojević, J. Juhas, I., Ropret, R. (2011). Dečiji sport od prakse do akademske oblasti. U Jevtić, B., Radojević, J., Juhas, I., Ropert, R. (Ur.), *Dečji sport od prakse do akademske oblasti* (str. 13-23), Beograd: Fakultet sporta i fizičkog vaspitanja.

71. Jurimae, T., Jurimae, J. (2000). *Growth, physical activity, and motor development in prepubertal children*. Boca Raton, Florida: CRC Pres.

72. Kreč, D., Kračild, R. S., Balaki, I. L. (1972). *Pojedinac u društvu*. Beograd: Zavod za udžbenike i nastavna sredstva Srbije.

73. Kremer, J. & Moran, A. P. (2008). *Pure sport*. London: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

74. Leadership theories. www.changingminds.org

75. Lee, C. (2010). Sport Motivation: To create a positive motivational climate you need more carrot than stick. <http://www.pponline.co.uk/encyc/sport-motivation.htm>

76. Lee, C. and Ian, L. (2006). A Review of Leadership in Sport: Implication for Football Management. *Athletic Insight – The Online Journal of Sport Psychology*, 8(4), 28-48.

77. Lemke, D. (2003). 10 basic principles of football coaching. <http://findarticles.com>, 26 Oct, 2010.

78. Loehr, J. (2005). Leadership: Full Engagement for Success. In Murphy, S. (Ed.),



- The Sport Psychology Handbook* (pp.155-170), Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
79. Mackenzie, B. (2003). Talk the athlete's language if you wish to communicate effectively. Brian Mackenzie's Successful Coaching Newsletter, Issue 5, <http://www.brianmac.demon.co.uk/psych.htm>
80. Mahar, M. T. (2005). Let's the Kids Play. *A Health, Wellness & Fitness Magazine*, Achieve Magazine, Summer 2005.
81. Martens, R. (1988). Youth Sport in the USA. In Smoll F.L., Magill R. A. & Ash, M. J. (Eds.), *Children in sport 3rd ed.* (pp. 17-23), Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
82. Martens, R. (2004). *Successful Coaching, 3rd edition*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
83. McStravick, T. *The principles of sports coaching – Playing for the future*. www.playingforthefuture.com.
84. Ministarstvo omladine i sporta (2010). *Pravilnik o nomenklaturi sportskih zanimanja i zvanja*. Beograd: Službeni Glasnik Republike Srbije, br.52/96 i 101/05 dr. zakon.
85. Murphy, S., Ed. (2005). *The Sport Psych Handbook*. Champaign IL: Human Kinetic.
86. Murray, M., Mann, B. L., Mead, J. K. In Williams (2010). Leadership Effectiveness and Decision Making in Coaches. In J. M (Ed.), *Applied Sport Psychology* (pp. 106-131), New York: McGraw Hill, International Edition.
87. Orlick, T. (2008). *In Pursuit of Excellence*, Fourth edition. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
88. Parsh, D. (2007). 8 steps to a coaching philosophy. <http://findarticles.com/p/articles/>
89. Perconte, J. (2009). *Raising an Athlete: how to instil confidence, build skills and inspire a love of sport*. Illinois: Second Base Publishing.
90. Pim, R. (2010). *Perfect Phrases for Coaches*. New York: McGraw-Hill eBooks.
91. Radović, M., Bačanac, Lj., Vesković, A. (2005). Uloga porodice u sportskoj aktivnosti dece. *Fizička kultura*, 59, 9-16.



