



جامعة بجاية
Tasdawit n Bgayet
Université de Béjaïa

Abderrahmane Mira Bejaia University

Faculty of Human and Social Sciences

STAPS Department

Cycle end memory

In preparation for the MASTER degree in science and techniques of the Physical and sports activities

Branch: Sports training

Specialty: Elite Sports Training

Theme

Study of the relationship between leadership and

Group cohesion in sports teams.

Psycho-sociological approach.

Prepared by:

REDJDAL Amira

Supervised by:

Pr. ZAABAR Salim

Academic year: 2022/2023

***Study of the relationship between leadership
And Group cohesion in sports teams.***

Thanks

I would like to thank God Almighty, and I thank myself for being motivated, ambitious, and courageous and having the spirit of success.

I would like to express my gratitude to success people those are improving their existence, and those had never accepted to be as ordinary people.

I would like to thank Professor Salim ZAABAR for his help, patience and availability.

I'd also like to thank the entire staff of the Bejaia STAPS department for their advice and guidance...

A very big thank you to the club trainers for giving me the extraordinary opportunity to carry out my fieldwork

Mr. Nadir Maadsi, CFA club coach

Mr. Boubekar, SBB club coach

Mr. KADI Halim, OST club coach

Mr. ZERRADI Rabah coach of club ESS

With a warm heart, I would like to express my gratitude and love to my parents who have sacrificed so much to offer me this privilege and honor.

I would also like to express my gratitude to Mr. AZIZ for his invaluable support.

Dedication

I dedicate this milestone in my life to the memory of my grandfather REDJDAL Farid, who passed away too soon.

I hope he appreciates this humble gesture of gratitude on behalf of his granddaughter, who has always prayed in silence for the salvation of his soul.

Table of content

Introduction.....	1
Theoretical part	
Chapter I Literature review.....	5
1. Introduction to sport psychology:	6
1.1 History.....	6
1.2 Definition:	9
1.3. Fields of action of sport psychology:.....	10
2. Introduction to social psychology	11
2.1. Definition:	11
2.2 Fields of study and research in social psychology:.....	11
2.2. A. Specific features of social psychology:.....	11
2.2. B. Early experimental observations:	12
3. Introduction to leadership:	13
3.1. Definitions :	13
3.2. Leadership models :	13
3.3. Sport leadership:	15
3.3. 1. The coach leader:	15
3.3. 1.1. Models of Coach Leadership:	16
3.3. 1. 3. Characteristics of a leadership coach :.....	18
3.3. 2. The athlete leadership:	19
3.3. 3. Formal versus informal leadership:	20
3.3. 4. The characteristics of an athlete-leader:	22
4. The notion of performance in sports team:	22
4.1. Definition of performance:	22
4.2. Psychosocial approach to performance.....	23
4.2. 2. factors influencing collective performance:.....	27
5. Mutual support:	29
1. Group cohesion :	31
1.1. Definition of the concept :	31
1. 2. The importance of team cohesion:	31

2. Literature on cohesion :	31
2.1. The premises of the cohesion construct: from a one-dimensional to a two-dimensional conception:	31
2.2. Multidimensional models of cohesion:	32
3: Measuring cohesion:	34
3.1 Measuring tool :	34
3.2. GEQ protocol:	35
4. The cohesion-performance relationship:.....	36
5. Creating an effective cohesive climate	36
5.1. Elements that promote cohesion:	36
5.2. Factors affecting cohesion	37
5.3. Suggestions for team activities to improve team cohesion:	37

Chapter III Psychosocial approach to teamwork within sports teams, between (sociometry, group dynamics, and collective effectiveness)

1. Psychosocial approach to a sports team :	41
1.1. Definition of a group :.....	41
1. Two or more figures forming a complete unit in a composition	41
2. A number of individuals joined together or having a unifying relationship.....	41
3. An assembly of objects considered as a unit	41
1.2. The social group:.....	41
1.3. The sports group:	41
1.4. The restricted group:	41
2. Psycho sociological understanding of the concept (sports team) :	42
2.1. Definition:	42
2.2. Overview of the importance of community:	42
3. Introduction to sociometry and group dynamics in team sports:	43
3.1 Introduction to sociometry :	43
3.1.1. History :	43
3.1.2. What is sociometry and why use it?	43
3.1.3. Measuring instrument :	43
3.1. 4. Sociometric intervention in sports teams:.....	44
3.2. The importance and functions of sociometry :	44
3.3. some character types observed in sociometry :.....	45
3.4. Some crucial points to bear in mind when applying sociometry :.....	45

3.5 Introduction to group dynamics :	45
3. 5.1. Definition:	45
3.5.2. Group dynamics: why are they essential?.....	46
3.5 .3. Principles of group dynamics:	46
4. What is collective behavior in team sports?	47
4.1. Which behaviors boost team performance?.....	47
4.2 Best task-oriented behaviors for teams:.....	47
4.3. Better interpersonal skills for teams :	48
5. Collective effectiveness:	49
5.1. Collective effectiveness and the cohesion-performance relationship:.....	49

Part Two, Practical part

Chapter One: Research Methodology

1. Research means and methods:	53
1.1 Sample:	53
1.2. Method used:.....	53
2. Protocol:.....	54
2.1. The test procedure:.....	54
2.2. The sociometric test (sociogram).....	54
3. Calculation of cohesion and interaction indexes:	58
3.1. The formula:.....	58
4. second test (GEQ) :.....	59

Chapter II Discussion and interpretation of results

I. Résultats :	63
1.Équipe A (CFA) :	63
1.1. Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (sociogram) :.....	63
1.3Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (interaction and cohesion indices):.....	67
1.4. Discussion	68
2.Team B (OST).....	68
2.2. Discussion:.....	72
2.3. Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (interaction and cohesion indices):.....	72
2.4.Discussion	73
3.Team C (SBB) :	73
3.1. Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (sociogram) :.....	73

3.2. Discussion:.....	77
3.3. Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (interaction and cohesion indices):.....	77
3.4. Discussion.....	78
4. Team D (ESS) :.....	78
4.1 Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (sociogram) :.....	78
2 The influential leader :.....	79
4.2 Discussion :.....	82
4.3 Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (interaction and cohesion indices):.....	82
4.4. Discussion.....	82
II- GEQ results :.....	84
II-1 . Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results	85
Conclusion	87

Bibliographical list

Annex

List of graphs

Graph 1: Model of a sociogramme.	44
Graph 2 showing the result of the interrelations of the team A soccer (CFA).	63
Graph 3 showing the sociometric leader for the team A (CFA).	64
graph 4 showing isolated players for the team A (CFA).	64
Graph 5 showing sympathy relationships for Team A (CFA).	65
Graph 6 showing antipathy relationships for Team A (CFA).	66
Graph 7 showing rejected members for Team A (CFA).	66
graph 8 showing all interrelationships within Team B (OST)	68
graph 9 representing the sociometric leader for Team B (OST).	69
graph 10 showing the influential leader for Team B (OST)	69
graph 11 showing team B isolates members (OST).	70
graph 12 showing sympathy relations for team B (OST).	70
graph 13 showing unsympathetic relationships for Team B (OST)	71
graph 14 showing rejected members for Team B (OST).	71
graph 15 showing all the interrelationships within the team C Basketball (SBB)	73
graph 17 showing the sociometric leader for Team C (SBB).	74
graph 18 showing the influential leader for Team C (SBB).	74
graph 19 showing the isolates for Team C (SBB).	75
graph 20 showing sympathy relationships for Team C (SBB).	75
graph 21 showing antipathetic relationships for Team C (SBB).	76
graph 22 showing rejected items for Team C (SBB).	76
graph 23 showing all the interrelationships within Team D Handball (ESS).	78
graph 24 showing the sociometric leader for Team D (ESS).	79
graph 25 showing the influential leader for Team D (ESS).	79
graph 26 showing the isolates for Team D (ESS).	80
graph 27 showing sympathy relations for Team D (ESS).	80
graph 28 showing antipathetic relationships for Team D (ESS).	81
graph 29 showing rejected items for Team D (ESS).	81

List of tables

table 1 representing collective activities that improve cohesion.....	38
table 2: a model of a sociometric summary table.....	58
table 3 shows the formula for measuring the 2 index.....	58
table 4: showing index results for the team A(CFA)	67
table 5 showing the formula for calculating indices	68
table 6: showing index results for Team B (OST).	72
table 7: showing index results for Team C (SBB).	77
table 8: showing index results for Team D (ESS).....	82
table 9 showing athletes' GEQ test results.	84
table 10 showing index results for each cohesion variable.....	85
table 11 showing cohesion indices for each variable.....	86

List of image

image 1: representing a test run on a social network.	56
image 2 showing GEQ items.	60

List of figures

Figure 1 illustrating the characteristics of teamwork and how they are associated with team performance outcomes.....	27
Figure 2 representing the relationship, collective efficiency and performance.....	50
Figure 3 showing the 4 GEQ variables and items.....	61

List of abbreviations

Abbreviation	Definition
GEQ	Group Environnement Questionnaire
GI-T	Group integration--task
GI-S	Group integration-social
IAG-T	Individual attractions to group-task
IAG-S	Individual attractions to group-social
CFA	Club Football Akbou
OST	Olympique Sportif Tichy
SBB	Sarrasine Bejaia Basketball
ESS	Éspérance Sportif Seddouk

Introduction

Introduction

The world of sport, in all its component parts, constitutes a mirror universe, a collective transitional or potential space.

Sports psychology is a branch of psychology specifically designed for professional or competitive athletes. It studies human behavior before, during and after sporting activity, in relation to personality, motivation, anxiety and aggression levels, and teaches athletes to maximize their mental skills (**Cherry, K (2022). What Is Sports Psychology?**). Sports psychology focuses on the study of techniques designed to enhance each athlete's mental skills, such as concentration, attention and emotional control. It also reinforces motivation, team commitment and perseverance by creating a specific intervention plan.

Athletes' sports development focuses the attention of coaches, physical trainers, clubs, sports federations and the athletes themselves. However, sport psychologists have an important role to play in broadening horizons and considering athletes as complete individuals. The role of sport psychology is, of course, to help with sports development, but not only that. It is just as necessary, and sometimes even more important (**Fraser-Thomas et al.**).

Social psychology is a sub-discipline of psychology that bridges the gap between psychology, which studies individual behavior, and sociology, which studies sociological phenomena. Its field of research is the systematic study of ways of thinking, human behavior and communication between individuals (**Tachom Waffo on Mar 28, 2021**).

The notion of group is central to social psychology; it is the place par excellence where the link between the individual and the collective is played out, where the sense of belonging and exclusion is defined, and where the identity of each individual is elaborated. This is why the group is such an important object of study in social psychology (**Gustave-Nicolas Fischer, 2020**).

The sports team or group is a place where relationships are established and broken, sometimes improving the group's effectiveness, sometimes reducing it. Coaches describe this state of affairs in terms of identity, team spirit, complicity, cooperation or cohesion, dynamics and so on.

The concept of cohesion deals with a mechanism that brings together individuals from the same team or group to be more effective in given situations (**Serpa, 1991**).

It is in the context of the study of this discipline (sports social psychology) that many researchers have studied the notion of leadership, group, role and status, motivation, decision-making, communication and performance. If there are more important concepts or practices that play a part in achieving the objectives set by organizations, sports clubs... leadership is one of them.

Today, leadership in sport is dynamic and charismatic, and can play a fundamental role in a team's success. Just think of some of the most successful coaches or captains of recent years: Zinedine Zidane, Sergio Ramos or Pablo Laso...

External competitive environments and the internal group dynamics of organizations are increasingly complex, bringing new challenges for organizational leaders: Improving the performance of under-performing teams.

The aim of this phenomenology was to determine the factors leading to high innovation results in complex adaptive solutions.

Systems using a framework built on elements of leadership theory and research into the relationship between the latter and group dynamics.

In the late 1920s, research into teamwork led to the astonishing conclusion that performance is not linked to changes in objective productivity factors (e.g., duration or frequency, methods, breaks...), but rather to the emergence of a "sense of belonging to the group" and the adherence of all individuals to productivity goals. This early work, which focused on the importance of human relations in work teams, guided subsequent studies. However, it has been shown that sharing a common activity does not necessarily lead to the emergence of a "group spirit". **(BACK, K. W. (1951), Influence through communication. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 46, 9-23).**

In team sports, a group of players strives for performance at all costs. The concept of performance is not limited to winning. It encompasses both positive results and the achievement of set objectives. A team may, for example, set itself the goal of staying in the same division, and this objective, if achieved, constitutes a performance.

When we look at the notion of performance in team sports through the lens of social psychology, it's clear that group dynamics and individual behaviors, collective tasks and discord... are all important in achieving the goals set by these teams. Social psychology in sport offers readers a global perspective, a broad knowledge base and the latest thinking on topics such as social relations between members, communication, leadership of coaches and team captains, group cohesion, motivational climate, audience effects and morality.

Our study focuses on the collective climate and behaviors of individuals who build a social group working towards the same goal, namely performance, and on understanding the abstract movements that exist under the actual image of each group (conflicts, sub-groups...) and on their development according to defined sociometry norms; inter-attraction and cohesion, repulsion between individuals following socio-dynamic laws.

Following the trend of social psychology in sports and the knowledge of the importance of the relationship between psycho-social factors and sports performance, we decided to focus our research on the following questions:

- ✓ What are the main factors contributing to productivity and optimal group performance in sports teams?
- ✓ How can we study the psycho sociological relationships that are developed within groups? And what types of relationships are involved?
- ✓ What strategies need to be adopted to ensure the success of the process of role sharing and communication between members of the group? And how can these strategies contribute to optimal collective efficiency and the achievement of the common goal of performance?

Hypotheses:

- ✓ The sociological factors that contribute to collective productivity in sports teams are leadership, group cohesion, group dynamics and collective behavior.
- ✓ Sociometry is the study of interrelationships within a group, enabling us to study these relationships according to sociometric norms.
- ✓ The implementation of strategies such as sociometric measurement and the successful implementation of the athlete leadership process contribute to better communication and task sharing within a sports team. This will contribute to greater collective productivity and efficiency.

Theoretical part

Chapter I

Literature review.

1. Introduction to sport psychology:

1.1 History

Sport psychology is a recent science (in the 1980s in France), but its origins date back to the 19th century. Its history can be divided into five periods, each of which is illustrated by specific people and events.

The early years (1895-1920):

1897: first scientific experiment in sport psychology to study the effects of the presence of others on performance. Sports psychology began around 1890 in North America with Norman Triplett, a psychologist at Indiana University who was passionate about cycling. He wondered why cyclists racing as part of a team ran faster than those racing alone, in a time trial for example. To test his hypothesis, he conducted an experiment in which children had to wind a rope onto a reel as quickly as possible. The results of his experiment showed that child wound more rope when they were running in the presence of another child. Subsequent studies invalidated this result.

1899: E.W. Scripture describes the personality traits that can be developed through sport. His research focused on the benefits of physical activity. The development of psychology as a science prompted psychologists to look for new areas of study. For some, sport was a privileged field for the study of psychological factors related to motor performance. At the same time, sports psychology research was developing in Germany and Russia. But the real founder of American sport psychology was Coleman Griffith.

L'époque de Griffith (1921 1938).

Psychologue, il met sur pied le premier laboratoire de psychologie sportive. Il participe également à la création de l'une des premières écoles d'entraîneur aux États-Unis et écrits deux ouvrages sur la psychologie du sport. Il décrit les profils psychologiques de figures emblématiques de l'équipe de base-ball. Il échange également avec des entraîneurs sur la préparation psychologique d'une équipe. Il montre un engagement un intérêt particulier pour l'amélioration des pratiques sportives. Aux États-Unis, la psychologie du sport fut principalement influencée par la théorie de la personnalité et le concept de trait.

Parallèlement, la psychologie du sport se développe en Allemagne, au Japon et en Russie, sans pour autant qu'il y ait échange entre eux.

Establishing scientific knowledge of sports psychology. (1939-1978) :

During this period, sport psychology was influenced by both physical education and psychology. This led to a two-pronged approach: the first developed from an applied perspective, responding to the specific needs of the sports world, while the second focused on the theoretical and conceptual field developed in laboratories.

Franklin Henry, from UC Berkeley, devoted his career to the study of psychological factors in sports and the acquisition of motor skills. He also trained numerous students, who in turn set about training other professionals and adding to the body of scientific data on sport. The period from 1950 to 1965 is considered to be the period of greatest development in sport psychology, corresponding to the expansion of the theoretical foundations of psychology. The theories of personality, gestalt and motivation had a strong influence on sport psychology.

By the mid-1960s, physical education had already achieved the status of a university discipline, and sport psychology formed its basis. The socio-political system of the countries that pioneered sport psychology had a profound influence on its orientation. In the Soviet Union, for example, sport psychology was planned by the government from an overall perspective, controlled and oriented towards achieving maximum performance in international sporting competitions (**Schneidman, 1979**).

It therefore developed from an applied rather than a fundamental perspective, with the concept of psychological preparation for competition introduced in the 1960s. In Europe and the United States, research has focused mainly on the study of stress and its effects on performance, as well as personality traits. The assessment of personality by means of tests was one of the most frequently investigated research topics during this period. Books on the subject of sports psychology proliferated. In France, as early as 1950, A. Bouvet set up a battery of assessment tests for the French downhill ski team, and verified their validity. He introduced yoga as a means of psychological preparation. But his innovative approach met with little response.

From 1965 onwards, sports psychology was recognized as a structured, autonomous, scientific discipline and profession.

The assessment of personality traits in sport, the main research topic of the previous period, was gradually abandoned. Research, mainly carried out in the laboratory, focused more on the theories of social facilitation and social reinforcement. At the 1968 Olympic Games in Mexico City, sports psychologists such as **M.Vanek (Czech)** and **B.J.Cratty (American)** regularly worked with the national teams. After many exchanges on their practice, they wrote a pioneering book: "Sport psychology and competition".

Towards the end of the 1970:

Martens brought about another major change, however, by calling into question the results obtained in the laboratory. Research then took on an applied perspective, focusing on the development of psychological skills such as the mental practice of stress management (**Landers, 1983**). This interest in applied psychology has continued to grow to the present day, not only in response to the ever-increasing demands of the sporting world, but also because of the need to demonstrate the effectiveness of its methods.

The fields of intervention have expanded. For **Singer (1978)**, sports psychology is aimed at all individuals, whatever their age, sex or level of practice. On the other hand, for other authors such as **Thomas (1983)**, it is aimed at high-level athletes with a view to enhancing their performance. Contemporary sport psychology was marked by the creation of the Journal of Sport Psychology in 1979.

However, it wasn't until 1988 that sport psychologists became involved as coaches for the U.S. Olympic team.

The 21st century: the era of sports performance and performance assistance.

Since 1988, psychology has experienced spectacular growth. This trend has only accelerated with the growing interest of top-level sport in the contribution of psychologists. But also because top-level sport is undergoing major transformations and media coverage is exacerbating the phenomenon and raising the stakes around top-level sport. An example of this recognition: the US track and field team, comprising some 180 athletes, is supervised during certain training sessions and major competitions by fifteen sports psychologists, with a

highly functional division of tasks; for example, one psychologist deals with horizontal jumps, another with vertical jumps...

This legitimacy of the sport psychologist contrasts with a major problematic around the profession, around the professional discipline. This problem is essentially centred on the training and accreditation requirements imposed. In most countries, sport psychology is governed by rigorous regulations specifying the need to obtain the legally protected title of psychologist. However, the vast majority of sports psychologists come from sports science backgrounds. In fact, most sport psychologists are chartered.

This complex situation is one of the main obstacles to the development of this profession. "A group of psychologists met in Dijon under the aegis of the Société française de psychologie du sport (**Gillot and Lévèque, 1989**). This commission reiterated that a dual clinical relationship is the matrix and reference position for any psychological intervention: establishing an inter-subjective relationship with the athlete is the primary requirement for listening to and analyzing his or her request" (**extract from Sport et psychologie. L'apport du psychologue aux acteurs, Marc Lévèque, les cahiers de l'INSEP, N°4-1993**). (**Dr. Patrick Bacquaert**).

1.2 Definition:

According to the European Sports Federation in 1996: as the study of the psychological basis, processes and effects of sport. [1] Sport psychology is recognized as an interdisciplinary science that draws on knowledge from many related fields, including biomechanics, physiology, kinesiology and psychology. It studies how psychological factors affect performance and how participation in sport and exercise affects psychological and physical factors.

According to Saber HAMROUNI (2015) Dr. es Sciences ISSEP de Tunis:

Sport psychology is seen as a link between sport science, sport practice and psychology. Its main task is to explore and research the systematic influence of psychic, psychosomatic and psychosocial factors (or conditions) on the processes involved in sporting exercise.

