

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COACHES' LEADERSHIP  
STYLES TO PERFORMANCE OUTCOME AND PLAYER'S  
SATISFACTION: THE CASE OF SELECTED WOMEN'S PREMIER  
LEAGUE CLUBS**

**BY**

**YEMANE HAILEMARIAM**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF  
GRADUATE STUDIES OF ADDIS ABABA  
UNIVERSITY IN PARTIAL FULLFILMENT FOR THE  
REQUIREMENT OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF  
SCIENCE IN SPORT**

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## **ACRONYMS AND ABRIVATIONS**

<b>LBDQ</b>	Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire DFB
<b>LSS</b>	Leadership scale Sport
<b>CEB</b>	Coach Behavior Questionnaire
<b>CEO</b>	The chief executive officer
<b>CET</b>	Coach effective Training
<b>PMCSQ</b>	Perceived Motivational C LIMATE in Sport Questionnaire

## ***Abstract***

*This study of leadership, performance outcomes and players satisfaction in the level of women soccer programs focused on four women soccer clubs (Dedebit, Ethiopia commercial bank, St.Gorge, St.mary university) which centre in Addis Ababa city Administrative. The purpose of this study was to examine what role with relationship of leadership style to performance outcomes and players satisfaction in Ethiopian women soccer programs. It is important to find out the characteristics of effective leadership styles with in the soccer clubs structure for developing a successful team . In their study, they found players who perceived their coaches as being more compatible, evaluated the coaches' communication ability and player-support levels more favorably. Conversely, if athletes disagreed with the coaches goals, personality, and/or beliefs, some of the psychological needs of the players were not met. . In this study both questionnaire and descriptive survey method was employed. Questionnaire was dominantly used as data collection instrument; unstructured interview and observation also used in this process. Data collected through questionnaire were analyzed by using frequency counts and percentages; where as the data collected through interview and observation were analyzed through descriptive statement.*

**Key words:** leadership, leadership style, satisfaction, performance outcomes,.

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

This chapter represents the basic aspects that could give essential information on the general knowledge of the study. It describes the background of the study, gives some highlights pertaining to what the problem is about identifies the significance and limitation of the study ,and provides operational definitions as used in the research documents.

### 1.1 Back ground of the Study

Now a day many people participate give attention and appreciation for sport science. Sport science involves the application of scientific principles to help players and coaches improve the individual's or teams' performance. The main area of sport science support that can be used to improve performance is coach leadership styles.

Leadership is a topic of continuing popular debatable. For many decades, the study of leadership has been critically important to understand the performance and effectiveness of organization. The study of leadership continues to increase in importance as a determinant of effective functioning of the organization(kent & chelladurai 2001). Investigation of leadership behavior and the effects of leadership in athletic is needed to understand the performance of sport team as an organization. Continuous investigation on coaching leadership can facilitate the improvement of coaching performance and evaluation of effectiveness and satisfaction. Because effective coaching behavior has been shown to be an important determinant of team success. Many qualities are possessed by successful coaches. Every coaches is not born with them, they must be developed. It is generally accepted that the effect of coach on a team performance are important. Since coaches are leaders for skill and personal development of athletes and the leaders for pursuing athletic objectives. Coaching leadership received increasing attention during the past twenty years. Leadership style is considered by many coaches to be an important factor in team success. Most coaches use different situation. Some styles are more

suitable in certain situation than others. For this reason, it is beneficial for coach to know which leadership behavior will facilitate performance.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Although leadership has been of great value and significance particularly in soccer and sports in general, very little, leadership style research in soccer settings has been done or rather attempted in Ethiopia. To my knowledge, no research work has been done in relation to leadership approach styles on Ethiopian women's premier league soccer coaches. There is also lack of information in relation to leadership styles against performance measures such as win or loss record and statistics. Again unfortunately, there is no study to examine the relationship of leaders' behavior, athletes performance outcome, satisfaction or otherwise. Thus, we can conclude the leadership style in relation to women's' soccer has been very much neglected. These facts invited or let us say inspired the researcher to conduct the major leadership behavior styles and the challenges that affect the performance of Ethiopian women's premier league soccer players. Based on the current condition and performance of Ethiopian women's premier league players, the researcher might bound to raise suggestions and try to answer whether the following leadership styles and variables are the major challenges on the performance of players.

- Motivate players to perform better and practice diligently.
- Capitalize on the ability to resolve differences amongst players.
- Show a great enthusiasm towards satisfaction of players and the program.
- Coaches' commitment and motivation during training and competition time.
- Building constructive relationship amongst players and coaches and players must be paid due attention .
- Scientific leadership styles must come into effect.

## **1.3 Research Question**

1. What types of leadership styles of soccer have a great effect on performance outcome?
2. What are leadership strategies of athletic coaching?
3. What is the relationship between coaching styles and leadership styles?