92. Reinboth, M., Duda, J. L., Ntoumanis, N. (2004). Dimensions of Coaching Behaviour: Need Satisfaction, and the Psychological and Physical Welfare of Young Athletes. *Motivation and Emotion*, 28(3), 297-313.
93. Reynolds, F. (2010). Coaching Philosophy. <http://www.brianmac.co.uk/coaching.htm>
94. Rot, N. (1980). *Socijalna interakcija 2*, Beograd: Savez društava psihologa Srbije.
95. Sacks, D. N., Tanenbaum, G., Pargman, D. (2006). Providing Sport Psychology Services for Families. In Dosil, J. (Ed.), *The Sport Psychologist's Handbook: A Guide for Sport-Specifics Performance Enhancement* (pp. 39-61). Chichester, West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
96. Schloder, E. M. & McGuire, R. (2007). *Coaching Athletes: A Foundation for Success*, Los Angeles: LA84 Foundation.
97. Singer, R. N. & Gerson R. F. (1980). Athletic Competition for Children: Motivational Considerations. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 11, 249-262.
98. Smith, R. E., and Smoll, F. L. (1990). Self-Esteem and Children's Reactions to Youth Sport Coaching Behaviors: A Field Study of Self-Enhancement Processes. *Developmental Psychology*, 26(6), 987-993.
99. Smith, R. E., Smoll, F. L., & Cumming, S. P. (2007). Effects of Motivational Climate Intervention for Coaches on Young Athletes' Sport Performance Anxiety. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 29, 39-59.
100. Smith, R. E., (2010). A Positive Approach to Coaching Effectiveness and Performance Enhancement. In Williams, J. M. (Ed.), *Applied Sport Psychology, 6th edititon* (pp. 42-58), New York: Mc Graw Hill.
101. Smoll, F. L. & Lefebvre, M. L (1979). Psychology of Children in Sport. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 10, 173-177.
102. Smol, F. L. (1986). *Introduction to Coaching: Communicating with Parents*. Coaching Assn of Canada.
103. Smoll, F. L., Smith, R. E., Barnett, N. P., and Everett, J. J. (1993). Enhancement of Children's Self-Esteem Through Social Support Training for Youth Sport Coaches. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(4), 602-610.
104. Smoll, F. L., & Smith R. E. (2003). Athletes first, winning second: Coaches should



ask players to do their best instead of emphasizing contest outcome. *Soccer Journal* 48, 19-23.

105. Smoll, F. L., & Smith R. E. (2006). Enhancing Coach-Athlete Relationships: Cognitive – Behavioral Principles and Procedures. In Dosil, J. (Ed.), *The Sport Psychologist's Handbook: A Guide for Sport-Specific Performance Enhancement* (pp. 19-37), Chichester, West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

106. Smoll, F. L., Smith, R. E. (2010). Conducting Psychologically Oriented Coach-Training Programs: A Social-Cognitive Approach. In Williams, J. M. (Ed.), *Applied Sport Psychology, 6th edititon* (pp. 392-416), New York: Mc Graw Hill.

107. Special Olympic Coaching Guide – Principles of Coaching (2003).
<http://www.specialolympic.org/bocce.aspx>

108. Sport parent Survival Guide – How to excel at being a youth sport parent. American Sport Education Program, www.ASEP.com

109. Stages of Intellectual Development In Children and Teenagers.
<http://www.childdevelopmentinfo.com/development/piaget.shtml>

110. Stewart, C. (1996). The Coach-Parent Meeting: The Initial Contact. *Strategies*, 10(2),
Reston: Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance.

111. Strawbridge, M. & Marshall, M. (1999). Creating Healthy & Effective Motivational Climate. *Technique*, 19(3), 1-7.

112. Sugarman, K. (2004). Understanding the Importance of Teamwork. Brian Mackenzie's *Successful Coaching Newsletter, Issue 13*,
<http://www.brianmac.demon.co.uk/psych.htm>

113. Sullivan, G. S. (2005). The Effects of a Coaching Education Workshop on the Self-Regulated Motivation of 6th Grade Male and Female Basketball Players the Ohio State University. *Doctor Dissertation*, USA: The Ohio State University.

114. The Positive Coach Mental Model <http://www.positivecoach.org>.

115. Theokas, C., Danish, S., Hodge, K., Heke, I., Forneris, T. (2008). Enhancing life skills through sport for children and youth. In Holt, N. L. (Ed.), *Positive Youth Development Through Sport* (pp.71-81), Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.