According to **Mark R. Beauchamp, APA Division 47 (Society for Sport, Exercise & Performance Psychology)**. Sport Psychology addresses the interactions between psychology and sport performance, including the psychological aspects of optimal athletic performance, the psychological care and well-being of athletes, coaches, and sport organizations, and the connection between physical and psychological functioning.

It addresses the interactions between psychology and sport performance, including the psychological aspects of optimal athletic performance, the psychological care and well-being of athletes, coaches, and sport organizations, and the connection between physical and psychological functioning.

According to **Cox (2005, p. 14)**, sport psychology is defined as "the study of the effect of psychological and emotional factors on performance and the influence of sport practice on these same factors". He adds: "It is the science of applying the principles of psychology to sport and physical activity, often with the aim of improving performance".

1.3. Fields of action of sport psychology:

Sport psychology teaches how to manage anxiety, aggression and motivation, using techniques such as relaxation, autogenic training, biofeedback, hypnosis and interpersonal training for team sports. Research in this field extends to personality, motivation and social influence.

The sports psychologist carries out an assessment and diagnosis to determine the athlete's needs. He or she then establishes a plan for the intervention to be carried out and the tools to be used.

Self-knowledge: learning about yourself, how you react to certain situations and why, when you're more or less sure of yourself, what's distracting you and the strategies you can put in place to resolve it.

Relaxation: athletes need to learn to relax both physically and psychologically, so that pressure doesn't build up and cause problems such as injuries, insomnia or loss of concentration.

2. Introduction to social psychology

2.1. Definition:

Social psychology is defined as the branch of psychology that "is concerned with everything that has to do, directly or indirectly, with the influence that people have on other people. More precisely, social psychology takes a scientific approach to understanding and explaining how the thoughts, feelings and behaviors of individuals are influenced by other individuals, whether the latter actually exist, are imaginary or are merely implicit" (**Gordon, 1954, quoted by Fiske, 2008, p. 12**).

According to **Baggio (2006, p. 6)**, "while psychology studies man, social psychology is concerned with man in society".

Leyens, 1979: "At the risk of being imprecise, social psychology deals with the dependence and interdependence of human behavior".

Myers and Lamarche, 1992: "In formal terms, we could say that social psychology is the scientific study of how people perceive, influence and relate to each other". The notion common to all these definitions is interaction: the interaction that influences one another, and the interaction that determines one another's influence.

2.2 Fields of study and research in social psychology:

2.2. A. Specific features of social psychology:

Moscovici, 1984: (For him) "we realize that in reality our discipline is distinguished less by its territory than by an outlook that is unique to it. What practitioners, researchers and students learn in the course of their work is a way of looking at phenomena and relationships. In this sense, it can be said that there is such a thing as a psychosocial gaze".

Social psychology is an interface between psychology and sociology. They use binary reading grids that include 2 modalities: that of the psy and the independent object (ego or object: information stimuli).

Psychosocial: Ternary vision (3 terms): 1. A subject 2. An object 3. A group. For social psychology, the group is at the origin of the mental construction of external reality: social, object through the implementation of the social values and norms it privileges.

2.2. B. Early experimental observations:

Triplet, 1897: Ca: the effect of the presence of others on a simple performance (competition). Mé: Comparison of situations: 1. Task performed alone or 2. Task performed in a group (no collaboration). The main task: children have to win a fishing line onto the reel of a fishing rod. Re: Performance is systematically superior in the 2nd situation (group). Disc: The mere presence of others has an influence on our behavior, and here it's beneficial. This phenomenon is social facilitation (fundamental concept).

Mayo, 1928/1929: (Field of occupational psychology, based on the findings of social psychology in the world of work). The Hawthorne effect: emphasizes the role of social motivation on performance (Ca). Me: in a Hawthorne company, groups of volunteers work on a chain identical to that of the company. In certain groups, he modifies the factors (e.g.: improving light or increasing temperature). Result: improved performance. The results are paradoxical. While environmental factors have become unfavorable again, performance continues to increase. Disc: Simply paying attention to the subject is enough to increase performance. Highlighting of the importance of the fundamental need to exist and to belong to a group (social recognition).

Lewin, 1948: Theory of the dynamic field of the person: dynamics (change of state) of the subject's cognitive universe: this is explained by the equilibrium that makes up the cognitive universe, which is interdependent and can be disrupted. In this case, the subject will seek another equilibrium through the action in which he or she becomes involved, and which will constitute a means of articulating the individual's subjective aspects (internal forces) with the environment (external forces) => objective aspects. E.g.: changing dietary attitudes: results show that among American housewives not used to cooking beef offal and who were asked by the government to make a war effort (2 WW). To persuade them: the 1st group actively participated in a focus group and the 2nd group attended a conference. 32% of participants who had attended a discussion group on the advantages and disadvantages of eating these foods started to cook differently, while only 3% of those who attended lectures (passive way) did so. Discussion: involvement in the action that constitutes debate (exchange of information between people) brings new data into play in the cognitive field, so changes! Importance of groups in the Moreno, 1934: Sociometry (interpersonal relationships in groups) has enabled us to develop a technique for systematically identifying and measuring the importance of affective relationships in a group. This highlights the diversity of

preferences (sympathy) and rejections (antipathy) that give rise to affective networks. This has consequences for group functioning.

Work on social influence shows how an individual subjected to pressure from an authority or a group adopts the opinions and behavior of an individual, an authority or a group.

3. Introduction to leadership:

3.1. Definitions :

Leader: (Dictionary) a masculine, English word meaning a leader of a movement, usually political, a person who governs, guides or inspires.

Leadership: (Dictionary) is an Anglicism meaning (function, position of a leader) the term therefore designates the influence of an individual on a group.

Kurt Lewin: Leadership is a process by which a person influences others to accomplish an objective and directs the organization in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent.

Translation: Leadership is a process by which a person influences others to accomplish an objective and directs the organization in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent.

3.2. Leadership models :

According to Kurt Lewin, there are 3 different styles of leadership for organizational management: authoritarian, which has a dictatorial character, democratic, in which decision-making is collective, and "Laissez-faire", in which the supervision exercised by the leader of the tasks performed by his subordinates is minimal. Each of these leadership styles is linked to different behavioral patterns, interaction dynamics and socio-emotional environments. All three types of leader have their own advantages and disadvantages, and none can be considered superior in all respects; however, Lewin asserted that democracy is the most effective of the three.

1. Authoritarian

Authoritarian work environments are characterized by a leader who monopolizes decision-making. It is this person who determines the roles of subordinates, the techniques and methods they must follow to accomplish their tasks, and the conditions under which the work is carried out. This style of leadership is widespread in most organizations.

Despite the negative connotations of the word "authoritarian", Lewin insists that this type of leader does not always create an unpleasant socio-emotional environment; employee criticism is common, but so is praise. Authoritarian leaders are also characterized by low involvement in the execution of work tasks themselves.

In **Lewin's** observations, authoritarian-style leadership carries the risk of "revolution" by subordinates. The likelihood of this happening will be all the greater the more pronounced the leader

2. Democratic

The democratic style described by Lewin is very different from authoritarian leadership. Leaders who follow this model do not make decisions on their own, but rather emerge from a process of collective debate; in this, the leader plays the role of an expert who advises subordinates, and of course can intervene in the final decision if necessary.

Most people tend to prefer democratic-style leadership over authoritarianism and laissez-faire, especially when they've had bad experiences with one of these styles. However, democratic leadership carries with it a certain risk of loss of effectiveness, particularly when it comes to collective decision-making.

3. Laissez-faire

The French concept of "laissez-faire" could be roughly translated as "letting go", "non-interventionism" or "liberalism", depending on the political-economic terminology used by Lewin. Leaders of this type let their subordinates make their own decisions, although they don't necessarily take responsibility for the results.

This leadership style is generally considered the least effective of the three, as it can lead to a lack of productivity and consistency; it's better to have an active leader. However, it

works very well when subordinates are capable and highly motivated, and there is little need for communication between workers's authoritarian character. cognitive and behavioral dynamics of subjects !

3.3. Sport leadership:

Leadership is a fundamental aspect of sports performance, particularly in team sports environments. Over the past 25 years, significant research has explored the role of the coach/manager in this respect. However, this is only one aspect of leadership in sport. Equally important, though much less studied, is the concept of athlete leadership. The role of athlete leaders, both formal (e.g. the captain) and informal (such as motivators and cultural architects) can have a significant impact on a range of team-related factors, including satisfaction, cohesion and team dynamics. However, the mechanisms by which this impact occurs are less well understood. Furthermore, while the development of leadership skills has been proposed as an important aspect of coach development programs, there is very little consensus regarding the approaches that should be adopted to develop athlete leaders and their In team environments, the need for and provision of leadership are crucial factors impacting on multiple outcomes for teams and individuals.

In recent years, the leadership that exists within sports teams has become an important area of focus (Jour, 2012). Increasingly, team leadership is seen as a distinct form of organizational leadership (Kozlowski et al., 2016).

3.3. 1. The coach leader:

Coaches in sport have traditionally been viewed as either occupying a leadership role or fulfilling a leadership role. Viewing coaches as leaders, **Chelladurai and Riemer (1998)** defined coach leadership as "a behavioral process used to increase athlete performance and satisfaction" (p.228). Building on this initial conceptualization, Vella et al. (2010) further suggested that coach leadership is "a process of influence that depends on and is constituted by the interpersonal relationship". Relationship between coach and athlete" (p. 431). **Vella et al. (2010)** have also suggested the following key aspects of coach leadership: (a) the coach-athlete relationship does not directly affect athlete outcomes, but rather acts as a mediating variable between coach behavior and athlete outcomes, (b) coach leadership behaviors are used to drive athlete outcomes in competency, confidence, connection and character, (c)

coach leadership behaviors are determined by the training context, coach personal characteristics and athlete characteristics.

3.3. 1.1. Models of Coach Leadership:

In an attempt to understand the mechanisms underlying coach leadership, a number of models and theories have either been applied from other fields or developed specifically in a sporting context. These include: trait and behavioral approaches, the mediator leadership model, the multidimensional leadership model, coach-athlete relationships, authentic leadership and transformational leadership approaches.

3.3.1.2 .Trait and behavioral approaches :

Simply put, trait- and behavior-based approaches suggest that traits and characteristics. Individuals have predisposed them to be effective or ineffective leaders in specific contexts. Four main; Trait and behavioral approaches to the study of leadership were highlighted by Carron et al.

- Universal trait approach
- Situational traits approach
- Universal behavior approach
- Situational-behavioral approach

In the Universal Traits Approach, the most successful leaders are examined to understand the personality traits they possess that make them effective and successful leaders. In this line of thinking, if you identify the desired personality traits you can then select individuals with the right characteristics for future leadership positions. This approach, however, has been widely dismissed as overly simplistic because a single set of key personality traits could not be found and because it fails to take into account the wide range of people who succeed in leadership roles (**Cotterill, 2012**). Building on some of these initial limitations, the situational trait approach seeks to understand the traits possessed and also the characteristics of the specific situation or context. This approach assumes that certain personality types will be more effective in some situations than others, as proposed by Fiedler (1967) Contingent Theory of Leadership. Examples of the types of traits that have historically

been linked to successful leadership include trust, decision-making, delegation, creativity and authority (**Cotterill, 2012**). This view that leaders are born to be effective in certain situations also suggests that the same leaders might be less effective in other contexts.

Unlike trait approaches, the behavioral approach suggests that individuals are not born as leaders or followers, but that leadership can be developed like other skills. The universal behavioral approach seeks to understand how leaders behave and how this makes them effective or successful leaders. Four main styles have emerged from this approach (**Cotterill, 2012**):

1. Task-oriented: focus on achieving specific goals
2. Concern for people: seeking to understand the people they lead
3. Directive leadership: making decisions for others
4. Participative leadership: sharing decisions with others

In the situational-behavioral approach, the emphasis is on understanding leadership behaviors and approaches succeed in specific situations. Examples of positive leadership behaviors include leading by example, communicating effectively, asking for feedback, treating everyone fairly, listening, and acting consistently (**Cotterill, 2012**). While these behavioral approaches have merit, they fail to take into account the need for authentic leadership (i.e., the idea that leaders must embody their true selves in their leadership role) rather than adopting a set of general leadership behaviors that have been suggested to be effective.

Leadership coaching focuses on improving the capabilities of individual team members. The aim is to help them evolve, increase their performance and make them even more autonomous. It's a benevolent and supportive form of leadership.

It's a fairly complex form of leadership to implement. Indeed, the leader must guide his collaborators while leaving them enough autonomy. He must practice (005) in a sporting context:

active listening and excellent communication skills. Employees also need to provide plenty of feedback, so that everyone can develop to their full potential.

3.3. 1. 3. Characteristics of a leadership coach :

- The coach must be able to communicate effectively with team members and motivate them to achieve their goals.
- The coach must be able to understand the strengths and weaknesses of each team member and help them improve their skills.
- The coach must be able to create a positive and stimulating environment for the team.
- The coach must be able to set clear, achievable goals for the team.

In other words,

1. Teach and coach team members:

A coaching leader spends time teaching and mentoring team members. They help their team members acquire new skills and improve their performance.

2. Focus on development:

A coaching leader focuses on the development of their team members. They provide guidance and support to help their team members reach their full potential.

3. Tailor-made assistance:

A coaching leader offers personalized support to team members based on their strengths and weaknesses.

4. Understands team members' strengths and weaknesses:

A coaching leader has a thorough understanding of their team members' strengths and weaknesses. They use this knowledge to provide the best possible support to their team members.

5. Results-driven:

A coaching leader is motivated by results. They focus on helping their team achieve their goals and objectives.

3.3. 2. The athlete leadership:

Although the focus has been on coaching leadership over the past 40 years, it has only been recently that the concept of leadership within teams and groups of athletes, known as athlete leadership, has begun to receive considerable attention. An athlete leader has been defined as "an athlete, occupying a formal or informal role within a team, who influences a group of team members to achieve a common goal" (**Loughead et al., 2006, p. 144**).

Building on previous research, **Fransen, Vanbeselaere, et al., (2014)** developed a system for categorizing athlete leadership. This system includes two leadership roles on the field: the task leader, who provides tactical instructions to teammates, and the motivational leader, who motivates teammates on the field. The categorization system also includes two off-field leadership roles: the social leader, who promotes a good team atmosphere off the pitch, and the external leader, who manages communication with club management, the media and sponsors. **Fransen and colleagues (2014)** underlined the relevance of this leadership classification by demonstrating that fulfilling all four leadership roles within a team led to greater team confidence, stronger team identification and better performance results.

Emphasis was also placed on the different types of athlete leaders, characterized by how formal their leadership position is. Some leadership is provided by formally appointed leaders, such as captains, while at the same time, unnamed teammates may also provide peer leadership for their teams (**Loughead & Hardy, 2005**). Consequently, a second approach to categorizing athlete leadership has been to explore the formal versus informal nature of leadership (**Carron & Eys, 2012**). Formal leadership roles are those that are prescribed or assigned (e.g. captains and vice-captains). Informal leadership roles are those that emerge within the team as a result of interactions between teammates and the demands of the task (**Cotterill, 2012**). These informal leaders often act as the team's cultural architects. Cultural architects are leaders who possess the ability to change the mindset of others (**Railo, 1986**). In sports teams, cultural architects are often the more experienced and vocal individuals who are respected by the rest of the team and thus play a leading role in developing and maintaining a dominant team culture.

Informal leaders can both help and hinder the work of formal leaders (**Cotterill & Cheetham, 2017**). When the views of informal leaders complement the views of formal

leaders, they reinforce messages, further enhancing the focused nature of the team environment. However, when informal leaders' views conflict with those of formal leaders, this can lead to a lack of clarity within the **Cotteril & Fransen 596**.

Team, resistance to the proposed approach and wider conflict within the team. The same can be true for formal leaders. For example, when behaving in negative ways (e.g. thwarting skills behaviors), formal leaders can also have a negative impact on team motivation and performance (**Fransen, Van Puyenbroeck et al., 2015; Fransen, Vansteenkiste, et al., 2018**). Thwarting skills behaviors include providing negative feedback and displaying a lack of confidence in the ability of individuals and the team.

3.3.3. Formal versus informal leadership:

A second approach taken in the literature to categorize athlete leadership is to explore the formal versus informal nature of the role (**Carron & Eys, 2012**). While formal leadership roles are those that are prescribed or assigned (e.g. captains and vice-captains), informal roles are those that emerge within the team as a result of teammate interactions and task demands (**Cotterill, 2013**). These informal leaders often act as the team's "cultural architects". Generally speaking, cultural architects are leaders who possess the ability to change the mindset of others (**Railo, 1986**). Informal leaders have been highlighted as both helping and hindering the work of formal leaders (**Cotteril & Cheetham, 2015**).

One example of this concerns decision-making; informal leaders can either support or undermine (disagree with) decisions made by the formal leader. The actions of these informal leaders may in turn impact on the perceptions of the rest of the team and may further reinforce a shared vision or, in turn, propagate discord within the team.

Previous literature has focused mainly on formal team leaders, highlighting two main responsibilities (**Cotterill, 2013**): (1) to ensure that the needs and aspirations of team members are fulfilled; and (2) to ensure that the requirements of the organization or club are met and that the team is effective in terms of goals and objectives. The specific role of the captain, however, can vary considerably from sport to sport and from sport to sport. Performance levels (**Cotterill & Cheetham, 2015**). In some teams, for example, where team tactics are determined by the coach or manager, the captain may be no more than an official leader on the pitch but a role model off it. In other teams (for example, the sport of cricket), captains have greater responsibilities and make the majority of decisions on the field

(Cotteril & Cheetham, 2015). Loughhead et al (2006) demonstrated that the majority of tasks, social and external leaders occupied a formal leadership function. Although captains are perceived to be an important source of leadership within the team (Kozub & Pease, 2001; Loughhead & Hardy, 2005), in many cases this is not necessarily true. There has been an increase.

In recent years, emphasis has been placed on the importance of informal leaders, who can have significant authority and power within a group. In a qualitative study, for example, the majority of athletes stressed that not only team captains, but also other teammates, provided leadership for their peers (Loughhead & Hardy, 2005). Fransen, Vanbeselaere et al. (2014) further highlighted the importance of these informal leaders by conducting a study of 4451 participants in nine different team sports, in which they showed that only 1% of participants indicated that their team captain was the best leader on all four levels of leadership. In 44% of teams, the team captain was not perceived as the best leader in any of the four leadership roles, either on or off the field. In most teams, informal leaders, rather than the captain, were thus perceived as the best leaders, both on and off the field.

More recently, a study using a network approach to leadership tempered these findings by demonstrating that leadership is shared within sports teams. Specifically, it showed that in only half the teams was the team captain perceived as the best overall leader. In the other half of teams, informal leaders, rather than the team captain, were perceived as the true leaders (Fransen, Van Puyenbroeck, et al., 2015b).

In terms of specific leadership roles, the study results showed that in the majority of teams, captains were perceived as the best task and external leader.

However, on the motivational and social leadership roles, mainly informal leaders were perceived as the best leaders.

We can conclude that leadership is shared within the team: the coach, the team, the captain and the athletes' informal leaders together take the lead in the various leadership roles. These results thus propose a radical shift from the traditional vertical view of leadership (in which the coach is seen as the main leader of the team) to the idea of shared leadership (in which the coach, team captain and informal leaders take the lead). In this article, we describe how future research can build further on this idea of shared leadership by also taking informal leadership into account, rather than focusing solely on the team captain.

Before doing so, we first examine the attributes and behaviors of athlete leaders: what differentiates a true leader from others?

3.3. 4. The characteristics of an athlete-leader:

Initial research focusing on the characteristics of athlete leaders explored a number of descriptive criteria and observable aspects of leader behavior indicating that sport leaders are more competent than their susceptible teammates.

A number of research studies have sought to understand the behaviors, traits and skills of effective sport leaders. For example, **Klonsky (1991)** reported that sports leaders demonstrated higher levels of dominance, ambition, competitiveness and responsibility than players who were not perceived as leaders. In a more recent study, **Moran and Weiss (2006)** suggested that leaders can be considered in terms of instrumental traits (including being independent, energetic, self-confident) and expressivity traits (including being emotional, gentle, kind, warm in interactions with others). It has also been reported that effective sports leaders need good interpersonal skills (**Holmes et al., 2010**), have the ability to develop effective relationships with other team members (**Fransen, Van Puyenbroeck, et al., 2015**), and absolutely must trust and respect their teammates.

A more modern approach to peer leadership in sport is the social identity approach (**Haslam et al., 2011**). This perspective asserts that to mobilize athletes' efforts and succeed as leaders must be "seen as one of us" (be identity prototypes), "get a sense of us" (be identity entrepreneurs), "do it for us" (be identity champions) and "embed a sense of us" (be identity).

4. The notion of performance in sports team:

4.1. Definition of performance:

Dictionary:

The numerical result in time or distance of an athlete or horse at the end of an event. Outstanding achievement or success in any field.