4. What is the impact of coach leadership on female development through soccer?

## **1.4 Objective of the Study**

### **1.4.1 General Objective**

The general objective of this study is to investigate the relationship of leadership style or approach with performance outcome and players satisfaction of top soccer coaches in connection to women's premier league in a play season.

### **1.4.2 Specific Objective**

- Identify the effect of leadership styles on performance outcome.
- provide coaches with better awareness of the effect of their leadership styles.
- provide a healthy competitive atmosphere, recognition of respect towards others, fair play and humbleness at times of defeat and victory.
- Forward scientific and possible suggestions to improve the current situation.

## **1.5 Significance of the Study**

Soccer is a team game. As a team game, results were very much influenced by the performance of the players as a team. Hence, this study might eventually help coaches to better understand their team. The main purpose of this study might help coaches to explore potential differences in leadership behavior styles. They might also realize performance outcomes which to a given time were virtually unknown. In addition of investigation the relationship of preferred and perceived leadership, their congruence and satisfaction might also be realized. So the findings of this study might be quite helpful in developing coaches leadership behavior.

In general, the findings of this study might help

- It might help for the coaches decision maker to take action and give great focus on players.
- It might help to the coaches to improve their leadership styles capability.
- Identify the major leadership styles challenges on the player performance.
- Give emphasis for friendship and the value of being part of a team.
- Give information about the relevance of coaches leadership styles and player satisfaction and performance outcomes.

## **1.6 Scope of the Study**

### **1.6.1 Delimitation of the Study**

At present the Ethiopian premier league consists of seventeen(17) participant clubs all over the country. From these seventeen clubs eight of them were located in Addis Ababa administrative city. For the sake of assessing and evaluating the overall program, it seems mandatory and invaluable to make the study at a national level. However, because of the resource and financial constraints the researcher has obliged to undertake the study only some selected women's of Addis Ababa administrative city premier league participant clubs. Though the researcher has intended and planned to work with those four women's premier league participant clubs. In relation to the researcher interest competence, financial power, and time constraints the study had been delimited only to the issue of the relevancy of leadership styles and performance outcomes and players satisfaction.

### **1.7 Limitation of the Study**

The availability of reliable data for any research is an important input for success and achievement of the final outcome of the research work. Any study undertaken for the first time depends to a large extent on previous knowledge, the availability of up-to-date and pertinent research materials, journal articles and other essential devices. The availability of information dealing with these things would help to facilitate and strengthen the study under consideration .It should be noted that it is common to encountered a problem related to data not being easily available and at times even if the data are available they may not be reliable because the instruments used may not themselves be absolutely accurate. In addition, data may not be obtained or properly kept as much as one expects to have them for research purposes. In other words, there usually constraints which may influence in one way or another any undertaking in a research study dealing with prediction. Inadequacy of available relevant research materials is one of the limitations encountered in this study. In addition, the scarcity of sufficient books and literature in the area of study was the major short coming that the researcher encountered during the execution of the study.

## **1.8 Organization of the Study**

This thesis has five chapters. The first chapter deals with background of the study, statement of the problem, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, limitation of the study, and definition of some key terms and. Chapter two deals with review of related literature, which consists of concepts of leadership, theory of leadership, leadership styles, leadership strategies, approach to leadership, leadership scale, football coaching style, theory of play, athletic coaching, athlete satisfaction model, coaching behavior, coach-athlete relationship, teammate relationship . Chapter three comprises methods and procedures of the study. While chapter four deals with presentation, analysis and conclusion of findings. Eventually, chapter five provides summery of the findings, conclusions reached on and recommendation made on the bases of the conclusions from the data analyzed.

## **1.9 Definition of Basic Terms**

- Leadership: the state or position of being a leader
- satisfaction: meet a demands, desire or need
- performance: carry out or complete an action
- Outcome: the result or effect of an action or event
- Congruence: in agreement or harmony
- Behavior: a way of behaving
- Athlete: a person who is good at sport
- Style: a way of doing something
- Received: experience or meet with
- Perceived: become aware of through senses
-

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITRATURE**

This chapter discusses about concepts of leadership, leadership theories, leadership styles, leadership strategies, approaches to leadership, leadership scale, football coaching style, theory of play, athletic coaches, athlete satisfaction model, coaching behavior, coach-athlete relationship, and teammates relationship.

#### **2.1 Concept of Leadership**

Barrow (1977) defined leadership as “the behavioral process of influencing individuals and groups towards set goals” (p.232). This definition is important because it places emphasis on the vision of a leader (i.e. goals, objectives) while also highlighting the necessary interaction between the leader and group members. The act of leadership attempts to influence and convert others into ‘followers’ (Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1961) and may be achieved through a variety of mechanisms such as coercion, persuasion and manipulation. Leadership requires an understanding or respect for the power dynamic between the influencer and the follower. The relationship recognizes that every act between the two parties is a ‘political act’ with potential for coercion (Miller, 1985).