116. Thompson, J. (1995). *Positive Coaching- Building Character and Self-Estim Trough Sports*. Portola Walley: Warde Puplichers, Inc.
117. Tod, D., Thatcher, J., Rahman, R. (2010). *Sport Psychology*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
118. Todorović, G. (2002). Izveštaj Upravnom odboru Košarkaškog Saveza Srbije. Beograd: KSS.
119. Todorović, G: (2008). Osnovne karakteristike rada sa mladim košarkašima uzrasta od 11 do 14 godina. *TRENER- Časopis udruženja košarkaških trenera, XII/52*, 9-10.
120. Torre, J. (2007). Coaching philosophy. <http://findarticles.com> 26 Oct, 2010. Training Principles, <http://www.brianmac.demon.co.uk/psych.htm>
121. Veach, T. L and May, J. R. (2005). Teamwork: For the Good of the Whole. In Murphy, S. (Ed.), *The Sport Psychology Handbook* (pp.171-189), Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
122. Wolf Rick (1997). *Good Sports: The Concerned Parent's Guide to Competitive Youth Sports*. Champaign, IL: Sports Publishing, Inc.
123. Weinberg, R. S. and Gould, D. (2007). *Foundation of Sport and Exercise Psychology*. Fourth Edition, Champaign, IL: Human Kineticis.
124. Wooden, J. R. (1983). *Moderna košarka*. Beograd: NIŠRO, Jež.
125. Vroom, H. V. & Jago, A. G. (2007). The Role of the Situation in Leadership. *American Psychologist - Special Issue, 62 (1)*, 17-24.
126. Youth Multilateral Sport Development: The Child & Junior Athlete Path to Success Periodization Programs for High Performance Sport Achievement. http://sportdevelopmentinternational.com/sport_programs.htm
127. Yukelson, D. P. (2010). Communicating Effecively. In Williams, J. M. (Ed.), *Applied Sport Psychology, 6th edititon* (pp. 149-165), New York: Mc Geaw Hill.
128. Zaccaro, S. J. (2007). Trait-Based Perspectives of Leadership. *American Psychologist - Special Issue, 62 (1)*, 6-16.
129. _P. Jovanović, Management, FON, Belgrade, 2005, pp.235-238.



130. Rakas S: Introduction to Business Ethics (third supplemented and expanded edition), Megatrend University of Applied Sciences, Belgrade 2006, p.113.
131. The term “communication “ comes from the Latin word communicatio-communication, communication, connection, behavior, association.
132. Miljević M: *Business Ethics and Communication (fourth edition)* Singidunum University, Belgrade, 2010. P.6.
133. Damnjanović P., *Business Ethics*, PEP; Belgrade, 2009, p.73.
134. Videnov-Senko.A, *Sociology of business and entrepreneurship*, (first edition), Belgrade Business School, Belgrade , 1992.str . 281.
135. Subotić D, Lazić J, *Interpersonal Business Communication*, Higher Business School Prijedor, Belgrade, 1999, p. 40.-41.
136. Advertising-Latin *clamaare* - to shout, to call. The antithesis of that expression is *advertising* - echoing , shouting .
137. Miljević M, *Business Ethics and Communication*, (fourth edition), Singidunum University, Belgrade, 2010.p.15.
138. Ateljević F, Gligorić T: *Refers to the public*, Glas-Serbian graphics, Everywhere, 2008.str.26-27.
139. Tomić Z: *Komunikologija* , Čigoja štampa, Belgrade, 2003, p.27.
140. Mihailović D: *Psychology in Organization* (tenth edition), Faculty of Organizational Sciences, Belgrade, 2005, p.263.
141. Schematic of the communication process.
142. Jovanović P: *Project Management*, Grafoslog, Belgrade, 2002, pp.144-145.
143. M. Miljević- *Business Ethics and Communication* , the university Singidunum, Belgrade, 2010,
144. P. Damnjanović, *Business Ethics*, College of Economics and Entrepreneurship PEP, Belgrade , 2009 . Str.77. Miljkov D, Rijavec M: *Communication in the organization*, Zagreb, 2002.
145. Ateljevic. Ž, Gligorić T: *Public Relations* , Glas srpski-Grafika, Banja Luka, 2008, p29.



146. Pavić Ž , *Ethics and Business Communications*, Singidunum University, Belgrade, 2011. Str.37.-43.

147. Janis L, *Victims of Groupthink*, (1982), 2nd ed. Houghton Mifflin. Boston.

148. Simon, H. *Administrative behavior*, (1962), Macmillan, New York.

149. Millar R, Crute V, Harige O, (1992), *Professional Interviewing*, Roudedge, London.

150. Damnjanović P, *Business Ethics*, PEP, Belgrade, 2009, pp.80-81.



DISCLAIMER

Power of Knowledge- 2020 project is an initiative of organisations based in the European Union. It is co-funded by European Union Programme Erasmus+ Sport.

The European Union's support for the production of this publication does not constitute an endorsement of the contents which reflects the views only of the authors, and the EU's institutions (such as the European Commission) cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein.

By using this Handbook, you accept this disclaimer in full. This Handbook has been produced solely for educational purposes and no other. The contents of this Handbook is not advice and should not be treated as such. Neither the European Youth Organisation, Youth Planet, Zentralrat der Serben in Deutschland eV, Terra Slavonica, Karate club "Mladenovac", nor any person acting on their behalf may be held responsible for the use which may be made of this Handbook and any information contained in this Handbook. Should you wish to use the materials in this Handbook, you agree to acknowledge that the materials were originally developed by the Power of Knowledge-2020 project partners for the Erasmus + Programme.