Rational definition: Performance is a measure of the results obtained by a group or an individual. It is important for an organization to be able to measure performance at several levels:

- at individual level (the individual, the employee) ;
- Collective (a group of employees, a team);
- the organizational level (the company).

The concept of performance is commonly used both in the literature and in organizational circles to designate a certain level of excellence.

It remains, however, relatively ambiguous insofar as it is much overused in everyday language. What's more, although it is widely used, there is no unanimous agreement on its precise definition and measurement.

Etymologically, performance comes from the Old French word *parformer*, meaning to accomplish, to execute (Petit Robert). It is defined as an official record of a result achieved at a given point in time, with reference to a context, an objective and an expected outcome, whatever the field (Notat, 2007).

In the field of sport, the term is used to refer to measurement through competition, and to the result through victory.

Sports performance expresses the degree to which motor performance can be improved in a given sporting activity, with the complex structures that condition it depending on a number of specific factors (Weineck 1990).

4.2. Psychosocial approach to performance

The search for better results in sport is a phenomenon that occurs through the relationship of multiple variables integrated in a context of diverse and complex dimensions. Studies underline that psychosocial aspects, such as motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, concentration, fear of making mistakes, stress, emotion and group cohesion, have significant captive influences in athlete performance. Similarly, quality-of-life indicators are important for sport, and can affect performance and influence the results obtained in competition. To ensure that negative influences do not occur, the psychosocial dimension must be taken into account when structuring training, as it has been observed that some athletes suffer significant consequences in the face of the psychic and social pressure exerted by the game.

4.2. 1. Collective performance:

Two sciences are acquiring significant values: the sociology of sport, whose object is the study of social interactions, and sport psychology, linked to the study of psychic phenomena that guide individual and collective behavior. For the time being, sport psychology aims to observe, analyze and discuss the exchange of behaviors between individual, team and institutional sports.

Motivation, self-confidence, self-esteem, concentration, emotion, mental training and a satisfactory quality of life are performance drivers, while stress, fear of making mistakes, negative thoughts and high anxiety are inhibitors. In order to optimize sporting performance, technical interventions are called for, such as: positive reinforcement; examination of opponents' personal strengths and weaknesses; visualization of motor actions; breathing relaxation exercises; meditation techniques; dialogues aimed at repressing negative feelings and thoughts; systematic changes to training methods and locations. Finally, in the quest to identify the psycho-social aspects inherent in the sporting environment, studies have reinforced the importance of athlete training that considers man in his multiple dimensions, not limited to physical aspects, techniques and tactical components. Thus, athletes who have the opportunity to train from a humanistic perspective, in the interaction between training technologies.

Every team has the potential to rise or fall depending on the group of people who share the same passion and goals, and who work together to succeed. This narrative is very common in elite sport, an environment that presents considerable health and performance challenges for the athlete and those charged with supporting them. Considering that the success of athlete support teams is often measured by sports performance outcomes, the evidence supports the idea that the success of contemporary athletes can be strongly influenced by the function of the athlete support team. However, given the enormity of performance and health challenges, elite sports teams may need other inputs beyond traditional coaching staff structures and limited medical staff to influence health and sports performance outcomes.

Research exploring the dynamics of team function and team performance in an elite sports environment is an under-appreciated area that can help address this growing challenge. The nature of team function is a complex phenomenon that is far from resolved.

A "team" can be defined as a group of individuals with specific roles and responsibilities interacting adaptively, interdependently and dynamically towards a common valued outcome and who are together integrated into an encompassing organizational system, with boundaries and links to the wider system context and task environment. Members of elite sports support teams include team/athlete coaches and members of the sports medical and scientific team who are constantly seeking ways to improve the performance and health of the athletes they work with. Although its definition varies according to sporting contexts, this team of individuals supporting the athlete forms the high-performance team. Teamwork refers to the behavioral processes that team members (e.g. HPT members) use to get the job done within the team (e.g. communication, collaboration, sharing expertise), and team function refers to a group of people working towards a common goal. That is, team function relates to the ability to coordinate and interact cooperatively with each other to facilitate task objectives through a shared understanding of team resources (e.g., members' knowledge, skills and experience), team goals and objectives, and team constraints.

The work environment. Team performance represents the cumulative results of the team's actions, sometimes independently of how the team was able to accomplish the task. Team effectiveness, however, takes a holistic perspective, considering not only the team's performance, but also the way in which the team interacted to try to achieve a desired result. Thus, the performance of support teams in elite sport may not be simply reduced to the results of the athletes or teams of athletes they support.

Teams that encourage and facilitate each other's efforts to achieve a common goal are influenced by issues of leadership, supportive team behavior, organizational environment, and adaptability. Teams aware of the mechanisms of teamwork (performance monitoring, adaptation and facilitative leadership) have better performance results, particularly when team members were able to anticipate each other's behaviors and had better communication mechanisms. The addition of coordination mechanisms such as supportive team behavior, communication and team orientation are necessary facilitators of teamwork for a successful team, and the high performance sport environment presents challenges for individuals to function effectively as a team.

Despite increased interest in the concept of teamwork, there are multiple and divergent conceptualizations of teamwork. There is a limited perspective in the current literature regarding the relationship between teamwork and team performance. To the

authors' knowledge, little work has described what the inputs and processes of teamwork are, nor described methodologies for measuring the various influences and determining their role in assessing teamwork in relation to performance in high performance sport.

Challenges within HPTs in the elite sport environment arise due to factors such as organizational climate, professional conflicts, and power challenges.

In addition, high-risk-to-reward scenarios, the demand for competitive advantage and the focus on winning have fractured modern sport culture, resulting in the disparity and separation of athlete support staff and coaching staff within the same team. Effective team functioning underpins the achievement of the desired outcomes of collaborative working. As a result, sub-optimal teamwork sometimes has catastrophic results for the outcomes of such work. While high-level teams in elite sport have benefited from considerable scientific advances in physical preparation, participation and recovery practices, elite sport in this case has not benefited from the science of effective teamwork.

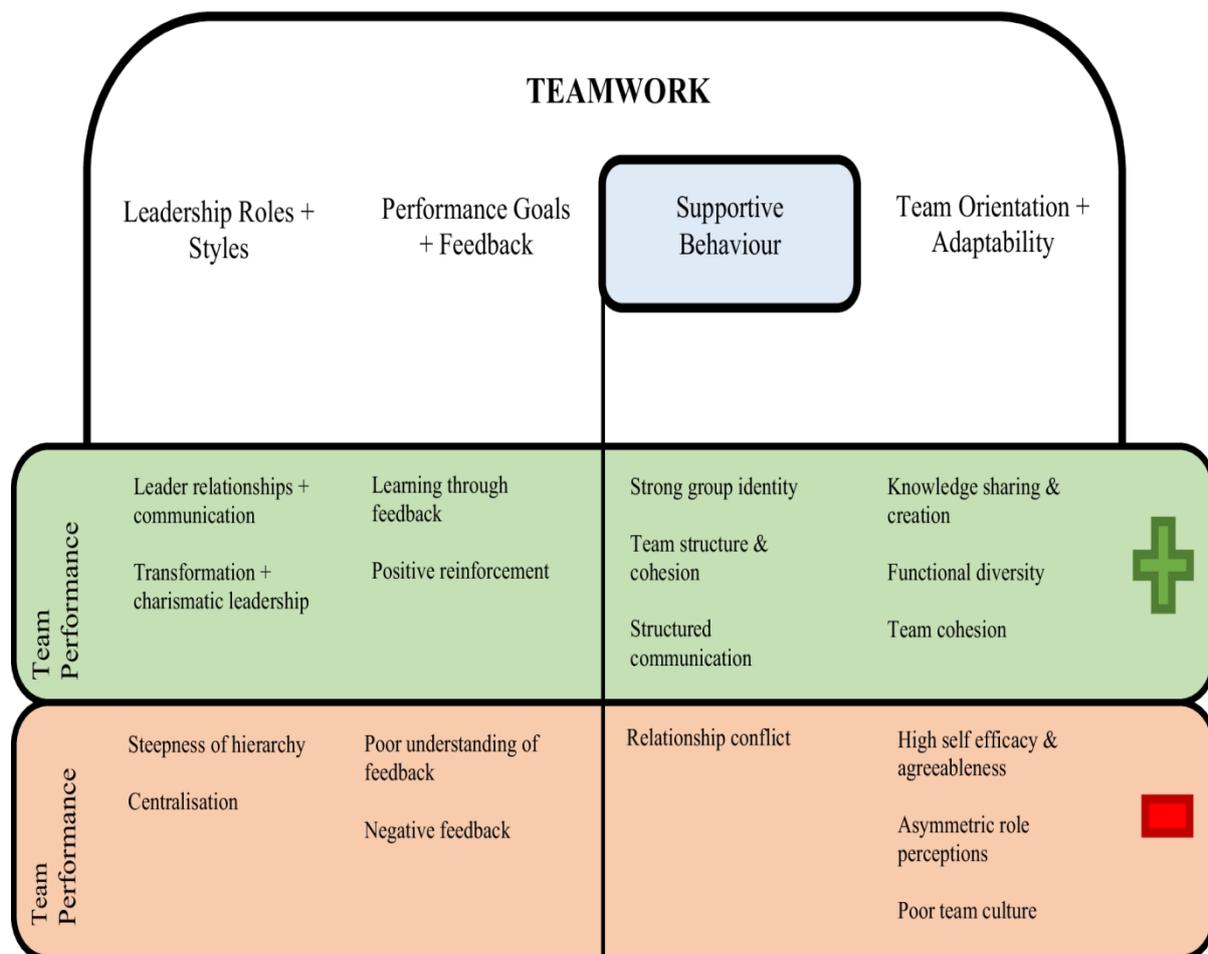


Figure 1 illustrating the characteristics of teamwork and how they are associated with team performance outcomes.

4.2. 2. factors influencing collective performance:

1. Leadership influences team performance:

In sport, leadership behavior is not only important for individual players; it is important for the team as a whole because it establishes an interpersonal environment characterized by support, respect, trust and appreciation of staff and players, which ultimately have a positive influence on team cohesion and performance. Leadership styles that foster supportive behavior were suggested to improve team cohesion. Highly cohesive teams worked together more effectively and, as a result, achieved better results than less cohesive teams. A growing body of research nevertheless points to the direct positive influence of shared leadership on team performance (Ensley et al., 2006; Hoch and Kozlowski, 2014). In fact, it is presented as a management style likely to boost team performance in carrying out

complex tasks requiring creativity and interactivity, and shared leadership is said to promote respectively: the sharing of information the pooling of a greater quantity of personal and organizational resources interactions and participation between group members (**Mehra et al., 2006**). This diversity of contributions and freedom of expression within the collective generates innovative behavior, knowledge and skills, and enhances the group's ability to solve problems. In addition, shared leadership offers the possibility of improving the socialization and social integration of members, thereby strengthening collective trust. The links thus created, and more generally the densification of the social network, lead to improved effectiveness of actions and solutions implemented at group level (**Carson et al., 2007; Daspit et al., 2014; Mathieu et al., 2015**).

2. Team communication and feedback influence team functioning:

Open communication and feedback on strengths and weaknesses were identified as a characteristic of high-performing teams, and poor communication was a marker of dysfunctional relationships. When teams of multidisciplinary practitioners adopt this teamwork approach, they have been described as an "interdisciplinary team", differentiated by its integration of knowledge and collaborative behaviors beyond that seen in "multidisciplinary teams", where individuals work towards their own goals with limited interaction. This can be explained by the mechanism by which teams collectively encode, store and retrieve knowledge

Communication and information exchange are seen as central levers of team performance, increasing the volume and variety of information available and enabling the group to reach a more satisfactory solution (**Klarner et al., 2013**).

3. The influence of others on sports performance:

Autrui: Any person other than oneself especially considered morally; set of people other than one: Devote oneself to others.

The influence of others on sports performance is a question that has interested psychologists for decades. This interest dates back to the work of Norman **Triplett (1898)**, often regarded as the founding father of both social and sports psychology. After observing that

Cyclists perform better when racing in the presence of opponents, Triplett examined the role of others on performance in a laboratory setting. He asked children to wind a reel as quickly as possible, either alone or surrounded by competitors. The results confirmed that their performance was affected by the presence of others. The role of others in sports performance has been broadly apprehended in two ways: either as adversaries, or as partners.

In the former case, work has examined the psychological processes (notably emotional, cognitive and motivational) by which social competition affects individual and collective sporting performance. *Traité de psychologie sociale : La science des interactions humaines* (pp.543-566).Edition: Ouvertures Psychologiques. Chapter:Sport.

Balanced contributions: This refers to the effective willingness of team members to contribute the totality of their respective expertise to the task in hand. Each member's contribution to the exchange of ideas helps to improve the group's performance, by generating reciprocal effects conducive to information sharing (**Hoegl and Gemuenden, 2001**). The balance of contributions is necessary for the implementation of these phenomena, which are at the origin of the emergence of new specific knowledge and the making of collective decisions adapted to the mission in hand. From this point of view, balanced contributions are a lever for task performance (**Seers, 1989**).

5. Mutual support:

Refers to the conviction that each team member can rely on the others (**Vries, 1999; Hoegl and Gemuenden, 2001**). Perceived recognition and support motivate group members to cooperate and commit to group goals (**Carson et al., 2007**). Not only does mutual support reduce internal conflict, it also fosters trust within the group (**Vries, 1999**). Whether we're talking about employees, teams or inter-organizational relationships, trust has been shown to improve coordination and boost performance (**Das and Teng, 1998**).

6. Finally, cohesion:

Generates familiarity, closeness and comfort within the team, all of which help to reduce internal conflict and promote greater team effectiveness (**Ensley et al., 2000**).

Quote:

'Talent wins games, teamwork wins championships'

Michael Jordan

Chapter II

Study of the group cohesion.

1. Group cohesion :

1.1. Definition of the concept :

Cohesion: Latin feminine noun, meaning (to be tied together)

Carron (1982) defines group cohesion as "a dynamic process characterized by the tendency of a group to stick together and remain united in the pursuit of its goals".

1. 2. The importance of team cohesion:

Cohesion within a sports team is like the glue that holds the group together. Psychologists have studied this concept and applied it not only to the sporting field, but also to improving group efficiency, encouraging mutual support and, above all, influencing team performance.

2. Literature on cohesion :

2.1. The premises of the cohesion construct: from a one-dimensional to a two-dimensional conception:

In the early 1940s, **Lewin** laid the foundations for the concept of cohesion for him, cohesion - the willingness to stay together - is an essential property of the group, without which it cannot exist. Drawing on field theory, he defined this "consent" as the set of forces keeping members together, including positive forces of attraction and negative forces of repulsion. Early work on cohesion problems considered cohesion as a one-dimensional construct, or a construct measurable by a single dimension equal to the resultant of all the others. The notion of "fields" served as the basis for the work of Festinger and his colleagues from the 1950s onwards. Using the metaphor of the atom, **Festinger et al (1950)** defined the structure of a group as a set of connections (friendship relationships) between its different parts (individuals). Cohesion is then defined as "the total field of forces acting on members to stay in the group" (**Festinger et al., 1950, p. 164**). These forces are of three types: (a) individual attraction to other group members, based on the need for affiliation operative forces, referring to characteristics linked to group activity group prestige, referring to members' pride in belonging to the group. **Schachter's (1951) and Back's (1951)** inability to show any significant difference

between the different forces supposed to constitute cohesion, led researchers to consider these components to be equivalent in their effects. The original definition of "force field" thus subtly evolved from "total forces" to "resultant forces" acting on members to keep them in the group. So, despite this multidimensional understanding of cohesion),

One-dimensional definitions referring sometimes to individual attraction, sometimes to operative forces, while neglecting group status. Some researchers have thus privileged the social dimension (**Lott & Lott, 1965; Schachter et al., 1951**); others have considered the operative dimension as primary (**Back, 1951; Van Bergen & Koelebakker, 1959**). However, even if the multidimensional approach seemed to answer a number of questions, the impossibility of agreeing on a definition of social or operative cohesion only shifted the complexity of the concept of cohesion, rather than reducing it. According to **Cota, Evans, Dion, Kilik and Longman (1995)**, this type of approach hampered the comparison and integration of results obtained in the literature. Each model proposed could in fact account for a particular aspect of cohesion, or even characterize cohesion in groups of a different nature.

2.2. Multidimensional models of cohesion:

According to **Dion (2000)**, since the 1980s, multidimensional models of cohesion have predominated. The debate is no longer about whether cohesion is a multidimensional construct, but rather about defining the different dimensions that best characterize it. Thus, in various fields, numerous authors have endeavored to propose multidimensional conceptual models of cohesion (e.g., **Bollen & Hoyle, 1990; Carron, Widmeyer, & Brawley, 1985; Cota et al., 1995; Hogg & Hardie, 1991**). **Hogg and Hardie (1991)** suggest distinguishing two types of attraction within cohesion, understood as attitudes or feelings (positive or negative) felt by one person towards another and estimated on the basis of sociometric choices made by team members: an interpersonal attraction known as "personal attraction", and a group-level attraction known as "social attraction" (1991, p. 176). **Bliese and Halverson (1996)** propose another two-dimensional conceptualization of cohesion. They define it by estimating two different constructs: "vertical cohesion, which corresponds to subordinates' perceptions of their leader's thoughtfulness and competence", and "horizontal cohesion, which is a measure of the degree of attachment existing within a group" (1996, p. 1174), comparable to interpersonal attraction. Similarly, **Bollen and Hoyle (1990, p. 482)**, who define cohesion as "an individual sense of belonging to a

particular group and a feeling of individual well-being associated with belonging to that group", propose a two-dimensional conceptualization that differentiates between an "objective" and a "subjective" approach to the cohesion construct. This conceptualization refers to a member's self-assessment of his or her relationship with a specific group, comprising cognitive information (based on lived experiences with the group and its members) and affective information (based on affects linked to these lived experiences). Although derived from different fields of application (e.g., military for Bliese and Halverson and psycho-social for Hogg and Hardie), these proposals come together to conceive of cohesion as a multidimensional construct. This position will also be adopted in another field: sport psychology. Building on earlier work that stressed the need to distinguish between what belongs to the group and what concerns the individual

According to these authors, since cohesion is understood as a property of the group, any definition of the concept of cohesion presupposes a clear definition of what a group is. Thus, **Carron and Hausenblas (1998, p. 13-14)** define a sports group as "a gathering of two or more individuals who possess a common identity, have common goals and objectives, share a common destiny, exhibit structured patterns of interaction and communication, possess common perceptions of group structure, are personally and instrumentally interdependent, exhibit reciprocal interpersonal attraction and view themselves as a group". For Carron and colleagues (**Carron et al., 1985**), cohesion is the construct used to represent the coherence of this type of group. They define it as "a dynamic process reflected by the tendency of the group to remain linked and to remain united in the pursuit of its instrumental goals and/or for the satisfaction of members' affective needs" (**Carron, Brawley, & Widmeyer, 1998, p. 213**). They propose to measure it by the double distinction group/individual and social/operational (Carron et al., 1985). Carron and his colleagues (**Carron et al., 1985, p. 248**) define the following two dimensions: (a) Group Integration (GI): "the individual's perception of the closeness and similarity of ties within the group, and the perception of the degree of unity of the group's field of action", and (b) "Individual Attraction To the Group" (ATG): "the totality of subjects' individual feelings towards the group, the desire to be accepted and feelings towards other group members". Each of these dimensions can be expressed in two orientations, one social, "overall orientation or motivation toward the development and maintenance of the group" (**Widmeyer, Brawley & Carron, 1985, p. 17**), the other operative, "overall orientation or motivation toward the achievement of group goals and

objectives" (Widmeyer et al., 1985, p. 17). Thus, cohesion is measured by four factors: (a) Group Integration-Task (GI-T), which refers to a team member's individual feelings of similarity, closeness and relationships within the team (the latter being understood as a task-oriented totality); (b) Group Social Integration (GSI), which refers to a team member's individual feelings of similarity, closeness and relationships within the team (the latter being understood as a task-oriented totality); (c) Group Social Integration (GSI), which refers to a team member's individual feelings of similarity, closeness and relationships within the team (the latter being understood as a task-oriented totality). Science & Motricité n° 59 - 2006/3 group ("Group Integration-Social": GI-S), which designates the same individual feelings of a team member, but for the collective perceived as a social unit; (c) individual attractions operating for the group ("Individual Attractions To the Group-Task": ATG-T), which specify a team member's individual feelings about personal participation in the task, productivity, goals and objectives of the group; and (d) individual social attractions for the group ("Individual Attractions To the Group-Social": ATG-S), which specify a team member's individual feelings about personal participation, acceptance and social integration with the group.

3: Measuring cohesion:

A number of criticisms have been levelled in the literature at the tools used to measure cohesion.