Researchers have suggested that the interpersonal dynamics at play between player and coach are complex (Bloom, Schinke, & Salmela, 1998; Martens, 1990) and this complexity is also likely to extend to player and manager relations. Managers unable to communicate effectively with their players may inadvertently exacerbate problems due to a lack of understanding from their perspective. Perceptions and interpretation of information conveyed by the manager may have its origins in the formative stage of an individual’s development (Seligman, 1991). To improve the intellectual exchange between player and manager it may be necessary to integrate specialist sports psychology consultants into the team to facilitate reflection from both parties.

To understand leadership it is important to transcend the superficial and retrospective lay-perspective which tends to define success in terms of winning. For some football clubs with limited resources, success might be defined in terms of maintaining their status (i.e. avoiding relegation to a lower division). According to Weinberg and Gould (2003), leaders typically have two functions: (i) to ensure the demands of the organization (club) are satisfied by the group effectively meeting its targets and (ii) to ensure the needs of group members are satisfied. Clearly, those individuals who are responsible for appointing leaders / managers need to ensure that the visions and targets of both the club and potential leader are compatible and that the qualities of the leader and group members (players) are not incongruent.

### **2.1.1 Early Leadership Research**

The early research into leadership effectiveness was conducted outside of sports settings (usually business, military or education) and tended to use one of two approaches (Horn, 2002). The trait approach assumed effective leadership was founded on innate personality dispositions rather than a function of learning and explicitly supposed that great leaders were born and not made. In contrast, the behavioral approach posited effective leadership to be a function of a leader's dominant behaviors. The assumption was that an individual could learn to be an effective leader by adopting behaviors that other successful leaders used (i.e. leaders were made and not born).

Both the trait and behavioral approaches to studying leadership rested upon the premise that a set of universal traits or behaviors could be identified that would reliably discriminate between successful and unsuccessful leaders. Eventually such research began to permeate sports. For example, Penman, Hastad, and Cords (1974) tested the degree of correlation between coaching success (male, interscholastic head football and basketball coaches) and authoritarianism. Penman et al. found that more successful coaches, in comparison to less successful coaches, exhibited more authoritarianism. Research that followed took similar approaches to investigate the relationship between effective leadership and traits or behaviors such as decision-making style and creativity (Hendry, 1969; Lenk, 1977; Pratt & Eitzen, 1989). Some theorists (Ogilvie & Tutko,

1966, 1970) even forwarded coaching profiles that were supposed to be characteristic of successful coaches. Although Ogilvie and Tutko considered traits such as authoritarianism, tough-mindedness, independent thinking, emotional maturity and realism as important characteristics, it is apparent that these theorists produced no evidence to support their profile (Weinberg & Gould, 2003).

In hindsight, both the trait and behavioral approaches were over-simplified positions and it was too optimistic to expect a single set of traits or behaviors to be able to discriminate between successful and unsuccessful leaders. While these approaches failed in their main objectives (no single set of traits or behaviors have been consistently found to characterize effective leaders), the research that tested these conceptual models undoubtedly advanced the knowledge base and led to more complex theoretical models and research designs.

Two of the main problems with the trait approach to studying leadership is that traits are not necessarily easy to measure (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano & Dennison, 2003), and that over time, an almost limitless list of positive adjectives have been forwarded as important leadership traits. However, Stogdill (1974) summarized the contribution of trait approaches to the study of leadership (see table 2) by listing those traits and skills that have been found more frequently in related research. These traits and skills are not specific to sport and should not be considered as essential pre-requisites, but rather as potentially useful leadership characteristics. It is important to note that the absence of such traits does not necessarily preclude an individual from being a successful leader.

Behavioral research outside of sport has managed to categorize what leaders do, into two areas; *consideration* and *initiating structure* (see Weinberg & Gould, 2003). Consideration reflects the relationships between the leader and followers to involve factors such as friendship, mutual trust, warmth, building rapport and communication. Initiating structure is based upon the establishment of rules, regulations and operating systems that are designed to move a group towards pre-established goals. In non-sport settings it appears that successful leaders score highly in both consideration and initiating structure.

Sport specific research has examined the behaviors of successful coaches and reported moderate levels of consistency. For example, both Tharp and Gallimore (1976) and more recently Bloom, Crumpton, and Anderson (1999) used case studies to examine the behaviors of elite basketball coaches. Findings revealed that these coaches were engaged in giving instructions (what to do and how to do it – sometimes using short modeled demonstrations) and encouraging effort and intensity. A qualitative study that employed in-depth interviews with 17 elite gymnastic coaches (Cote, Salmela, Trudel, Baria, & Russell, 1995) also found an emphasis on supportive, technical and corrective feedback. Ultimately, researchers such as Smith, Smoll and Curtis (1979) showed that leadership behaviors could be learned by using a coaching workshop to increase coaches' positive behaviors and decrease their negative behaviors when coaching players. These findings showed a direct relationship between coaching behaviors and players' evaluative reactions, however, the study did not assess performance variables such as win / loss records, and was not related to elite performers.

## **2.2 Leadership Theories**

The word “leadership” is a sophisticated, modern concept. In earlier times, words meaning “head of state”, “military commander”, “princes”, “proconsul”, chief” or “king” were common in most societies. These words differentiated the leader from other members of society. Although the Oxford English Dictionary noted the appearance of the word “leader” in the English language as early as the year 1300, the word “leadership” did not appear until the first half of nineteenth century in writings about political influence and control of British Parliament and the word did not appear in the most other modern languages until recent times (Bass, 1990). Today, there are many different definitions of leadership but there still appears to be no generally accepted definition of leadership. Burns (1978) stated that leadership is one of the least understood phenomena on earth. However, in order to make clear understanding of leadership phenomena, social scientists and behavioral psychologists have studied leadership for several decades and developed leadership theories. Leadership theories can be classified in three approaches. The first approach focused on the traits of great leaders. It was believed that successful leaders have certain personality that make them to be successful leaders in every situations and

great leaders were born not made. The second approach focused on behaviors of effective leaders. Behaviorists argued that anyone could be great leader by learning behaviors of other effective leaders. Because of the weakness and fallacy of trait and behavioral approaches, leadership researchers focused on situational factors that are important to leadership success. Whereas trait and behavioral approaches, situational approach (the third approach) assumes that there is not one best type of leader but that leadership effectiveness depends on interaction between the leader and situation.

### **2.2.1. Trait Theories**

In the 1920's and 1930's, leadership research focused on trying to identify the traits that differentiated leaders from non-leaders. These early leadership theories focused on "what" an effective leader is, not on 'how' to effectively lead.

The trait approach suggested that physical, intellectual and personality traits are inherent in leaders. Because leadership traits thought to be stable to be successful leader, leaders who were successful in one situation were expected to be successful in every situation. Sets of common traits and characteristics, such as intelligence, assertiveness, independence, self-confidence, initiative, and self-assurance, to great leaders were identified to assist in selecting the right people to become leaders.

Attempts were also made in sport to identify successful coaches according to the trait view. In their study, Ogilvie and Tutko (1966) profiled typical coach as someone who is authoritarian, independent in their thinking, and realistic in their perspective and emotionally mature. This approach had a great deal of support from social scientists prior to and during World War II, but lost favor around the end of World War II, when Stogdill (1948) published his review of 124 trait- related studies of leadership and found only a couple of consistent personality traits and he concluded that it was simply not possible to evidence that successful leaders have a universal set of leadership traits. In addition, in his review of the sport personality literature, Sage (1975) made the same conclusion relative to leadership in sport. As a result of Sage's review, the number of sport studies investigating trait leadership was discontinued. Trait theory has not been able to identify

a set of traits that consistently distinguish leaders from followers. The limiting aspect of the trait theory was de-emphasized to take into account situational conditions.

### **2.2.2. Behavioral Theories**

To measure traits, researchers had to rely on constructs that were lack of reliability and also lack of validity because of given differing definitions. After World War II, owing to the problems with the trait approach became evident; researchers turned their attention to leader behaviors. Researchers decided to examine the behaviors of successful leaders. Unlike trait theory, this approach stressed that “leaders are made, not born” (Cox, 1998). Researchers interested in “how” a leader leads not “what” a leader is. This approach to leadership was very optimistic. Behaviorists argued that anyone could learn to become a potential leader by learning the behaviors of other effective leaders. In fact, several different successful leader behaviors have been identified. First, leaders can be categorized either autocratic or democratic. Second, leaders can be classified as directive or as permissive. Third, some leaders are task oriented while others are people oriented. Two important products or concepts with leadership behaviors were undertaken by the University of Michigan and by Ohio State University by attempts to define more specific leadership dimensions (Stogdill, 1959).

#### **2.2.2.1. Ohio State University Leadership Studies**

The majority of earlier studies were conducted at Ohio State University during 1940s and 1950s. Researchers at Ohio State University developed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) to assess leader behaviors. Using it, they found results that suggested two basic leader behaviors or styles: consideration and initiating structure.

1. Consideration behavior: Consideration refers to “the leader’s behavior which is indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his or her staff” (Halpin, 1959).

Leaders who scored high on consideration had good rapport and communication with others.

2. Initiating structure behavior: Initiating structure refers to “ the leader’ s behavior in delineating the relationship between himself or herself and members of the

work and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure” (Halpin, 1959).

Leaders who scored high on initiating structure were active in directing groups’ activities, communicating, scheduling, and experimenting new ideas.

These two kinds of behavior are considered to be relatively independent but also compatible. Therefore, the leader can exhibit varying degrees of both initiating structure and consideration at the same time and a leader can be high in both.