Cohesion can be measured in two different ways: Using questionnaires and sociograms. Carron and colleagues (1998) developed the Group Environment Questionnaire (GEQ), which measures the task and social aspects of a player's perceptions and attraction to the group.

3.1 Measuring tool :

Following the existence of different models, these authors developed an 18-item measurement instrument called the Group Environment Questionnaire (GEQ; Carron et al., 1985; Widmeyer et al., 1985). The first nine items, five for the social aspect (ATG-S) and four for the operative aspect (ATG-T), concern individual beliefs associated with the way the group satisfies personal goals and needs; they reflect individual motivations to remain in the group as well as personal feelings about the group (Attraction To the Group: ATG). The last nine items, five for the operative aspect (GI-T) and four for the social aspect (GI-S), reflect

individual perceptions of the closeness and similarity of members and the degree of group unification (Group Integration: GI). Responses to each of these items are plotted on a nine-point Likert-type scale, the ends of which are coded from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree". However, these properties are demonstrated for sports teams at different levels (i.e., municipal, university, Olympic).

These studies virtually followed the four steps necessary to adapt the GEQ proposed by Carron and Brawley (2000):

- a) use the original GEQ items adapted to the target population,
- b) ensure that the terms used, even if understandable, are the most appropriate for the target group,
- c) remove irrelevant items from a control sample,
- d) add more appropriate items and verify the tool's psychometric properties.

Based on the conceptual model of Carron and colleagues, is a cohesion assessment tool valid for French culture. The questionnaire comprises 18 items divided into four subscales: Operative Group Attraction (AOG; four items), Social Group Attraction (ASG; five items), Operative Group Integration (IOG; five items) and Social Group Integration (ISG; four items). The IOG and AOG dimensions define operational cohesion, while the ISG and ASG dimensions define social cohesion. Thus, of all the above-mentioned questionnaires, the GEQ appears to be the tool with the most solid theoretical foundations and psychometric properties (**Hanrahan & Gallois, 1993**).

3.2. GEQ protocol:

Was administered as part of a larger study involving additional measures. Items on each scale were presented in order, and all measures were counterbalanced between participants and teams. Participants had 40 minutes to complete all measures, and were assured of the confidentiality of their responses. The GEQ consists of 18 items that can be divided into four subscales. These are the ATG-S (5 items), ATG-T (4 items), GI-S (4 items) and GI-T (5 items). The GI-S and GI-T measure an individual's perceptions of group integration as a social unit and of group tasks, respectively. The ATG-S measures a participant's interpersonal attraction to group social interactions, while the ATG-T measures feelings of personal involvement in relation to group productivity and goals. Participants were asked to respond to each of the 18 items on a 9-point grid.

Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 9 = strongly agree). Reverse scoring was used for negatively worded items, and scores were summed for each subscale, with higher scores indicating greater cohesion.

4. The cohesion-performance relationship:

Regardless of the research method used, there is evidence that cohesion is associated with better individual and team performance, Team cohesion and performance have a circular relationship.

Being a dynamic process, group cohesion has the characteristic that the group tends to stay together and united in pursuit of its goal of satisfying the affective needs of group members (**Paskevich et. Al., 2001**).

A high level of group cohesion is considered important and leads to better performance. The relationship between cohesion and performance has been studied by many researchers, and most have concluded that "the link between cohesion and performance is reciprocal". Consequently, strong cohesion increases group performance, while successful performance increases cohesion. However, task and social cohesion are linked to group performance (**Carron et. Al., 2002**). Team cohesion exists where players are united in a common goal (**Cashmore, 2002**). Group members spend time and share common interests outside group activity, which means the group has good social cohesion. Task cohesion refers to a group united to accomplish a specific task (**Williamson, 2007**). This definition focuses on two important concepts: task and social cohesion. Thus, as a group is generally formatted to obtain and fulfill a goal, task cohesion plays an important role in the functionality of each group. Another cohesive force that often develops over time is that of social cohesion between group members (**Rovio et. Al., 2009**). Task cohesion or group integration is an indication of how well the team functions as a work unit, while social cohesion or individual attraction refers to how well team members like each other, as well as to team identity (**Lavallee, Kremer, Moran & Williams, 2004**).

5. Creating an effective cohesive climate

5.1. Elements that promote cohesion:

Here are a few steps to building a cohesive, productive and effective team:

- Establish leadership.
- Establish relationships with individual athletes.
- Encourage teamwork.
- Establish ground rules for the team.
- Seek diversity. The most successful teams need diversity.
- Practice teamwork.
- Use individual strengths.
- Communicate effectively.
- Have your say.
- Ask for feedback.
- Celebrate success.
- Work to create a team identity that feels different from the identity of other teams.

5.2. Factors affecting cohesion

Many factors influence the cohesion that will develop within a team. These factors include:

- The environment (e.g. social and physical)
- Personal factors (e.g. personality)
- Team factors (e.g. norms)
- Leadership factors

Although each variable plays an essential role, leadership factors may be the most important (**Vincer & Lughead, 2010**). This distinction is essential for coaches, as they have a significant influence on how team cohesion develops. In fact, a practitioner's efforts to foster cohesion can be considered a performance in its own right (**Gould et al., 2002**). Athletes instinctively model their coach's behavior, and an awareness of this can help coaches affect team cohesion in a positive way.

5.3. Suggestions for team activities to improve team cohesion:

According to athletes, the more time the whole team spends together, the more cohesion is felt between teammates (**Turman, 2003**). It could be argued that athletes already

spend a lot of time together and that it would be "overkill" to force them to spend more time together outside training. However, there are a number of creative

Creative approaches to supplementing training time with outside gatherings. In fact, many coaches already ask their athletes to lift weights together, dine as a team before competitions or volunteer at local charities to promote cohesion. Even a simple team meeting before training sessions can go a long way towards cultivating a team's sense of belonging.

Goal setting	Educate athletes on how to set proper goals and provide opportunities for them to voice their goals to their teammates. Identify common purposes/themes from responses.
Discussion groups	Lead discussion groups that provide every athlete the opportunity to speak on a particular topic that is relevant. Model effective communication practices.
Non sport related	Encourage team activities centered around non-sport related activities (e.g. board games, cards, team book club, recreation)
Physical practice	Promote healthy competition within practices and identify common goals. Encourage athletes to hold each other accountable for proper work ethic.
Team cheers	Provide closure to each team meeting/practice by uniting the team with a cheer. Allow each athlete to lead a cheer at least once a season
Celebrate successes	Teach athletes to define success by more than just the outcome of a competition. Demonstrate how to celebrate the 'small victories' that build confidence.
Community	Establish a sense of community within the team itself and provide opportunities for the team to build connections with their surrounding community. Make efforts to network with people who share the same passions.
Team captains	Allow athletes to elect team captains after the first two weeks of preseason training. Clearly define the captains' roles and explain what it means to be a leader. Be a model leader who shows courage, commitment, and caring
Opportunities for growth	Normalize situations in which athletes are struggling. Take advantage of those teachable moments and explain the benefits of growth throughout athletics and life

table 1 representing collective activities that improve cohesion.

Chapter III

Psychosocial approach to teamwork within sports teams, between (sociometry, group dynamics, and collective effectiveness).

1. Psychosocial approach to a sports team :

1.1. Definition of a group :

Dictionary:

1. Two or more figures forming a complete unit in a composition
2. A number of individuals joined together or having a unifying relationship
3. An assembly of objects considered as a unit

"A group is a set of people physically assembled in the same place, in a number equal to or greater than four, having the possibility of communicating with each other" (**Delhez, 1985**).

1.2. The social group:

The notion of group is central to social psychology; it designates the place par excellence where the articulation between the individual and the collective is played out, where the feeling of belonging and exclusion is defined, and where each person's identity is elaborated. (Lewin)

1.3. The sports group:

Falls into the category of restricted groups (**Anzieu and Martin, 1990**), i.e. groups within which individuals maintain direct, proximal relationships. These groups are considered to be mobilized by a common goal, and therefore to share a common destiny (it is the group as a whole that will succeed or fail).

1.4. The restricted group:

A restricted group, primary group or small group is a gathering of around three to twenty individuals. In the French language, the terms "restraint" and "petit" are often used synonymously, but in this case the expression group restraint is more widespread.

Chapter III Psychosocial approach to teamwork within sports teams , between (sociometry, group dynamics, and collective effectiveness)

A restricted group has a common aim, a common goal, and there's value in interaction, a limited number, energy available for task production, norms that will be built up as the interaction progresses, internal and external boundaries, relational and affective aspects, and axes of participation.

2. Psycho sociological understanding of the concept (sports team) :

2.1. Definition:

A team: A good team is more than a group of talented players whose members need to work together effectively to achieve success **(Steiner, 1972)**.

The sports team is defined as "a gathering of two or more individuals who possess a collective identity, have common goals and objectives, share a common destiny, exhibit structured patterns of interaction and modes of communication, possess common perceptions of group structure, are personally and operationally interdependent, exhibit reciprocal interpersonal attraction and consider themselves to be a group" **(Carron,Hausenblas, Eys, 2005, p. 13)**.

Sports teams are small groups where members stay together for relatively long periods, and where functional and social cohesion is crucial to the club's performance and success. The importance of the social element and friendship in amateur clubs is further emphasized **(Vojvodić and Jovanović, 2014)** .

2.2. Overview of the importance of community:

Harmony in interpersonal relationships leads to cooperation and successful group dynamics in the playground. The best team performance depends on the ability of team players to show their skills during competition.

The team's ability to show its true potential depends on harmony between the athletes. Harmony in collaborative sports is very important for team success **(Akyüz, 2003)**.

3. Introduction to sociometry and group dynamics in team sports:

3.1 Introduction to sociometry :

3.1.1. History :

Sociometry was born at the beginning of the 20th century in the United States, where Jacob Levy Moreno lived. This new conceptualization gave rise to the methods that would make sociometry a technique capable of studying, diagnosing and predicting the dynamics of group and social interactions, both in groups of a few members and in much more complex and increasingly large social contexts.

3.1.2. What is sociometry and why use it?

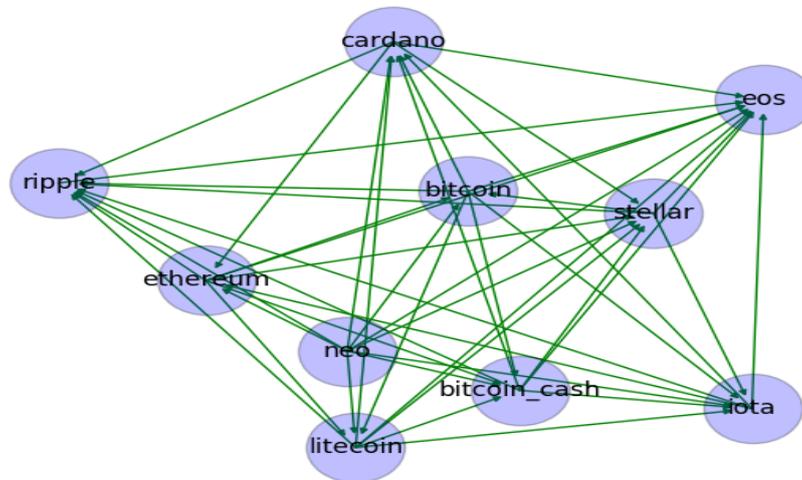
Sociometry is a technique that measures human relationships, social cohesion and group development, and the group's distance from itself and society. Sociometry is a technique used to determine the status of the community within the group, and to determine and measure its social status (**Moreno, 1960**).

Sociometry is a science that uses two techniques such as the psychodrama technique and the test revealing a selected group's relationship with each other, their attitude and social organization within the group (**Moreno 1960; Şirin, 1993; Şatıroğlu, 1999**).

3.1.3. Measuring instrument :

Moreno perceived the sociogram as a quantitative measuring instrument.

The sociographer will make it possible to represent the types of relationships within a group, which can lead to actions to reorganize work so that it is efficient.



Graph 1: Model of a sociogramme.

3.1. 4. Sociometric intervention in sports teams:

Sociometry is a method of analyzing social relationships between individuals. It can be used in team sports to study interactions between players and their impact on team performance. The difficulties of individual and collective evaluation in team sports are those of any complex system, in which numerous elements interact.

In team sports, it is necessary to resolve problems between individuals to ensure harmony within the group during the competition preparation process. For this reason, it is important to use sociometric studies in sports environments to learn about and analyze the characteristics of the selected group and the relationships between team players.

3.2. The importance and functions of sociometry :

- a. Learn about group interaction and structure.
- b. Discover individual behaviors and systems.
- c. elicit social relationships and group organization.
- d. Identify leaders, sub-groups and group cliques.

Chapter III Psychosocial approach to teamwork within sports teams , between (sociometry, group dynamics, and collective effectiveness)

e. provides objective information on the real structure and integrity of the group.

f. allows us to learn more about group dynamics and to evaluate athletes' levels of socialization after certain social activities and their effects on the achievement of targeted objectives.

g. gives us the opportunity to identify the proximity of group members to each other and the network of interaction between them.

3.3. some character types observed in sociometry :

- Leaders
- Isolated
- Rejected
- Pair relationships

3.4. Some crucial points to bear in mind when applying sociometry :

- A good, clear explanation must be given of the purpose of the technique.
- It must be applied to athletes who can read and write.
- The principles of sociometry must be taken into account when applying the technique.
- Results must be kept secret and not used for any other purpose.

3.5 Introduction to group dynamics :

3. 5.1. Definition:

The term group dynamics contains two terms:

1= group :

A social unit of two or more individuals who have in a common set of beliefs and values follow the same norms and work towards a common goal.

2= dynamic:

Greek word meaning strength.

Chapter III Psychosocial approach to teamwork within sports teams , between (sociometry, group dynamics, and collective effectiveness)

Group dynamics: is a system of behaviors and psychological processes occurring within a social group (intra-group dynamics) or between social groups (inter-group dynamics).

Social psychologist **Kurt Lewin (1890-1947)** coined the term group dynamics as the positive and negative forces within groups of people.

Group dynamics: refers to the interactions, attitudes and behaviors within a group of individuals working together (**J.Moreno,1934**).

3.5.2. Group dynamics: why are they essential?

A good group (or team) dynamic encourages collaboration and communication, because it limits the obstacles that stand in the way of collective work and resolves conflicts.

If discussions flow smoothly, working together becomes child's play. But getting there takes time, practice and support.

Creating team dynamics helps optimize communication and collaboration

A high level of team dynamics boosts productivity, making it easier for the team to achieve its objectives.

3.5 .3. Principles of group dynamics:

- 1) Group members must have a strong sense of belonging to the group; the barrier between leaders and to-be-leaders must be broken.
- 2) The more a group attracts its members, the more influence it will exert on them.
- 3) The greater the prestige of group members in the eyes of the member, the more influence he or she will exert on the theme.
- 4) Successful efforts to change individual subparts of the group would result in them confirming the group's norms.
- 5) Pressure for change, when strong, can be established in the group by creating a shared perception among members of the need for change.

4. What is collective behavior in team sports?

Collective behavior in team sports is a concept that refers to the way team members interact with each other to achieve a common goal. It can include behaviors such as communication, cooperation and coordination.

4.1. Which behaviors boost team performance?

There are a number of key behaviors that stimulate team performance:

1. Establishing an environment and dynamic based on trust.
2. Managing conflict, encouraging and motivating commitment.
3. Ensuring accountability and positive results.
4. Try to have one or more people in a team who describe these key success behaviors.

These task- and relationship-oriented behaviors work consistently to create maximum productivity and teamwork.

4.2 Best task-oriented behaviors for teams:

These positive behaviors and values can support the team and help accomplish tasks and reach your goals:

1. Taking initiative:

Having one or more team members (leaders) who are good at taking initiative is essential for a successful team. This helps the team identify challenges or obstacles. It can also help to propose actions and suggest solutions to get the team working effectively.

2. Finding and communicating information:

It's important to have a team member who participates regularly. This helps to encourage a more participative mindset in the rest of the team. This could be by providing ideas and information to the team. It could also be by seeking opinions, comments and suggestions from all members.

3. Coordination and collaboration:

Working together towards a common goal (performance) is key to team success. Working in coordination can also increase productivity. This can be done by allocating tasks or soliciting contributions from the team, managing contributions or proposing plans on how to proceed with a given objective.

4. Clarification and elaboration:

When a team is working together, suggesting ideas and sharing information, it's very useful to have a team member the leader or athlete-leaders that are strong at clarifying information or instructions that are unclear. They can then provide or request clarification for the rest of the team. Interpreting information and comments and providing a suggestion on how to proceed can help keep the team on schedule to finish together.

4.3. Better interpersonal skills for teams :

1. Positive reinforcement and encouragement:

Recognizing and thanking team members for their contributions is good for morale. Other team members can feel safe participating in group discussions when they receive a positive response. Being open to hearing suggestions and accepting other points of view helps the team recognize new opportunities.

2. Conflict management:

Conflict is often a natural phenomenon when several personalities work together or spend a lot of time together (group). Having the ability to ease tensions and manage conflict within your team is a very valuable trait. Using humor to end conflicts or encouraging breaks when helps needed create a more positive working environment, keeping your team focused on the task in hand.

3. Problem-solving:

In addition to conflict management, problem-solving is a strong trait for team members. Work together to identify solutions to problems as they arise, whether it's a task or a conflict you're managing between team members.

4. Timing:

A productive team works efficiently and meets deadlines. Pay particular attention to the passage of time during discussions and work in collaboration with team members.

5. Observation:

Observation can be a useful behavior for a team. Paying attention to team dynamics and how the team works together can help identify concerns or opportunities.

5. Collective effectiveness:

Collective efficacy, defined as a group's shared belief in its joint ability to organize and execute action plans, plays a central role in understanding sports team dynamics, as it influences what individuals choose to do as team members, how much they invest in terms of motivation to perform actions, how much they work collectively, and how long they persist despite failure.

5.1. Collective effectiveness and the cohesion-performance relationship:

The performance of a sports group depends on a number of factors, including group effectiveness. The concept of collective efficacy initially proposed by **Bandura (for review, Bandura, 1997)** is defined as: "a sense of collective competence shared among members when they allocate, coordinate, and integrate their resources in a concerted, effective and specific response to situational demand" (**Zaccaro, Blair, Peterson, & Zazanis, 1995, p. 309**). The latter authors suggest that group qualities contribute to the development of a sense of efficacy, and identify leadership and cohesion as potential sources of collective efficacy.

Collective effectiveness and performance are linked by cause and effect.

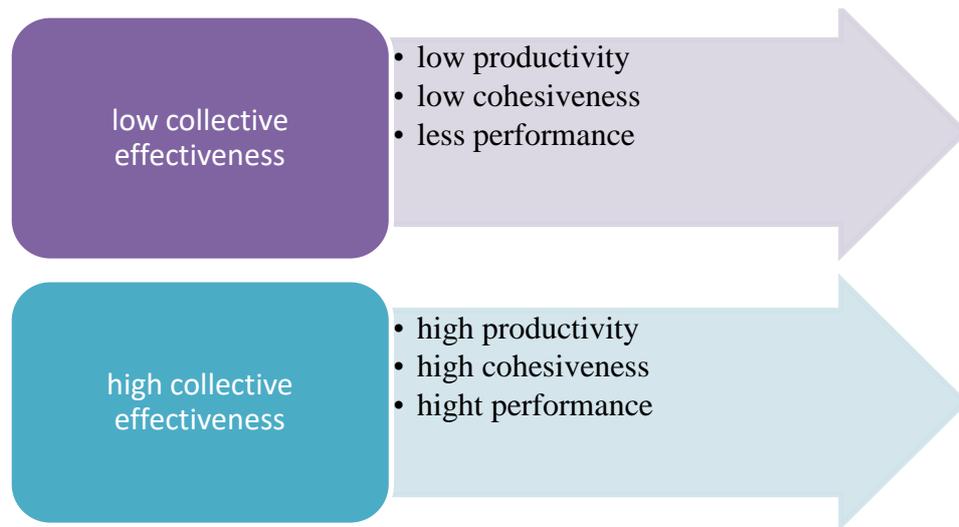


Figure 2 representing the relationship, collective efficiency and performance.

Part Two, Practical part

Chapter One: Research Methodology

1. Research means and methods:

1.1 Sample:

Our research was carried out on a sample of 4 different team sports in the Senior Dames category, which are:

- a. Basketball (SBB), national 1.B, 10 players
- b. Soccer (CFA), first division, 17 players
- c. Volleyball (OST), national 1, 18 players
- d. Handball (ESS), second division, 16 players

Our study was spread over 1 month, from the beginning of December to the end of the month,

Divided over one week for each team.

The test was carried out at:

Basketball (SBB): the basketball hall at Bejaia's OPOV stadium

Soccer (CFA): handball hall, Ouzelagen

For Volleyball (OST) and Handball (ESS), testing was carried out on the Whatsup social network,

During the pre-competitive period.

1.2. Method used:

In our research we used the descriptive method

Definition of the descriptive method:

The descriptive method consists in describing and characterizing a phenomenon, situation or event in order to understand and explain it.

To achieve our research objective, we opted for a sociometric test that will enable us to confirm or refute our hypotheses.

2. Protocol:

The protocol used for data collection is a sociometric measure based on the sociogram of (**Moreno, 1934**), carried out on the 4 teams.

2.1. The test procedure:

- Subjects must be informed of the Protocol
- Individualize the test.
- Ask the same 4 questions for each subject.
 1. Who would you like to play or work with?
 2. With whom would you not like to play or work?
 3. Who do you think will choose you?
 4. Who do you think you'll be rejected by?
- Record everyone's answers
- Create a sociogram on an application, create a section for each team and then fill it in with the athletes' names.
- Form relationships between subjects, using feedback from the test
- Gain insight into the climate of interrelationships between subjects.
- Detect subgroups and locate sociometric leaders.
- Calculate the interaction and cohesion index for each team.
- Act on the group and draw up a final overview.

2.2. The sociometric test (sociogram)

a. Definition:

By definition, the sociogram is a sociometric technique used in the human sciences, and more specifically in sociology. It studies relationships between members of a group. It

takes the form of a diagram to derive theories from observation. The sociogram provides interesting insights into professional relationships and communication channels.

Dictionary: diagrams of the social ties shared by a group of individuals.

It's a graphic drawing that traces the structure of interpersonal relations in a group situation **(J.Moreno, 1934)**.

(Moreno), the sociogram, also known as sociometric detection, is a method of indirect observation used in particular in the sciences of education and social analysis.

The sociogram is a graphical presentation of individual relationships within a group **(Moreno, 1933)**.

b. creating the sociogram :

So, how does the sociogram work?

There are three steps to creating a sociogram:

1. Define the participants.
2. Ask relevant questions.
3. Evaluate and analyze results.

c. The questionnaire:

The questionnaire consists of 4 questions with different colors for each:

- a. Who would you like to play or work with?
- b. Who wouldn't you like to play or work with?
- c. Who do you think will choose you?
- d. who do you think will reject you?



image 1: representing a test run on a social network.

D. The test sheet:

We're going to write an information sheet about the team

Club name

- Date
- Fill in the boxes with the athletes' names
- Record answers with numbering

E. registration :

We registered on the Mon Sociogramme.me platform, creating 4 sections for each team.

We displayed the list of athletes concerned by the test by section, and then recorded the rewards one by one, clicking on each athlete to record his or her choices.

As we recorded each person's choices, the graph representing the interrelationships appeared on its own.



Images 1: representing the sociogram inscription platform.

Summary table:

The overview table automatically creates

Tableau de synthèse ou tableau des personnalités sociales

	Choix positifs	Choix négatifs (rejets)	Perceptions positives (choix)	Perceptions négatives (rejets)	Poids relatif
A	1	0	1	0	2
B	2	0	1	0	3
C	1	0	1	1	3
D	3	4	0	1	8
E	0	0	0	0	0
F	1	1	1	0	3
G	5	0	1	0	6
H	0	1	1	0	2
I	1	0	1	1	3
Total	14	6	7	3	30

table 2: a model of a sociometric summary table.

3. Calculation of cohesion and interaction indexes:

At the end, we calculated the interaction index and the cohesion index for each team.

3.1. The formula:

Interaction index = $T.C + T.R / n (n - 1)$

Cohesion index = $T.C / n (n - 1)$

interaction index	$T.C + T.R / n (n - 1)$
cohesion index	$T.C / n (n - 1)$

table 3 shows the formula for measuring the 2 index.

**4. second test (GEQ) :
Carron et al.'s, (1985)**

We have added a second test which measures the dynamics of cohesion within sports teams.

This was carried out on a single team as a descriptive approach.

Number of participating athletes = 19

Group Environment Questionnaire (**GEQ; Carron, Widmeyer, & Brawley, L 1985**) is an instrument used to assess and measure the dynamics of cohesion in sports teams.

The GEQ is an 18-item questionnaire divided into 4 subscales.

a. explanation of the test protocol :

- Athletes must be informed
- Distribute questionnaire
- Subjects must return within 45 min.
- Answers must be on a 9-point grid

Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 9 = strongly agree). Reverse scoring was used for negatively worded items, and scores were summed for each subscale, with higher scores indicating greater cohesion.

Group Environment Questionnaire (GEQ)

Name: _____ Team: _____ Date: _____

This questionnaire is designed to assess your perceptions of your team. There are no wrong or right answers, so please give your immediate reaction. Some of the questions may seem repetitive, but please answer ALL questions. Your personal responses will be kept in strictest confidence.

The following statements are designed to assess your feelings about YOUR PERSONAL INVOLVEMENT with this team. Please CIRCLE a number from 1 to 9 to indicate your level of agreement with each of these statements.

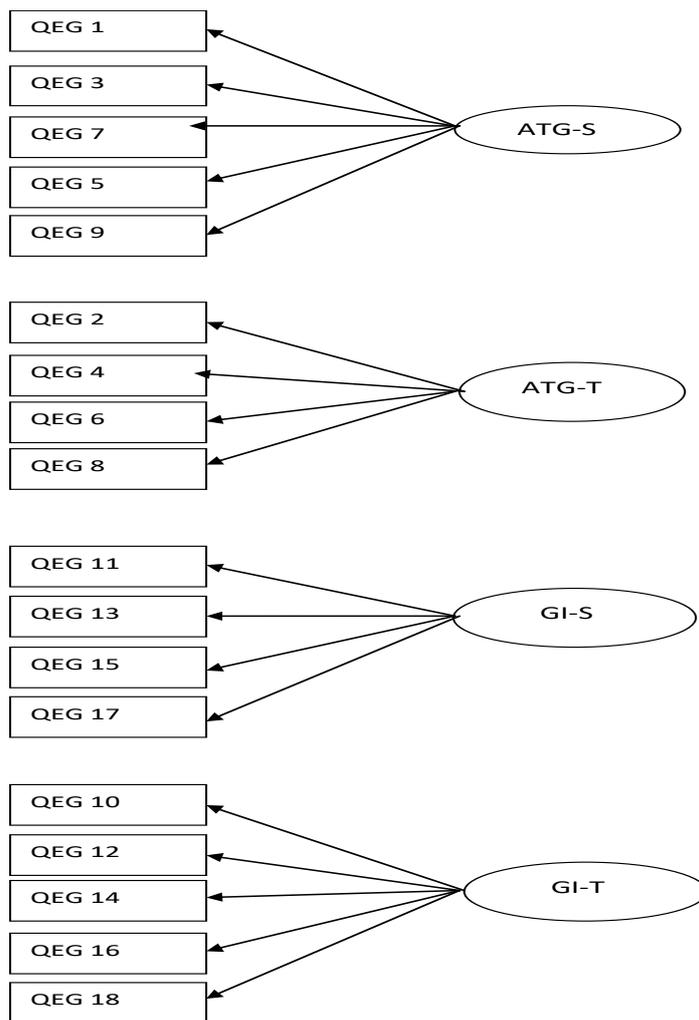
1. I do not enjoy being a part of the social activities of this team.
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
2. I'm not happy with the amount of playing time I get.
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
3. I am not going to miss the members of this team when the season ends.
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
4. I'm unhappy with my team's level of desire to win.
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
5. Some of my best friends are on this team.
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
6. This team does not give me enough opportunities to improve my personal performance.
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
7. I enjoy other parties rather than team parties.
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
8. I do not like the style of play on this team.
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
9. For me, this team is one of the most important social groups to which I belong.
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree

498 Eys, Loughread, Bray, and Carron

10. This team gives me enough opportunities to improve my own performance.¹
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
11. I spend time with my teammates.²
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
12. Our team does not work well together.³
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
13. I am going to keep in contact with my teammates after the season ends.²
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
14. I am happy with my team's level of desire to win.¹
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
15. We stick together outside of practice.²
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
16. My approach to playing is the same as my teammates.¹
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
17. We contact each other often (phone, text message, internet).²
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree
18. We like the way we work together as a team.¹
1 Strongly Disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Agree

¹Task cohesion item²Social cohesion item³Surface-level negative item

image 2 showing GEQ items.



Items and subscales of QEG

Figure 3 showing the 4 GEQ variables and items.

a. Making and recording the rewards obtained:

A form should already be prepared containing the team name and the players' names.

The rewards will be recorded as numbers from 1 to 9.

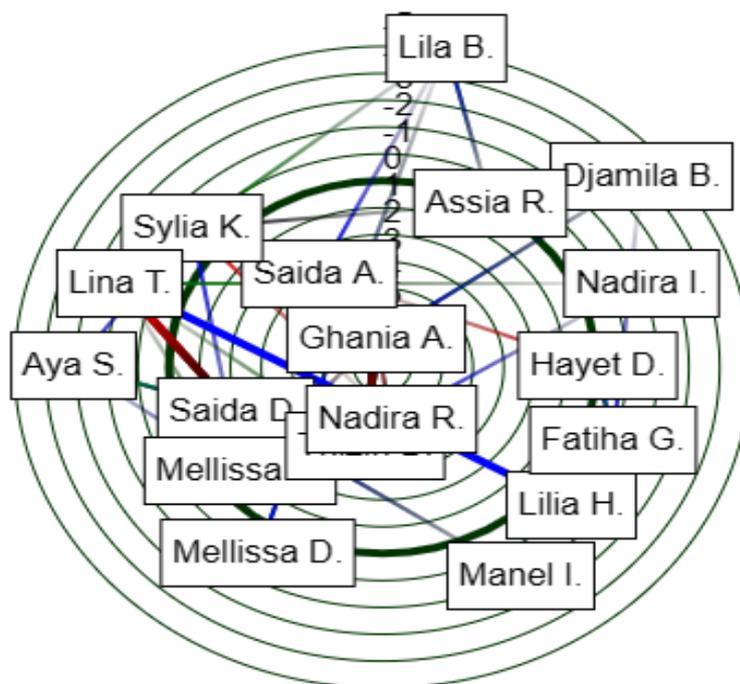
The results obtained will be divided according to the items on the 4 variables in order to calculate the cohesion index for each variable.

Chapter II

Discussion and interpretation of results

I. Résultats :

1. Team A (CFA) :



Graph 2 showing the result of the interrelations of the team A soccer (CFA).

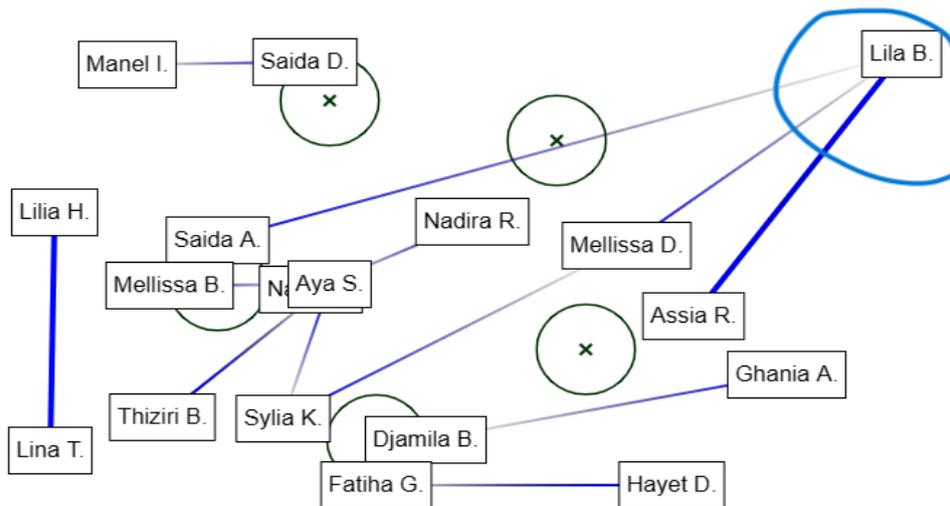
1.1. Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (sociogram) :

For a better appreciation of our results, we refer to J. Moreno's sociometry, a theory that allows us to measure interrelations within a group using the sociogram.

Following our results obtained with the A (CFA)/Football team, we find that the dynamics of interrelationships within this team can be categorized as follows:

1. The popular sociometric leader :

Lilia BENBOUJEMA



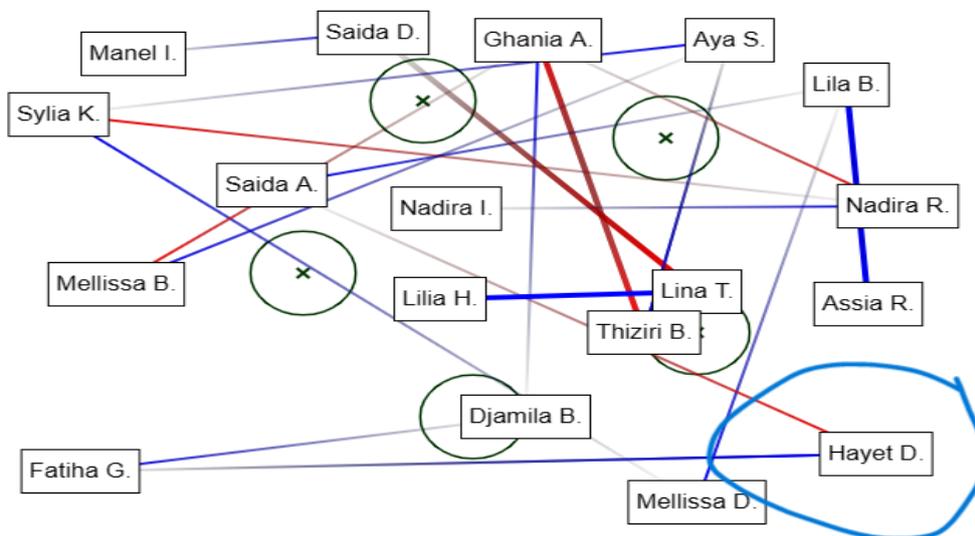
Graph 3 showing the sociometric leader for the team A (CFA).

2 The influential leader:

Asia RABHI

3 The isolated:

Hayet DJEDOU



graph 4 showing isolated players for the team A (CFA).

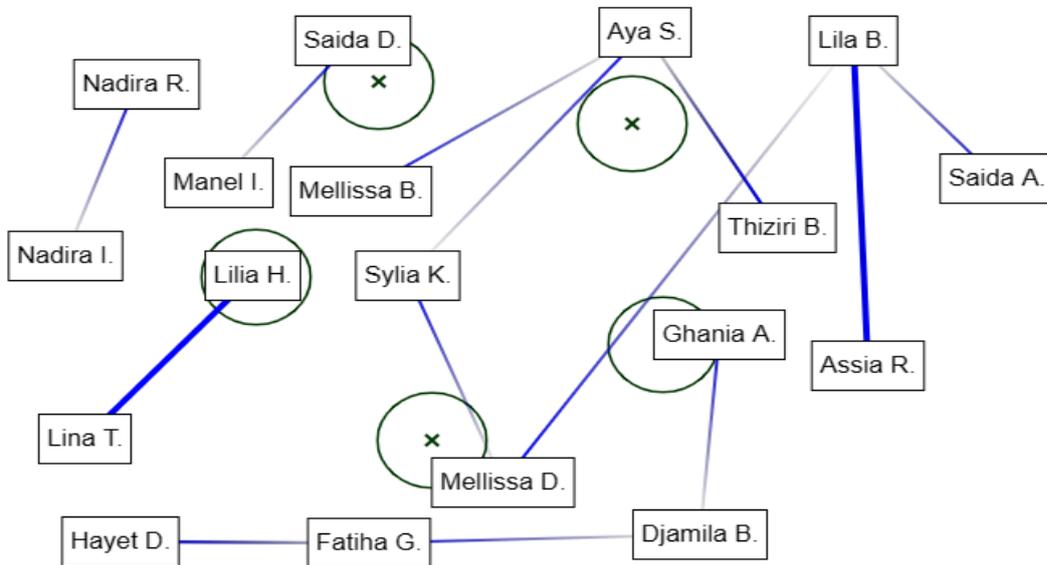
4 Those who maintain a relationship of sympathy:

(Aya SLIM, Lilia BENBOUJEMA, Thiziri BALI, Sylia KADRI, Mellissa BAAZIZ, Asia RABHI, Mellissa DJARNINE, Nadira REGGOU)

(Nadira IOUANOUGEN, Saaida DJARRAH)

(Lina TAMEGUELT, Lilia hamitouche)

(Ghania AYADI, Djamila BENAISSA)



Graph 5 showing sympathy relationships for Team A (CFA).

5 Those with antipathy relationships are:

(Thiziri BALI, Ghania AYADI)

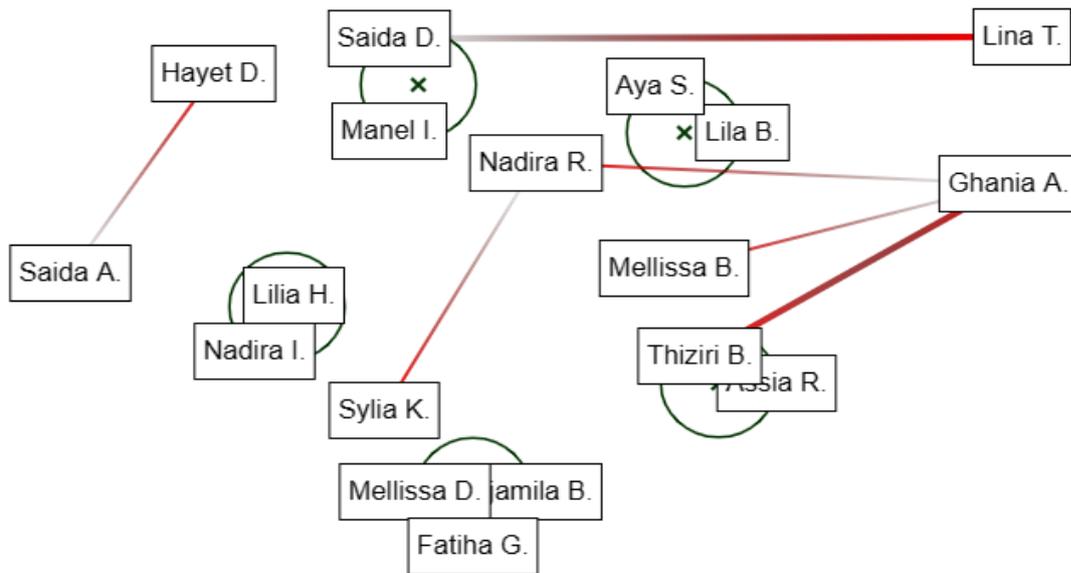
(Lina HAMITOUCHE, Saaida DJARRAH)

(Ghania AYADI, Mellissa BAAZIZ)

(Nadira REGOU, Sylia KADRI, Ghania AYADI)

(Hayat DJEDOU, Saaida AIT MAHDI)

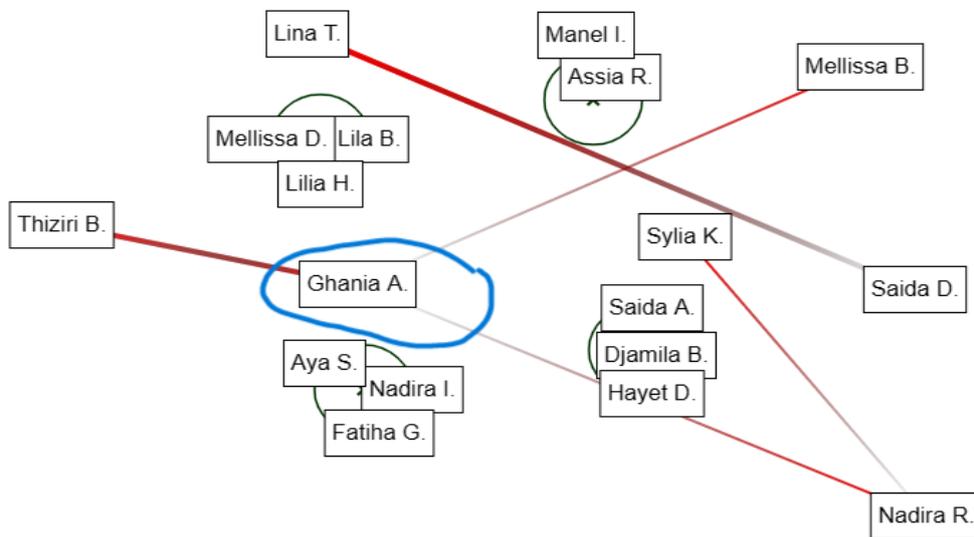
(Saaida DJARRAH, Lina TAMEGUELT)



Graph 6 showing antipathy relationships for Team A (CFA).