#### **2.2.2.2 University of Michigan Studies**

The University of Michigan studies were also begun approximately at the same time of Ohio State University studies. These studies focused on research objectives to determine leader behaviors related to performance effectiveness. The Michigan studies described a leader as being either production- centered or employee- centered (Stogdill, 1974).

1. Employee centered behavior: An employee-centered leader is interested in ensuring employees are satisfied with their job and in the needs of their followers and differences among them. The employee-centered leader also encourages worker participation by developing a cohesive work group.
2. Production centered behavior: A production-centered leader emphasizes technical aspects of job and is concerned with the performance. The production centered leader sets job standards and explains work procedures. The primary concern of leaders with considerate and employee-centered style is the employee's welfare. The primary concern of leaders with initiating structure and production-centered styles achieving goals.

#### **2.2.2.3 The Managerial Grid Theory**

The results of behavioral studies were incorporated into a grid proposed by Blake and Mouton (1964). The Managerial Grid utilizes the concern for people versus concern for production proposed by both the Ohio State and University of Michigan studies. It identifies five different types of leadership based on concern for production and concern for people. The five leadership styles of the managerial grid include impoverished, country club, task oriented, middle-of-the road, and team. The impoverished style is located at the lower left-hand corner of the grid, point (1, 1). It is characterized by low

concern for both people and production. The country club style is located at the upper left-hand corner of the grid, point (1, 9). It is characterized as a high concern for people and a low concern for production. The task-oriented style is located at the lower right-hand corner of the grid, point (9,1). A high concern for production and a low concern for people characterize it. The middle-of-the-road style is located at the middle of the grid, point (5, 5). A balance between workers' needs and the organization's productivity goals characterize it. The team style is located at the upper right-hand of the grid, point (9, 9). It is characterized by a high concern for people and production. This research concluded that managers perform best under a 9,9 style, as contrasted with a 9,1 or the 1,9 styles. More recently researchers have focused on leadership behaviors of the coach. When these various behavioral theories were applied to sport, it was found that the most desired behaviors of coaches were training for competencies, providing social support, and being rewarding (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978).

However, according to Chelladurai and Carron (1978) and Singer (1972), the behavioral theories on coaching leadership usually lack of consideration of situational factors.

### **2.2.3 Contingency Theories**

Trait and behavioral approaches emphasize personal factors at the absence of considering both individual and situational factors that are important to leadership success. The contingency theories attempted to explain the appropriate leadership style based on the leader, followers, and situation. It was suggested that effective leadership is a function of the interaction of the situation and personal characteristics. There were several approaches to isolate situational variables. Some of these approaches which have acquired more successful recognition are presented in this study.

#### **2.2.3.1. Fiedler's Contingency Model**

Fiedler's theory is one of many that use the contingency approach. This theory suggested that the leader's traits and the leader's control of the situation determine a leader's effectiveness. Fiedler's contingency theory postulates that there is no best way for leaders to lead. Leader effectiveness is situation specific, and leader behaviors that are effective in one situation may not be in other. That is, effective leadership depends on specific environmental situations.

Fiedler (1967) believes that a leader's style results from the leader's own needs and personality. He also suggests that leadership style is a stable personality characteristic. According to Fiedler (1967) situational favorableness depends upon three sub factors:

1. Leader- member relations: a Leader- member relation refers to the feelings subordinates have for the leader. Good relations result in respect and trust by followers, and group cooperation and effort.
2. Task Structure: Task structure concerns the extent to which the followers' jobs are structured or unstructured.
3. Position Power: Position power concerns the leader's ability to force workers to comply with his or her demands. According to Fiedler (1967), the effectiveness of the group depends on two factors: The personality of leader, and the degree to which the situations give the leader power, control and influence over the situation. In terms of personality, Fiedler believes that leaders are either relationship motivated or task motivated. Relationship motivation refers to concern with the interpersonal relationship between leader and followers. Task motivation refers to the leader's concern with the accomplishing the task at hand.

In order to classify leadership styles, Fiedler developed the Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) scale. The LPC scale asks a leader to think of all the persons with whom he or she has ever worked, and then to describe the one person with whom he or she worked the least well with. From a scale of 1 through 8, leader are asked to describe this person on a series of scales shown below:

Unfriendly 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Friendly

Uncooperative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Cooperative

Hostile 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Supportive

Guarded 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Open

A high LPC score suggests that the leader have a human relation's orientation, while a low LPC score indicates a task orientation.

The application of Fiedler's model to sport might imply that a coach who is successful in one situation might not be so in other (Murray & Mann, 1993).

Reviews of sport oriented research testing this theory have found little support for the model (Carron, 1980). In addition, based on his examination of the literature, Cox (1990)

concluded, “it would appear that Fiedler’s contingency theory is not applicable to sport settings.” Fiedler’s theory differs from most situational theories, since the emphasis is on relatively stable personality traits, as opposed to behaviors (Cox, 1998). On the other hand, in other situation specific theories the focus is on the situational specific behaviors, rather than personality dispositions (Murray & Mann, 1993).