6. rejected :

Ghania AYADI



Graph 7 showing rejected members for Team A (CFA)

1.2. Discussion:

This categorization of relationships allows us to work efficiently on reorganization.

According to the sociometry of **J.Moreno, 1934**, the trainer must begin to master a new strategy by following the following norms:

First, place the isolates, if possible with their first choice. Never put two isolates on the same team.

Distribute individuals who have received a single positive choice. If there is a reciprocal choice, try to place the isolates with their first choice.

Give priority to those who have received the fewest choices. End with those who have the most. Those who received the most choices will end up with more choices.

Master the sociometric leader as team captain, as he was chosen by the majority of team-mates.

Team A	CFA
N=	17
interaction index	52.70
cohesion index	38.58

table 4: showing index results for the team A(CFA)

1.3 Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (interaction and cohesion indices):

The results obtained for the measurement of the 2 indices (interaction and cohesion) for this team are:

Interaction index: 52.70

Cohesion index: 38.58

The calculation formula:

interaction index	$T.C + T.R / n (n - 1)$
cohesion index	$T.C / n (n - 1)$

table 5 showing the formula for calculating indices

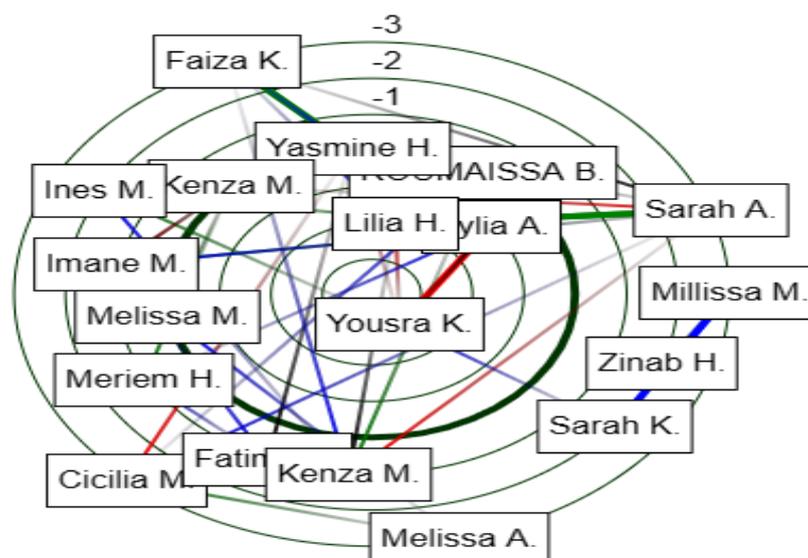
1.4. Discussion

Following the results obtained for this A team and if we compare them with the indices proposed by Carron and J. MORENO who concede that sports teams start to have a good cohesion index from 50.

We found that the cohesion index of the A/Football team is 38.58, which does not mean that this team lacks cohesion, but it does have a moderate index, which is not far from interesting.

This will require a structural reorganization to improve group cohesion.

2. Team B (OST)



graph 8 showing all interrelationships within Team B (OST)

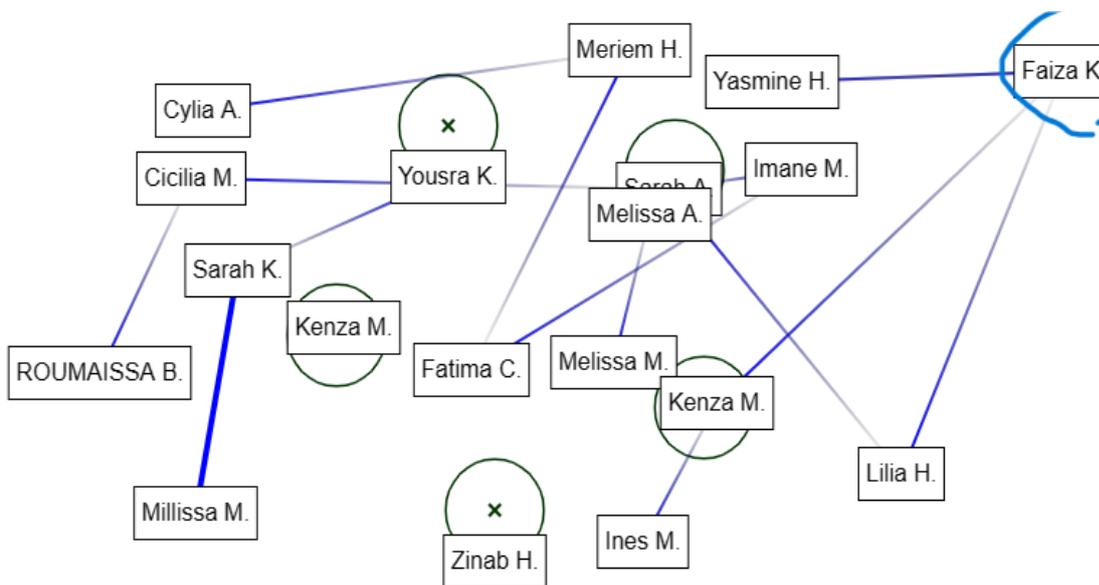
2.1.Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (sociogram) :

For a better appreciation of our results, we refer to J.Moreno's sociometry, a theory that allows us to measure interrelationships within a group using the sociogram.

Based on our results with the B (OST)/Volleyball team, we find that the dynamics of interrelationships within this team can be categorized as follows:

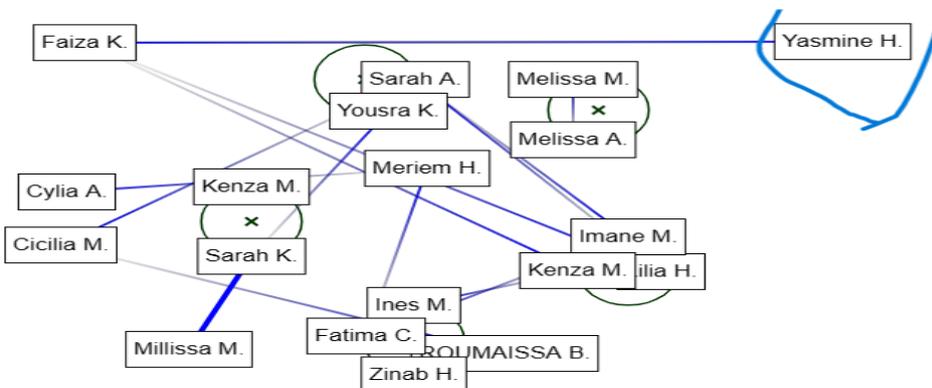
- 1. the popular sociometric leader :

Faiza KHOUFACHE



graph 9 representing the sociometric leader for Team B (OST)

- 2 The influential leader :

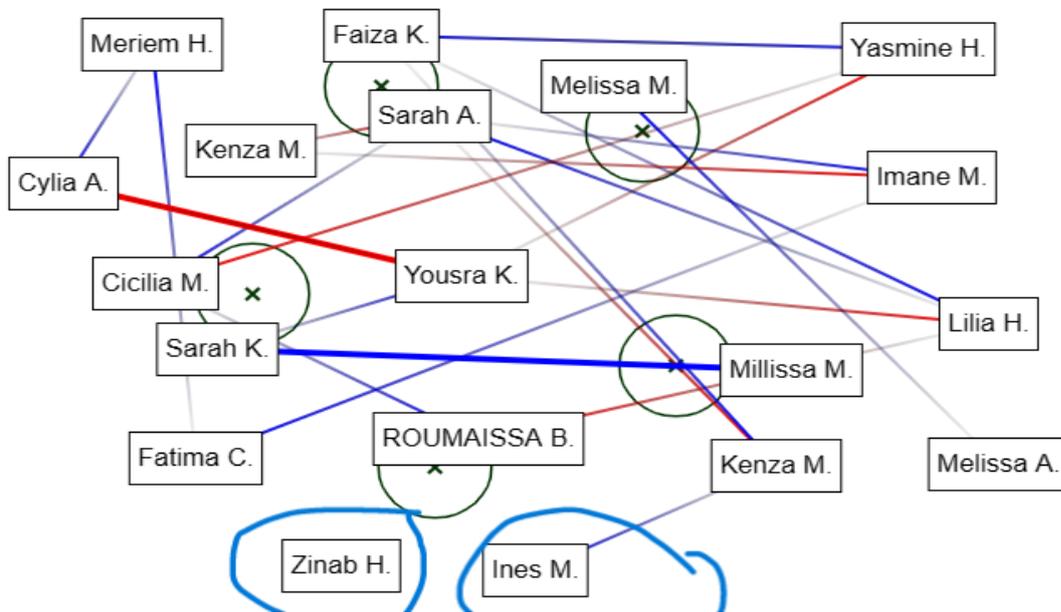


graph 10 showing the influential leader for Team B (OST)

3. isolated :

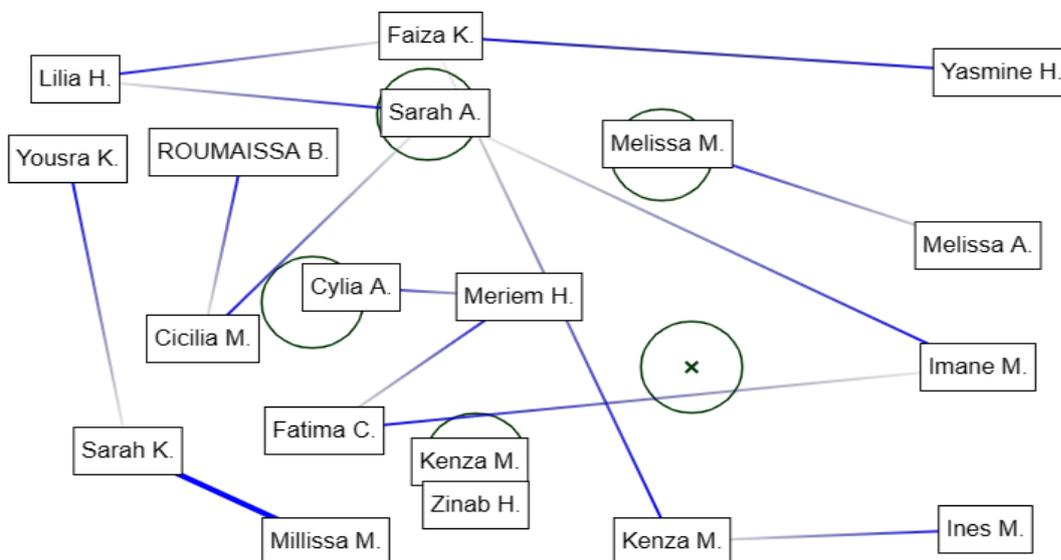
Zineb HEDDADI

Ines MARSEL



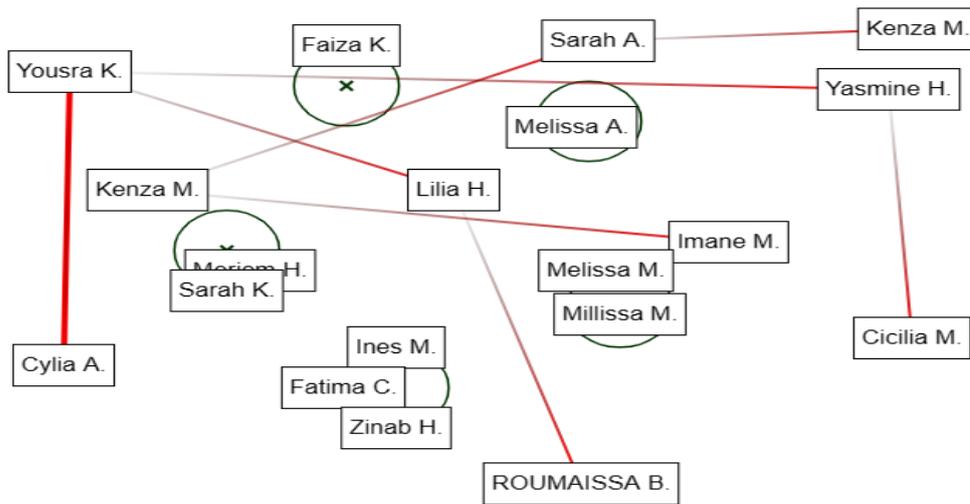
graph 11 showing team B isolates members (OST)

4. those who maintain a sympathetic relationship :



graph 12 showing sympathy relations for team B (OST).

5 . Those who have relations of antipathy are :

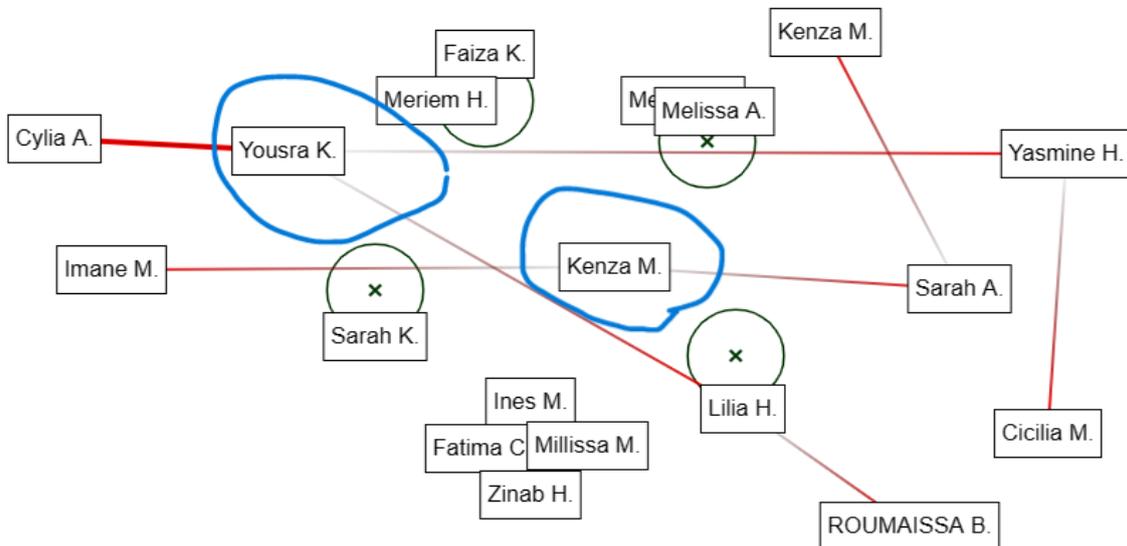


graph 13 showing unsympathetic relationships for Team B (OST)

6. rejected :

Yousra KARTOUS

Kenza MARSEL



graph 14 showing rejected members for Team B (OST).

2.2. Discussion:

This categorization of relationships enables us to carry out effective reorganization work.

According to the sociometry of J. Moreno, 1934, the trainer must begin to master a new strategy by following the following norms:

First, place the isolates, if possible with their first choice. Never put two isolates on the same team.

Distribute individuals who have received a single positive choice. If there is a reciprocal choice, try to place the isolates with their first choice.

Give priority to those who have received the fewest choices. End with those who have the most. Those who received the most choices will end up with more choices.

Master the sociometric leader as team captain, as he was chosen by the majority of team-mates.

Team B	OST
N=	18
interaction index	60.44
cohesion index	44.38

table 6: showing index results for Team B (OST).

2.3. Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (interaction and cohesion indices):

The results obtained for the measurement of the 2 indices (interaction and cohesion) for this team are :

Interaction index: 60.44

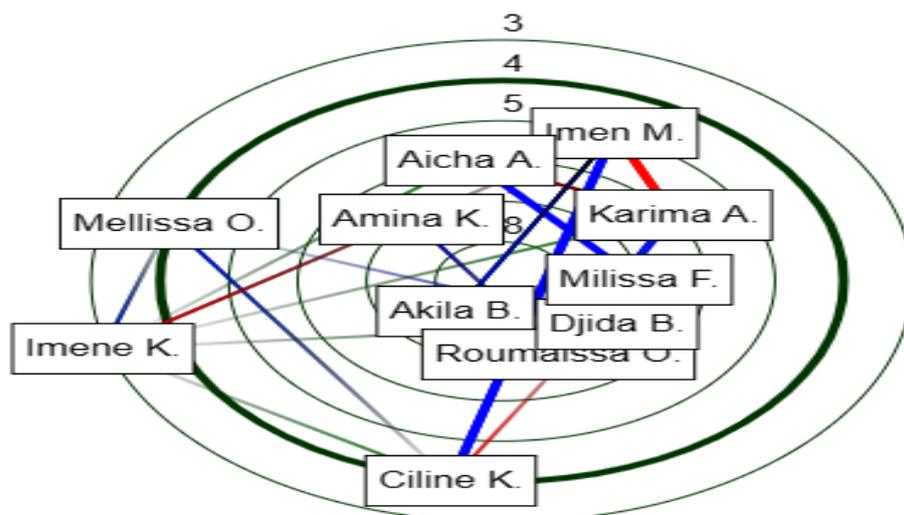
Cohesion index: 44.38

2.4. Discussion

Following on from the results obtained for this B team, and if we compare them with the indices proposed by Carron and J. MORENO, who concede that sports teams start to have a good cohesion index at 50.

We find that the cohesion index for team B/Volleyball is 44.38, which means that this team has an interesting cohesion index and is cohesive.

3. Team C (SBB) :



graph 15 showing all the interrelationships within the team C Basketball (SBB) .

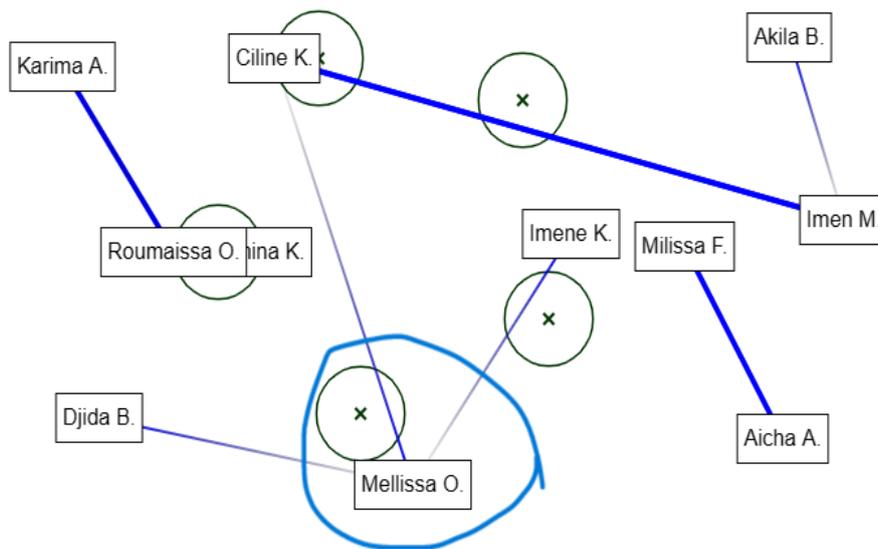
3.1.Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (sociogram) :

For a better appreciation of our results, we refer to J.Moreno's sociometry, a theory that allows us to measure interrelationships within a group using the sociogram.

Based on our results with Team C (SBB)/Basketball, we find that the dynamics of interrelationships within this team can be categorized as follows:

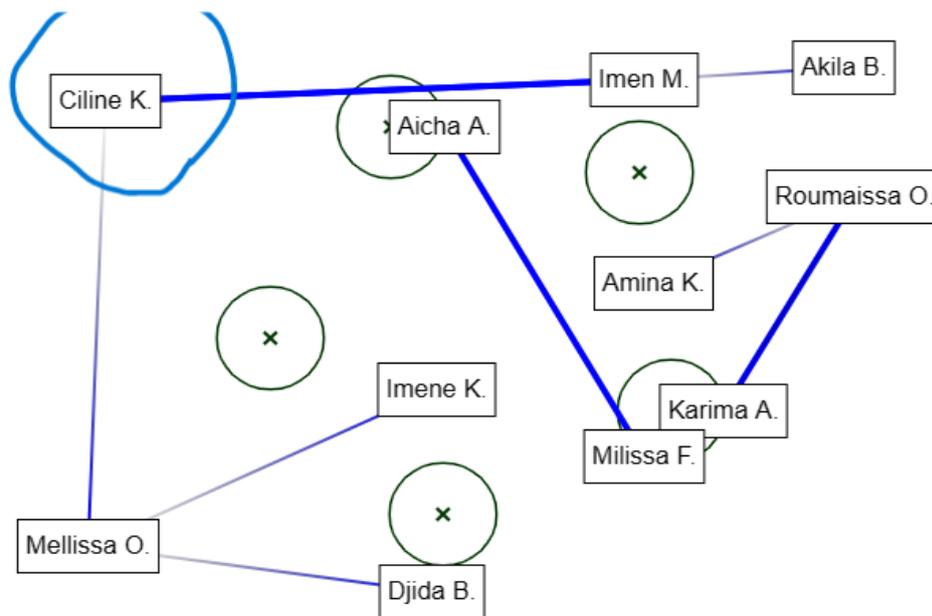
1. the popular sociometric leader :

Mellissa OUYOUGOUT



graph 16 showing the sociometric leader for Team C (SBB).

2 The influential leader :

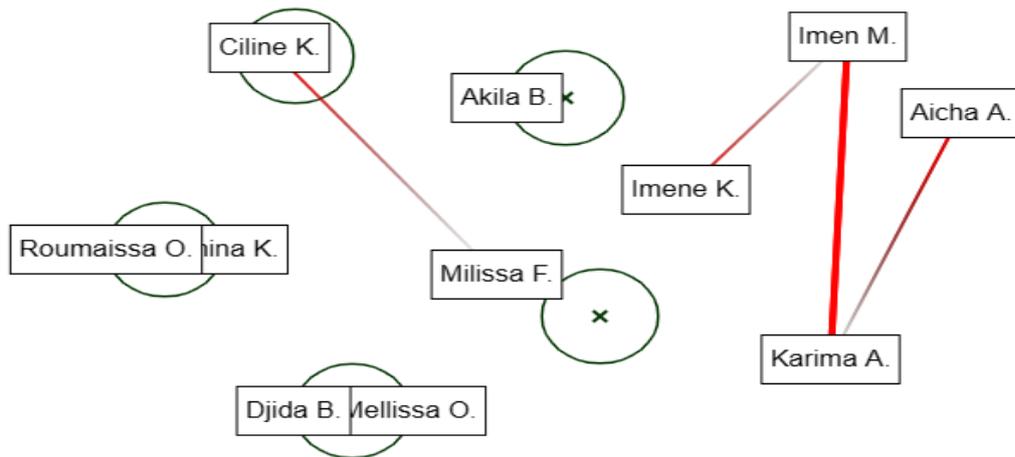


graph 17 showing the influential leader for Team C (SBB).

3 The isolated :

Amina KHELLADI

Djida BEN ABEDLHAK

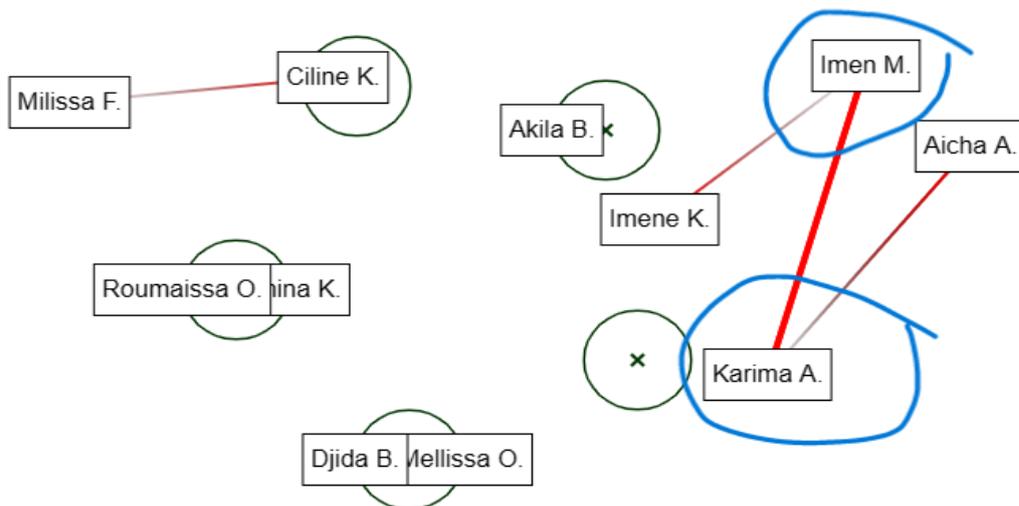


graph 20 showing antipathetic relationships for Team C (SBB).

6. Rejected:

Karima AKLI

Imen MAHMOUDI



graph 21 showing rejected items for Team C (SBB).

3.2. Discussion:

This categorization of relationships enables us to carry out effective reorganization work.

According to the sociometry of J. Moreno, 1934, the trainer must begin to master a new strategy by following the following norms:

First, place the isolates, if possible with their first choice. Never put two isolates on the same team.

Distribute individuals who have received a single positive choice. If there is a reciprocal choice, try to place the isolates with their first choice.

Give priority to those who have received the fewest choices. End with those who have the most. Those who received the most choices will end up with more choices.

Master the sociometric leader as team captain, as he was chosen by the majority of team-mates.

Team C	SBB
N=	10
Interaction index	35.10
Cohesion index	27

table 7: showing index results for Team C (SBB).

3.3. Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (interaction and cohesion indices):

The results obtained for the measurement of the 2 indices (interaction and cohesion) for this team are :

Interaction index: 35.10

Cohesion index: 27

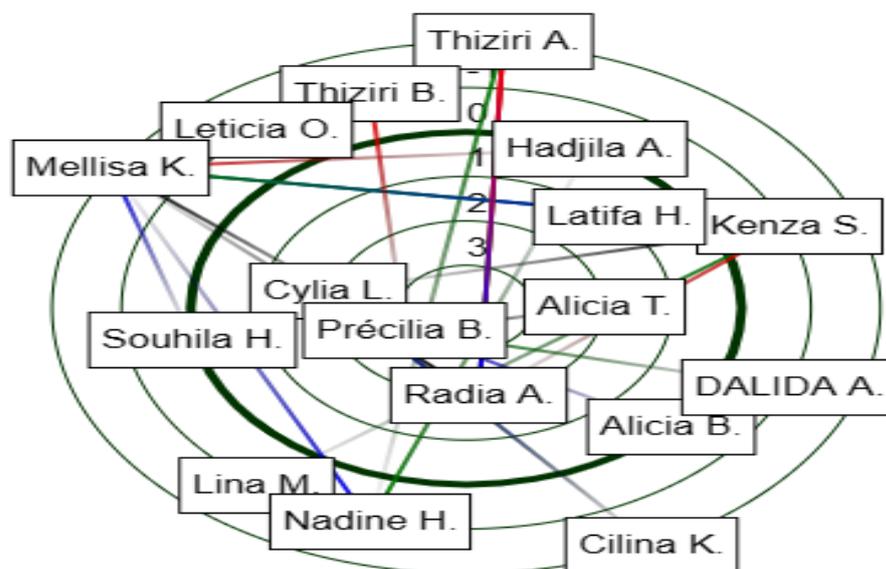
3.4. Discussion

Following on from the results obtained for this C team, and if we compare them with the indices proposed by Carron and J. MORENO, who concede that sports teams start to have a good cohesion index at 50.

We find that the cohesion index of team C/Basketball is 27, which means that this team has a very low cohesion index.

What's needed is a structural reorganization to develop group cohesion.

4. Team D (ESS) :



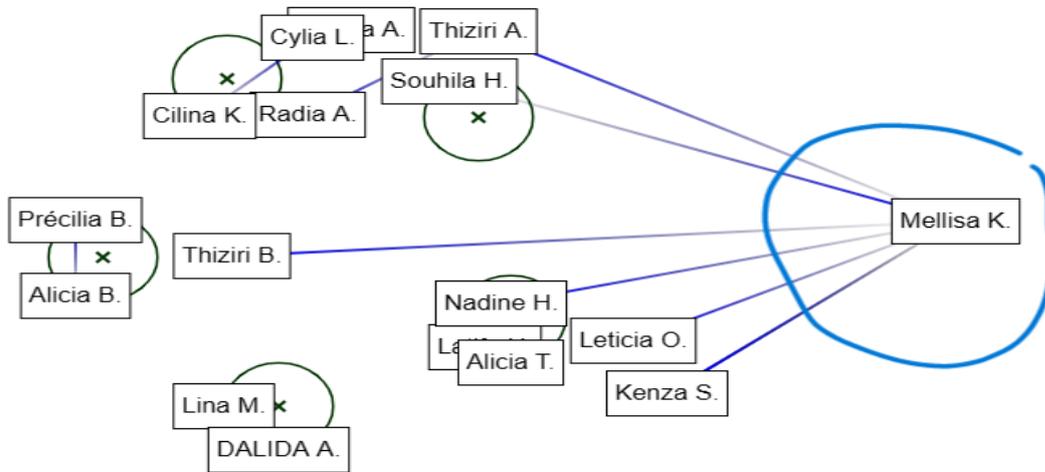
graph 22 showing all the interrelationships within Team D Handball (ESS).

4.1 Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (sociogram) :

For a better appreciation of our results, we refer to J. Moreno's sociometry, a theory that measures interrelationships within a group using the sociogram.

Based on our results with Team C (SBB)/Basketball, we find that the dynamics of interrelationships within this team can be categorized as follows:

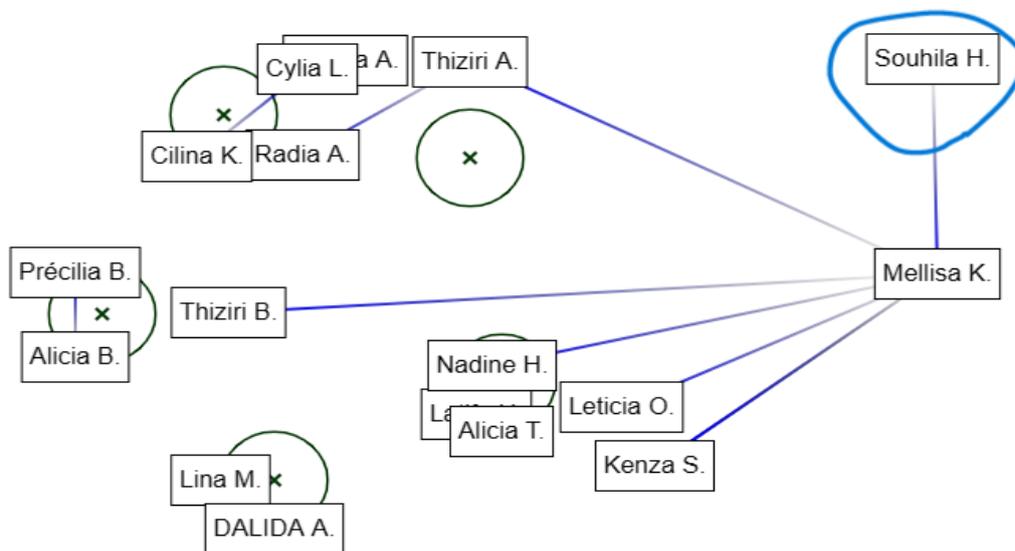
1. The popular sociometric leader:



graph 23 showing the sociometric leader for Team D (ESS).

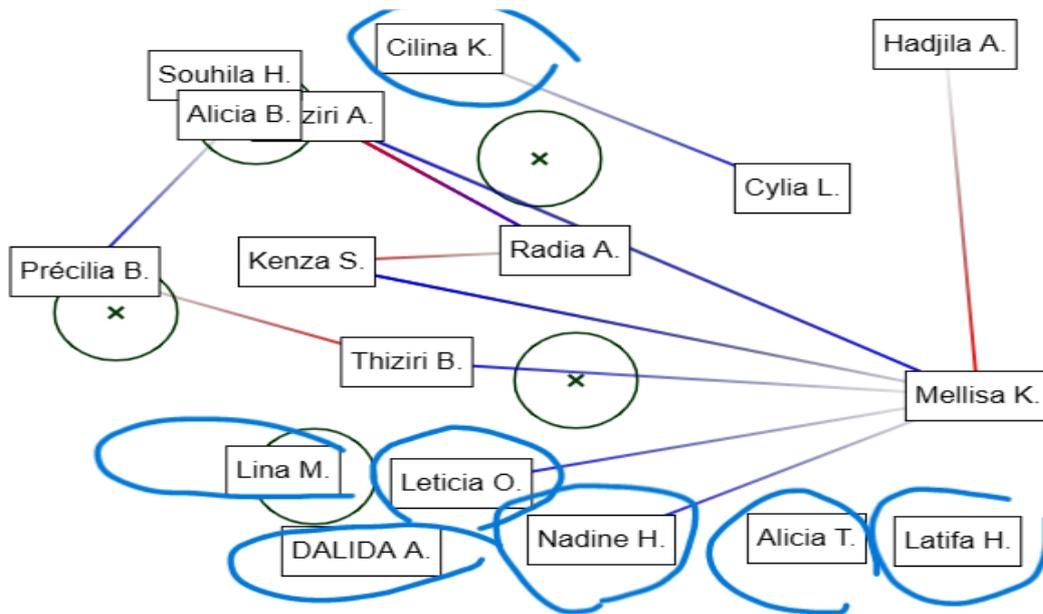
2 The influential leader :

Souhila HADJI



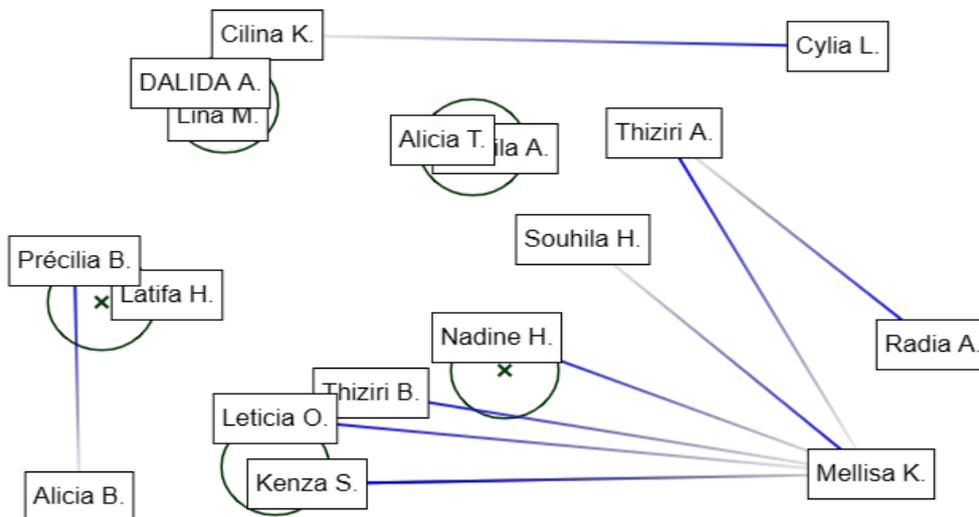
graph 24 showing the influential leader for Team D (ESS).

3 Isolated members :



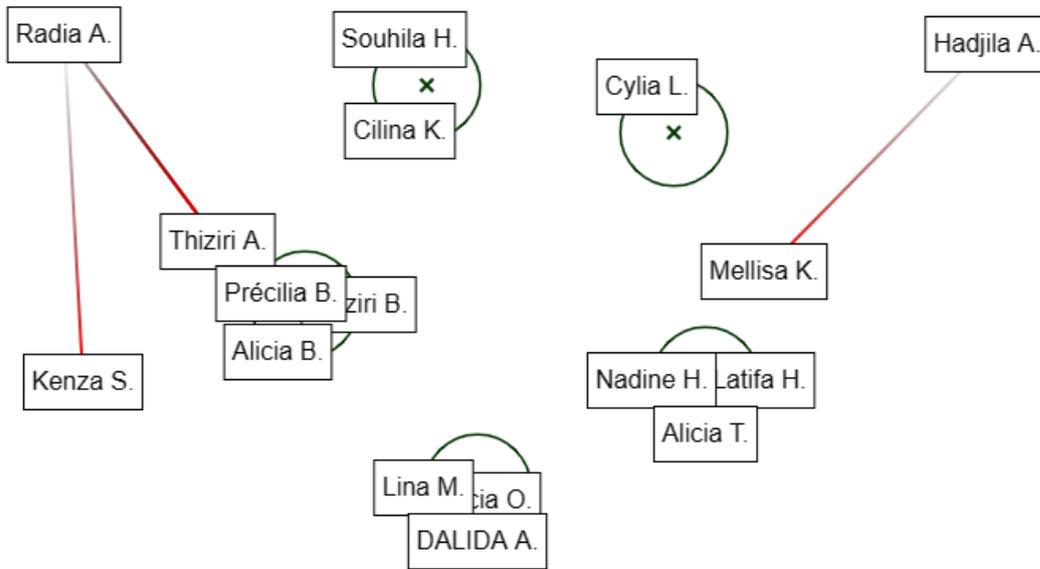
graph 25 showing the isolates for Team D (ESS).

4.those who maintain a sympathetic relationship :



graph 26 showing sympathy relations for Team D (ESS).

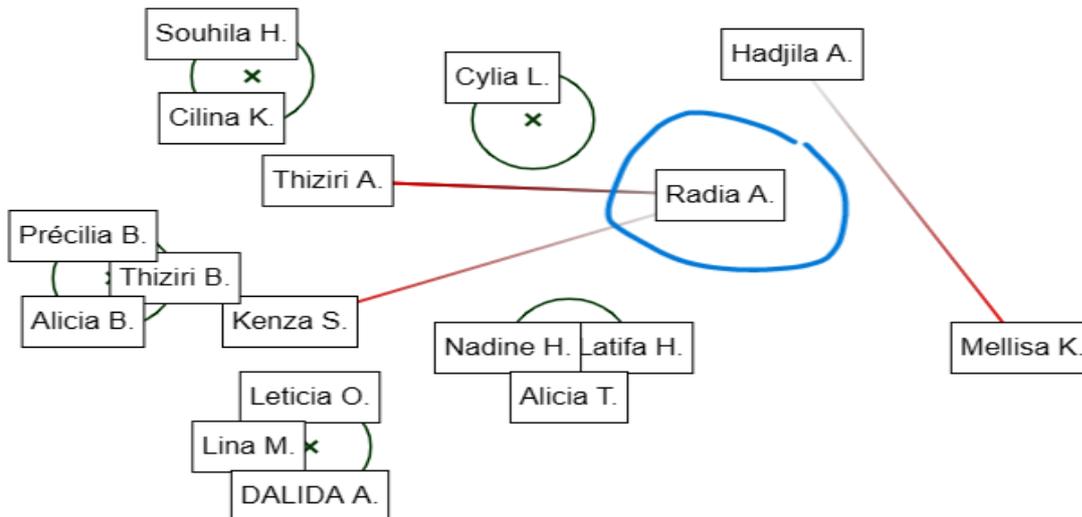
5 Those who have relations of antipathy are :



graph 27 showing antipathetic relationships for Team D (ESS).

6.rejected :

Radia AIT MENSOUR



graph 28 showing rejected items for Team D (ESS).

4.2 Discussion :

This categorization of relationships enables us to carry out effective reorganization work.

According to the sociometry of J. Moreno, 1934, the trainer must begin to master a new strategy by following the following norms:

First, place the isolates, if possible with their first choice. Never put two isolates on the same team.

Distribute individuals who have received a single positive choice. If there is a reciprocal choice, try to place the isolates with their first choice.

Give priority to those who have received the fewest choices. End with those who have the most. Those who received the most choices will end up with more choices.

Master the sociometric leader as team captain, as he was chosen by the majority of team-mates.

Team D	ESS
N=	16
Interaction index	31.80
Cohesion index	24.37

table 8: showing index results for Team D (ESS)

4.3 Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results (interaction and cohesion indices):

The results obtained for the measurement of the 2 indices (interaction and cohesion) for this team are :

Interaction index: 31.80

Cohesion index: 24.37

4.4. Discussion

Following the results obtained for this B team and if we compare them with the indices proposed by Carron and J. MORENO, who concede that sports teams start to have a good cohesion index from 50.

We find that the cohesion index of team D/Handball is 27.37, which means that this team has a very low cohesion index. The team is not cohesive, so we'll need to reorganize the team to improve cohesion.