### **2.2.3.2 House’s Path Goal Theory**

In the path-goal theory, “the leader is viewed as a facilitator who helps subordinates achieve their goals” (House, 1971). As the term implies, the leader provides a path by which the followers can reach their goals. House's 1971 article on Path-Goal Theory argued that a subordinate' motivation, satisfaction and work performance are dependent on the leadership style chosen by their superior.

The leader’s success is viewed in terms of whether or not the subordinates achieve their goals. This is done by rewarding subordinates for goal attainment, pointing out roadblocks and pitfalls on the path to success, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction (Cox, 1998). The extent to which such guidance and support will be provided is dependent upon the ability and personality of the subordinate (Chelladurai and Carron, 1983). Path-Goal theory assumes that leaders are flexible and that they can change their style, as situations require. “Path- goal theory has not been investigated much either in or out sport environments, perhaps due to lack of clarity. However, Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) looked at the theory from a sport context and reported partial support for path-goal theory. Individuals who demonstrated a preference for team sports also indicated a preference for leader behavior that was calculated to improve performance through training procedures. Thus, leader behavior correlated with the athletes’ preference for an independent type of sport. As predicted by the theory, a particular athlete personality consistently preferred a particular leader behavior.” (Cox, 1998).

### **2.2.3.3. Hersey – Blanchard Situational Leadership Model**

The Hersey-Blanchard (1972) Situational Leadership theory is based on “the amount of direction (task behavior) and amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader must provide given the situation and the ‘level of maturity’ of the followers” This theory places the emphasis in leader behavior on the subordinates and not on the leader. Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1977, and 1982) proposed that effective leaders could and should adjust their leadership style to respond to the lifecycle needs of their followers and to the environment. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) suggested that an appropriate leadership style for a specific situation be determined by the maturity of the followers. Maturity is defined in terms of “the capacity to set and obtain goals, willingness and ability to assume responsibility, and education or/and experience.” (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Two types of leadership behavior were identified by Hersey and Blanchard (1982) in terms of task behavior (initiating structure) and relationship behavior (consideration).

1. Task Behavior: The extent the leaders engage in spelling out the duties and responsibilities to followers. This behavior includes telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who's to do it. In task behavior the leader engages in one-way communication.
2. Relationship Behavior: The extent to which leaders engage in a two way communication, listen, provide support and encouragement, facilitate interaction, and involve the followers in decision making. This includes listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviors. In relationship behavior the leader engages in two-way communication by providing socio-emotional support. The behavior of leader in relation to the follower(s) is then based on three variables: (1) the amount of guidance and direction a leader gives, or initiating behavior; (2) the amount of socio emotional support a leader gives, or consideration behavior; and (3) the maturity level of the followers as they perform a task. In this theory four-leader behavior quadrants are:
  1. Directing (S1): It is high task/low relationship behavior. The leader provides clear instructions and specific direction.

2. Coaching (S2): It is high task/ high relationship behavior. The leader encourages two-way communication and helps build confidence and motivation on the part of the employee, although the leader still has responsibility and controls decision-making.
3. Supporting (S3): It is high relationship / low task behavior. With this style, the leader and followers share decision making and no longer need or expect the relationship to be directive.
4. Delegating (S4): It is low relationship / low task behavior. This style is appropriate for leaders whose followers are ready to accomplish a particular task and are both competent and motivated to take full responsibility.

Hersey and Blanchard believed that effective leaders adapt their leadership style to meet the needs of the group and the situation. The maturity of subordinates determines the most effective leadership style.

“The concept of maturity also exists in the context of sport and physical activity. Paraphrasing Hersey and Blanchard, athletic maturity can be viewed as the relative mastery of skill and knowledge in sport, and experience and the capacity to set high but attainable goals. Because opportunities for participation in sport reflect a pyramid profile with advancing age and since the exclusive and selective nature of sport insures that only those athletes with the requisite abilities, knowledge ,attitudes, and experience advance to each successive level in that pyramid, it can be assumed that athletic maturity increases as the athlete progress through the competitive levels of elementary, high school, university and professional sport”(Chelladurai & Carron, 1983).The Hersey and Blanchard situational leadership theory has been tested in athletic settings and no support has been obtained (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983).Case (1980) tested the validity of Hersey and Blanchard ‘s (1972) situational theory to sport setting by examining the relationship behaviors of 40 successful basketball coaches (and their athletes) from junior high, senior high, college, and A.A. Uteams. The results did not support the theory that a high task structure and low relationship would exist at lowest level of competition and low task structure and high relationship at the highest level of competition. In addition, Chelladurai and Carron (1983) examined task oriented and relationship oriented behavior

of basketball coaches from high school midget, junior, and senior divisions' university level. They did not find any support for the maturity –leader behavior hypothesis and they concluded that “the situational leadership theory may not have any relevance for sport because maturity, as defined by Hersey and Blanchard, remains largely unchanged with advancing chronological age and experience”

#### **2.2.3.4. The Normative Theory of Leadership**

The Normative theory is another approach to develop in the 1970s. Proposed by Vroom and his colleagues (Vroom and Yetton, 1973). This model is to design to examine the decision making of leaders. It provided a set of rules to determine the form and amount of participative decision making in different situation (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). Vroom's theory proposes five different methods of reaching a decision. The methods vary in the amount of input given to subordinates :Autocratic I (AI): the leader makes the decision alone with the information already available .Autocratic II (AII): the leader acquires information from subordinates and then decision alone, using the information gathered.