II- GEQ results :

Names of players	age	h.y . pratical	Y. in the team	Q1	Q3	Q5	Q7	Q9	ASG	Q2	Q4	Q6	Q8	AOG	Q10	Q12	Q14	Q16	Q18	ISG	Q11	Q13	Q15	Q17	IOG
Djedou hayet	25	16	1	1	1	1	3	7		1	1	1	1		8	3	9	5	9		7	6	2	8	
Benaissa djamila	26	10	6	1	1	1	2	9		1	1	1	1		9	2	8	4	9		2	9	4	4	
kadri sylvia	22	12	12	1	1	1	1	5		1	1	1	4		8	2	7	3	9		6	9	2	3	
lilia hamitouch	20	6	4	1	1	1	1	3		1	1	1	3		7	1	6	5	8		9	8	6	7	
ait mahdi saida	27	15	13	4	1	1	1	5		1	1	2	3		9	3	8	3	9		5	8	3	2	
Aya slim	19	9	2	1	1	1	1	9		1	1	1	1		9	2	9	2	8		4	7	5	3	
Bali thiziri	18	11	10	1	1	1	2	9		1	1	1	5		9	1	9	3	9		2	9	5	4	
Baziz mellisa	19	6	6	1	1	1	1	6		1	1	3	1		9	4	9	4	9		5	9	5	7	
Ayadi ghania	19	5	2	1	1	1	1	3		2	3	1	1		9	5	6	7	7		7	6	8	8	
boujema lilia	24	13	12	1	1	1	1	9		1	1	2	1		9	3	7	4	8		2	8	1	5	
Regadi nadira	19	13	9	2	1	1	3	9		1	1	1	3		9	5	4	8	8		2	9	7	5	
ghorfati fatiha	27	16	1	2	1	1	2	9		2	4	1	6		8	5	7	3	7		1	9	4	4	
Rabhi asia	22	9	9	1	1	1	1	9		1	3	1	1		3	2	9	3	8		4	9	3	3	
Djarah saida	20	7	7	1	1	1	1	3		1	1	4	1		8	1	7	7	9		5	7	2	8	
Lina tamaguelt				1	1	1	1	2		2	1	2	2		7	2	8	5	7		3	8	4	2	
Manel izouguen				1	1	1	1	1		3	1	1	2		9	1	9	8	9		7	8	6	6	
Mellissa djarmine				1	1	1	2	2		1	1	1	2		8	1	8	3	8		6	8	3	4	
Nadira Iouanouguen				1	1	1	3	1		1	2	2	3		9	4	6	2	9		3	9	8	6	
Saida ait mahdi	28	14	10	1	1	1	2	1		1	1	1	1		8	1	9	4	8		2	8	1	3	

table 9 showing athletes' GEQ test results.

individual attraction to the group social		individual attraction of the group task	
QEG Items	Scoring	QEG Items	Scoring
1	24	2	19
3	19	4	30
5	102	6	24
7	27	8	28
9	42		
	Total= 214		Total= 101
group integration social GI-S	(GI-S)	group integration task (GI-T)	
QEG Items	Scoring	QEG Item	Scoring
11	47	10	155
13	83	12	145
15	82	14	175
17	79	16	154
		18	92
	Total= 291		Total= 721

table 10 showing index results for each cohesion variable.

II-1 . Descriptive analysis and interpretation of results

We obtained the following standard results:

Individual attraction to the group social = 214

Individual attraction of the group task = 101

Group integration to the group social = 291

Group integration of the group task = 721

These will enable us to move on to the final calculations, which are :

IAG-s	ITG-T	GIS	GIT
*42.8	*25.2	*72.7	*144.2

table 11 showing cohesion indices for each variable.

II-2 Discussion

According to the GEQ (Carron, Widmeyer, & Brawley, L 1985), each result represents the degree of cohesion for the variable.

The results obtained make it possible to measure the dynamics of cohesion for each dimension of cohesion, to be able to see the strong point and the weak point.

Each of these dimensions can be expressed in two orientations, one social (oriented towards maintaining the group) and the other operative (oriented towards achieving the group's goals and objectives).

Group integration task (GI-T) refers to a team member's individual feelings of closeness and relationships within the team.

Group social integration (GIS) refers to the same individual feelings of a team member, but for the collective perceived as a social unit.

Individual attractions to the group task (ATG-T) specify a team member's individual feelings about his or her personal participation in the task.

Individual attractions to the group social (ATG-S), which specify a team member's individual feelings about personal participation, acceptance and social integration with the group.

Conclusion

In competitive environments such as sport, performance is crucial.

In today's modern sport, psycho sociological research is essential for sports teams. It enables us to identify the factors that contribute to performance. Leadership and group cohesion are the main factors contributing to better group integration and collective productivity.

To ensure that these processes run smoothly, we need to focus on psycho sociological studies and measurement methods. Implementing a good model of athlete-leadership theory makes it possible to work more effectively on group cohesion by creating a climate based on communication.

Leadership and group cohesion create a good group dynamic within the sports team.

A good group dynamic starts with leaders who have power and positive influence over all team members. When everyone feels confident and free, individuals are able to collaborate and communicate more effectively.

The sociometric study enables us to measure and study the different relationships that develop within the team, and to detect the different forms of these relationships. Sociometric measurements must be carried out in every sports team, and the classification of relationships as sympathetic enables us to reorganize and further strengthen the bonds between members who maintain these positive relationships, and to create a breast movement based on communication and sympathy.

As we mentioned earlier, sociometry enables us to detect the different forms of bonding between group members using the sociometric test. This will enable us to detect the sociometric leader, who is the popular leader chosen by the majority of members. Establishing this person as the team leader will create trust between team members, which will contribute to better communication and task sharing.

Detecting unsympathetic relationships within a team helps to solve a very popular problem in communities: conflict. This will enable structural reorganization work to be carried out, avoiding the need for people who reject each other to work in the same workshops.

Following this study, we found that the sports group and the sports team, by their very definition, are gatherings of people with a common goal, but a sports team in reality needs to be cohesive and have good group dynamics. Its cohesion, good group dynamics and solid collective discussions that turn a sports group into a sports team.

In conclusion, collective performance in team sports is linked to the development of a sense of belonging to the group. Athlete leadership and group cohesion are key to the success of a sports team. Setting up group activities that encourage communication between individuals is essential, as it will develop a strong sense of belonging among them, which will lead to greater productivity and collective efficiency within the team.

Leadership, cohesion and group dynamics all have relative cause-and-effect relationships, which determine team behavior.

Quote

"Individual performance is not the most important thing. We win and we lose as a team".

Zinedine Zidane.

Bibliographical list

1. **Cherry, K 2022:** What Is Sports Psychology?
2. Fraser-Thomas **et al.** Psychol Sport Exerc, 2015
3. **Tachom Waffo on Mar 28, 2021:** Approche Psychosociale de la performance sportive, Tachom Waffo on Mar 28, 2021
4. **Gustave-Nicolas Fischer,2020:** Fundamental concepts of social psychology, Gustave-Nicolas Fischer, 2020
5. **Serpa, 1991:** Group cohesion, serpa.
6. **BACK, K. W. 1951:** Influence through communication. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 46, 9-23.
7. **Dr. Patrick Bacquaert :** Extract from Sport et psychologie. L'apport du psychologue aux acteurs, Marc Lévêque, les cahiers de l'INSEP, N°4-1993).
8. **EMark R. Beauchamp,APA :** Division 47 (Society for Sport, Exercise & Performance Psychology).W.Scripture,1899
9. **Gillot et Lévêque, 1989 :** Les Cahiers de l'Insep n° 4 Sport et psychologie, Gillot et Lévêque, 1989.
10. **Dr. Patrick Bacquaert :** excerpt from Sport et psychologie. L'apport du psychologue aux acteurs, Marc Lévêque, les cahiers de l'INSEP, N°4-1993.
11. **Gordon, 1954 :** quoted in Fiske, 2008, p. 12.
12. **Myers et Lamarche, 1992 :** David G. Myers, Luc Lamarche. McGraw-Hill, 1992 - Social psychology - 550 pages.
13. **Triplett, 1897:** Triplett, N. (1898). The dynamogenic factors in pacemaking and competition. The American journal of psychology, 9(4), 507-533.
14. **Moscovici, 1984:** Moscovici, S. (1984). The Phenomenon of Social Representations.
15. **Lewin, 1948:** Kurt Lewin's classic leadership studies, 1948.
16. **Kozlowski et al., 2016:** Team training and team leadership, **Kozlowski et al., 2016.**
17. **Chelladurai et Riemer, 1998 :** Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998, group performance and member satisfaction.
18. **Vella et al, 2010:** The Application of Coach Leadership Models to Coaching Practice: Current State and Future Directions, January 2010, International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching 5(3):425-434.
19. **Cotterill, 2012:** Team Psychology in Sports: Theory and Practice, August 2012
20. **Fiedler, 1967:** A theory of leadership effectiveness. by. **Fiedler, 1967, P.330.**

21. **Loughead et al., 2006:** Athlete Leadership in Sport Teams: Current Understanding and Future Directions, April 2016, *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology* 9(1):16-133.
22. **Fransen, Vanbeselaere, et al., 2014:** Athlete Leadership in Sport Teams: Current Understanding and Future Directions, April 2014, *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology* 9(1):16-133.
23. **Cotterill & Cheetham, 2017:** In book: *Essentials of exercise and sport psychology: An open access textbook* (pp.588-612).
24. **Loughead & Hardy, 2005:** Perceptions of formal and informal athlete leader effectiveness in youth sport, June 2010, *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology* 32
25. **Railo, 1986 :** *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology* 9(1):16-133
26. **Kozub & Pease, 2001; Lughead & Hardy, 2005:** Athlete Leadership in Sport Teams: Current Understanding and Future Directions.
27. **Klonsky, 1991:** Klonsky B. G. (1983) The socialization and development of leadership ability. *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 108, 97–135.
28. **Moran et Weiss, 2006:** Athlete Leadership in Sport Teams: Current Understanding and Future Directions.
29. **Holmes et al., 2010:** Dec 31, 2010, Behavioral profiles of children with ADHD and children with poor **working memory**, from **Holmes et al.** (2010)
30. **Notat, 2007:** The Legitimacy and Effectiveness of Global Environment, (Notat, 2007).
31. **Weineck 1990 :** *Manuel d'entraînement: physiologie de la performance sportive et de son développement dans l'entraînement de l'enfant et de l'adolescent*, Vigot, 1997 - 577 pages.
32. **Ensley et al., 2006; Hoch et Kozlowski, 2014:** *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies* 2019, Vol. 26(1) 32–43.
33. **Traité de psychologie sociale :** La science des interactions humaines (pp.543-566).Edition: *Ouvertures Psychologiques*. Chapter:Sport.
34. **Hoegl et Gemuenden, 2001:** Teamwork Quality and the Success of Innovative Projects: A Theoretical Concept and Empirical Evidence, August 2001, 12(4):435-449.

35. **Klarner et al., 2013:** Disentangling the Effects of Team Competences, Team Adaptability, and Client Communication on the Performance of Management Consulting Teams, June 2013, *Long Range Planning* 46(3):258–286.
36. **Vries, 1999; Hoegl et Gemuenden, 2001:** Teamwork Quality and the Success of Innovative Projects: A Theoretical Concept and Empirical Evidence, August 2001, *Organization Science* 12(4):435-449
37. **Das et Teng, 1998:** Instabilities of Strategic Alliances: An Internal Tensions Perspective, T. K. Das and Bing-Sheng Teng, *Organization Science*, Vol. 11, No. 1 (Jan. - Feb., 2000), pp. 77-101 (25 pages), Published By: INFORMS
38. **Ensley et al., 2000:** The Shared Leadership Process in Decision-Making Teams, January 2012, *the Journal of Social Psychology* 152(1):17-42
39. **Lott & Lott, 1965; Schachter et al., 1951:** Schachter, S. (1951). Deviation, rejection, and communication. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 46(2), 190–207.
40. **Back, 1951; Van Bergen & Koelebakker, 1959:** The cohesion of the sports groups: Conceptual evolutions, measurements and relationships to the performance.
41. **Cota, Evans, Dion, Kilik ET Longman, 1995:** (1995). The structure of group cohesion. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 21(6), 572–580.
42. **Anzieu et Martin, 1990 :** La dynamique des groupes restreints, Anzieu Et Martin. Edité par Presses Universitaires De France, 1973.
43. **Steiner, 1972:** Steiner, I. D. (1972). *Group Process and Productivity*. New York, NY: Academic Press.
44. **Moreno, 1960:** Moreno, J. L. (Ed.). (1960). *the sociometry reader*. Free Press
45. **Bandura :** pour revue, Bandura, 1997
46. **Zaccaro, Blair, Peterson, & Zazanis: Zaccaro, Blair, Peterson, & Zazanis,** 1995, collective efficacy, p. 309.

Annex

Table of synthesis for team A

Élèves	Avec qui aimerais-tu jouer ou travailler ?	Avec qui n'aimerais-tu pas jouer ou travailler ?	Par qui penses-tu être choisi ?	Par qui penses-tu avoir été rejeté ?	Poids relatifs
Assia RABHI	1	0	1	1	3
Aya SLIM	2	0	0	0	2
Djamila BENNAISSA	2	0	1	0	3
Fatiha GHOUL	1	0	0	0	1
	0	3	0	4	7
Hayet DJEDOU	0	0	1	0	1
Lila BENBOUDJMAA	2	0	2	0	4
Lilia HAMITOUCHE	1	0	0	0	1
Lina TAMAGUELT	1	0	3	1	5
Manel IZOUGEN	1	0	1	0	2
Mellissa DJARNINE	1	0	0	0	1
Nadira IOUANOUGUEN	1	0	1	0	2
Nadira REGOU	0	1	0	1	2
Saida AIT MEHDI	0	1	0	0	1
Saida DJERRAH	0	1	1	0	2
Sylia KADRI	1	0	0	0	1
Thiziri BALI	0	1	1	1	3

Table of synthesis for team B

Élèves	Avec qui aimerais-tu jouer ou travailler ?	Avec qui n'aimerais-tu pas jouer ou travailler ?	Par qui penses-tu être choisi ?	Par qui penses-tu avoir été rejeté ?	Poids relatifs
Cicilia MOUHCENE	1	0	1	0	2
Cylia AMEUR	0	1	0	0	1
Faiza KHOUFACHE	3	0	1	1	5
Fatima CHOUF	1	0	0	0	1
Imane MARSEL	1	0	0	0	1
Ines MARSEL	0	0	1	0	1
Kenza MERSEL	0	2	2	1	5
Kenza MESLEM	1	0	0	0	1
Lilia HAROUNI	1	1	1	2	5
Melissa AFFIR	1	0	1	0	2
Meriem HIDOUR	1	0	0	0	1
Millissa MAMERI	1	0	1	0	2
ROUMAISSA BOUICHA	0	0	1	1	2
Sarah AOUAME	2	1	2	1	6
Sarah KADI	2	0	0	0	2
Yasmine HALLAL	1	1	1	1	4
Yousra KERTOUS	0	3	1	1	5
Zinab HADDADI	0	0	1	0	1

Table of synthesis for team C

Élèves	Avec qui aimerais-tu jouer ou travailler ?	Avec qui n'aimerais-tu pas jouer ou travailler ?	Par qui penses-tu être choisi ?	Par qui penses-tu avoir été rejeté ?	Poids relatifs
Roumaïssa OUTARBAH	2	0	0	1	3
Milissa FELKAY	1	1	0	0	2
Mellissa OUYOUGOUT	2	0	1	0	3
Karima AKLI	1	2	1	0	4
Imene KHALFI	0	0	4	0	4
Imen MAHMOUDI	2	2	2	1	7
Ciline KECHA	2	0	1	0	3
Akila BOUDEKHANNA	0	0	0	1	1
Aïcha AIT MASSAOUD	1	0	1	1	3

Table of synthesis for team D

Élèves	Avec qui aimerais-tu jouer ou travailler ?	Avec qui n'aimerais-tu pas jouer ou travailler ?	Par qui penses-tu être choisi ?	Par qui penses-tu avoir été rejeté ?	Poids relatifs
Alicia BERKANI	1	0	0	0	1
Alicia TASSIFT	0	0	0	1	1
Cilina KESSOURI	1	0	1	0	2
Cylia LOUCIF	0	0	0	1	1
DALIDA AININ	0	0	1	0	1
Hadjila AINI	0	1	1	0	2
Kenza SOUAGUI	0	0	1	0	1
Leticia OUCHETLA	0	0	1	0	1
Lina MEKEDEM	0	0	1	0	1
Mellisa KOBBI	5	0	0	1	6
Nadine HAMDOUNI	0	0	1	0	1
Précilia BOULHOUTH	0	1	0	1	2
Radia AIT MENSOUR	0	2	0	0	2
Souhila HADJI	1	0	0	0	1
Thiziri AGAOUA	1	0	1	0	2
Thiziri BENZAOUZ	0	0	1	0	1

Result of GEQ Test

Names of players	age	h.y . pratical	Y. in the team	Q1	Q3	Q5	Q7	Q9	ASG	Q2	Q4	Q6	Q8	AOG	Q10	Q12	Q14	Q16	Q18	ISG	Q11	Q13	Q15	Q17	IOG
Djedou hayet	25	16	1	1	1	1	3	7		1	1	1	1		8	3	9	5	9		7	6	2	8	
Benaissa djamila	26	10	6	1	1	1	2	9		1	1	1	1		9	2	8	4	9		2	9	4	4	
kadri sylvia	22	12	12	1	1	1	1	5		1	1	1	4		8	2	7	3	9		6	9	2	3	
lilia hamitouch	20	6	4	1	1	1	1	3		1	1	1	3		7	1	6	5	8		9	8	6	7	
ait mahdi saida	27	15	13	4	1	1	1	5		1	1	2	3		9	3	8	3	9		5	8	3	2	
Aya slim	19	9	2	1	1	1	1	9		1	1	1	1		9	2	9	2	8		4	7	5	3	
Bali thiziri	18	11	10	1	1	1	2	9		1	1	1	5		9	1	9	3	9		2	9	5	4	
Baziz mellisa	19	6	6	1	1	1	1	6		1	1	3	1		9	4	9	4	9		5	9	5	7	
Ayadi ghania	19	5	2	1	1	1	1	3		2	3	1	1		9	5	6	7	7		7	6	8	8	
boujema lilia	24	13	12	1	1	1	1	9		1	1	2	1		9	3	7	4	8		2	8	1	5	
Regadi nadira	19	13	9	2	1	1	3	9		1	1	1	3		9	5	4	8	8		2	9	7	5	
ghorfati fatiha	27	16	1	2	1	1	2	9		2	4	1	6		8	5	7	3	7		1	9	4	4	
Rabhi asia	22	9	9	1	1	1	1	9		1	3	1	1		3	2	9	3	8		4	9	3	3	
Djarah saida	20	7	7	1	1	1	1	3		1	1	4	1		8	1	7	7	9		5	7	2	8	
Lina tamaguelt				1	1	1	1	2		2	1	2	2		7	2	8	5	7		3	8	4	2	
Manel izouguen				1	1	1	1	1		3	1	1	2		9	1	9	8	9		7	8	6	6	
Mellissa djarnine				1	1	1	2	2		1	1	1	2		8	1	8	3	8		6	8	3	4	
Nadira Iouanouguen				1	1	1	3	1		1	2	2	3		9	4	6	2	9		3	9	8	6	
Saida ait mahdi	28	14	10	1	1	1	2	1		1	1	1	1		8	1	9	4	8		2	8	1	3	

Abstract

In team sports, a group of players strives for performance at all costs. The concept of performance is not limited to winning. It encompasses both positive results and the achievement of set objectives. A team may, for example, set itself the goal of staying in the same division, and this objective, if achieved, constitutes a performance.

When we look at the notion of performance in team sports through the lens of social psychology, it's clear that group dynamics and individual behaviors, collective tasks and discord... are all important in achieving the goals set by these teams. Social psychology in sport offers readers a global perspective, a broad knowledge base and the latest thinking on topics such as social relations between members, communication, leadership of coaches and team captains, group cohesion, motivational climate, audience effects and morality.

Our study focuses on the collective climate and behaviors of individuals who build a social group working towards the same goal, namely performance, and on understanding the abstract movements that exist under the actual image of each group (conflicts, sub-groups...) and on their development according to defined sociometry norms; inter-attraction and cohesion, repulsion between individuals following socio-dynamic laws.

Key words: performance, social psychology, leadership, group cohesion, sociometry.

Résumé

Un collectif de joueurs dans les sports d'équipe vise à tout prix la recherche de la performance. Le concept de performance ne se limite pas au fait de gagner. Il englobe à la fois les résultats positifs mais aussi l'atteinte d'objectifs fixés. Une équipe peut par exemple se fixer comme objectif de se maintenir dans la même division, et cet objectif, s'il est atteint, constitue une performance.

Lorsque on a tendance à examiner la notion de la performance dans les sports collectifs on appuyant sur la psychologie social on voit clairement que la dynamique de groupe et les comportements individuels, les taches et les discisions collectives... sont importantes pour l'atteint des objectifs fixer par ces équipes. La psychologie sociale dans le sport offre aux lecteurs une perspective globale, une large base de connaissances et les dernières réflexions sur des sujets tels que les relations sociales entre les membres, la

communication, le leadership des entraîneurs et des capitaines d'équipes, la cohésion de group, le climat motivationnel, les effets d'audience et la moralité.

Notre étude s'intéresse au climat collectif et aux comportements des individus qui construisent un groupe sociale qui travail sous un même objectif qui est la performance, et sur la compréhension des mouvements abstraits exister sous l'image réelle de Chaque groupe telle que (les conflits, les sous-groupes...) et sur leur développement selon des normes sociogénétiques définies ; l'interattraction et la cohésion, la répulsion entre les individus on suivant des lois socio dynamiques.

Mots clés : la performance, la psychologie sociale, le leadership, la cohésion de group, la sociométrie.