Consultative I (CI): the leader consults with subordinates individually, acquiring information and their suggestions/ comments. The leader then makes the decision alone, using the information gathered .Consultative II (CII): the leader consults with subordinates in-group meeting, acquiring information and their suggestions/ comments. The leader then makes the decision alone, using information gathered. Group Decision (GII): the leader consults with subordinates in a group meeting, acquiring information and their suggestions/ comments. The leader and subordinates then make the decision together -from Wann, 1997.

Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978) developed a normative model of decision styles in sport settings after the works of Vroom and his colleagues. Rather than using five decision styles in the manner of Vroom, Chelladurai and Haggerty's model includes three methods of decision making: autocratic, participative, and delegative. The autocratic style occurs when the coach makes the decision alone.

The participative decision style occurs when the decision is made by a group of individuals. The delegative decision style occurs when the coaches delegate the decision-making responsibilities to others such as assistant coaches and players.

One conclusion that is found from the several research testing the validity of this model is that delegation is quite rare in sport decision making (Chelladurai & Arnott, 1985).

### **2.3 Leadership styles**

No matter what their traits or skills, leaders carry out their roles in a wide variety of styles. Some leaders are autocratic. Others are democratic. Some are participatory, and others are hands off. Often, the leadership style depends on the situation, including where the organization is in its life cycle.

The following are common leadership styles:

- **Autocratic.** The manager makes all the decisions and dominates team members. This approach generally results in passive resistance from team members and requires continual pressure and direction from the leader in order to get things done. Generally, this approach is not a good way to get the best performance from a team. However, this style may be appropriate when urgent action is necessary or when subordinates actually prefer this style.
- **Participative.** The manager involves the subordinates in decision making by consulting team members (while still maintaining control), which encourages employee ownership for the decisions.

A good participative leader encourages participation and delegates wisely, but never loses sight of the fact that he or she bears the crucial responsibility of leadership. The leader values group discussions and input from team members; he or she maximizes the members' strong points in order to obtain the best performance from the entire team. The participative leader motivates team members by empowering them to direct themselves; he or she guides them with a loose rein. The downside, however, is that a participative leader may be seen as

unsure, and team members may feel that everything is a matter for group discussion and decision.

**Democratic:** The manager which allows greater participation by the athletes in decisions pertaining to group goals, practice methods, and game tactics and strategies.

- **Laissez-faire** (also called free-rein). In this hands-off approach, the leader encourages team members to function independently and work out their problems by themselves, although he or she is available for advice and assistance. The leader usually has little control over team members, leaving them to sort out their roles and tackle their work assignments without personally participating in these processes. In general, this approach leaves the team floundering with little direction or motivation. Laissez-faire is usually only appropriate when the team is highly motivated and skilled, and has a history of producing excellent work.

Many experts believe that overall leadership style depends largely on a manager's beliefs, values, and assumptions. How managers approach the following three elements—motivation, decision making, and task orientation—affect their leadership styles:

- **Motivation.** Leaders influence others to reach goals through their approaches to motivation. They can use either positive or negative motivation. A positive style uses praise, recognition, and rewards, and increases employee security and responsibility. A negative style uses punishment, penalties, potential job loss, suspension, threats, and reprimands.
- **Decision making.** The second element of a manager's leadership style is the degree of decision authority the manager grants employees—ranging from no involvement to group decision making.
- **Task and employee orientation.** The final element of leadership style is the manager's perspective on the most effective way to get the work done. Managers

who favor task orientation emphasize getting work done by using better methods or equipment, controlling the work environment, assigning and organizing work, and monitoring performance. Managers who favor employee orientation emphasize getting work done through meeting the human needs of subordinates. Teamwork, positive relationships, trust, and problem solving are the major focuses of the employee-oriented manager.

## **2.4 Leadership Strategies**

The term “leadership” can mean the behavior process effecting an individual or a group to arrive at a common goal (Hsu, 2006; Barrow, 1977). It can also refer to the process of convincing others and implementing together (Hsu, 2006; Drath & palus, 1994), or as Hong (1997) believes, leadership is the tool that enables normal operation of the organization, harmony within the personnel, and successful accomplishment of goals. Furthermore, Wu (1998) defines the meaning of leadership using the difference between managers and leaders: managers are assigned and their authority over the members comes with certain terms; leaders, on the other hand, are either assigned or produced from within the group, and their authority is based on personality or professional knowledge. After summarizing the documents from within the country and abroad, he defined leadership as: the active process of effectively achieving team goals through relevant command and influencing members to implement the mission. To summarize the above, leadership is a behavior as well as a process. For leaders, it is a presentation of influence. Therefore, leadership strategy is the effective strategy of leaders when executing the mentioned behaviors and processes. More specifically, it refers to the formulated feasible method or solution of the leader leading and influencing the individual or the group in hopes of achieving the set goal. This method or solution cannot be executed on the decision of the leader alone, because whether or not the strategy will work depends on the state of interaction between the leader and the members being led. Researches relating to leadership strategies appear mainly in the field of management, while researches on leadership behavior in sports are in the field of sports management. However, the field of education administration holds many documents directly investigating leadership strategies. For example, the research of Sue (2003) mentioned the leadership strategies of

principals: (1) allow teachers to exert their abilities by providing a wealth of teaching and administrative resources; (2) hold no prejudice on the promotion of the curriculum and respect the professionalism of the teachers; (3) lead by example and truly communicate with the teachers; (4) encourage the professional development of teachers and provide the stage to apply their expertise; (5) encourage professional dialogue between teachers and create an open as well as trusting culture inside the school. Research by Lin, Wang and Cheng (2004) states that the managing strategy for promotion of transformation leadership in the school should include: (1) expand the vision of the school and express high expectations; (2) show charismatic leadership and self-confidence; (3) seek active communication as well as gain trust and commitment; (4) inspire the intellect of members to constantly think creatively; (5) encourage self-realization and share professional knowledge; (6) activate the atmosphere of the organization and show genuine concern for the members; (7) create a learning organization and acknowledge the professionalism of the teachers.

To conclude, the development of an organization or a team depends on the strategies implemented by the leader or directing team. There should be a different leadership strategy in response to the different characteristics, team members, and situation of each team. In other words, every different domain has its own unique leadership strategy. For instance, the teaching team and the sports team would have unique leadership strategies different from each other.

## **2.5 A Sport Specific Approaches to Leadership**

Only recently, two significant theoretical frameworks have been advanced for the study of leadership in sport settings (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995). Smoll and Smith and their associates have proposed one approach. They posited a cognitive - behavioral model of leadership which specifies individual difference variables, situational factors, and cognitive processes assumed to mediate overt coaching behaviors and athletes' reactions to them (Smith, Smoll & Curtis, 1978, 1979; Smith, Smoll, Curtis & Hunt, 1978; Smoll & Smith, 1980, 1989). The second approach is exemplified by Chelladurai's Multidimensional Model of Leadership that focused on the congruence among three leadership behavioral states: required, actual, and preferred. The antecedents of these

three states of leader behaviors are the characteristics of the situation, the leader, and the members (Chelladurai, 1978, 1990, 1993; Chelladurai & Carron, 1978).

### **2.5.1 The Leadership Behavior Model**

Smoll and Smith (1989) proposed the leadership Behavior Model that is based upon situation specific behaviors of the leader. The model's central process is defined with lines leading from coach behaviors to player perception of coach behaviors to player perception of coach behaviors to player responses. This model stipulates that the ultimate effects of coaching behaviors are mediated by the meaning that players attribute to them. In other words, cognitive and affective processes serve as filters between overt coaching behaviors and youngsters' attitudes toward their coach. Thus, this model measured and defined relationship existing between a) what coaches actually do, b) how these behaviors are perceived and recalled by their players. In the model, coach individual difference variables include such factors as goals, intentions, perceptions of self/athletes, and gender. Player individual difference variables include such things as age, gender, and perceptions about coach, motivation, anxiety, and self-confidence. Situational factors include such things as nature of sport, competitive level, success/failure, and team cohesion. Coach behavior is influenced by the coach's perception of the individual athlete. A coach may treat an athlete who exhibits low self-confidence or high anxiety differently from other athletes.

In order to observe and code coaching behaviors

Coaching Behavior Assessment System (CBAS) was developed by Smith, Smoll, and Hunt (1977). The CBAS permits the direct observation and coding of coaches' leadership behaviors during practices and games (Smoll & Smith, 1989).

The observed behaviors are reactive and spontaneous in nature. The CBAS includes 12 categories that are divided into two classes of behaviors and spontaneous. Reactive behaviors are coach reaction to player or team behaviors.

Spontaneous behaviors are initiated by the coach and do not occur in response to a player behavior.

1. Reactive Behaviors Responses to desirable performance.

- a. Reinforcement: a positive, rewarding reaction to a good play or good effort.

- b. Non reinforcement: failure to respond to a good performance. Responses to Mistakes
- a. Mistake- contingent encouragement: encouragement given to player following a mistake.
- b. Mistake-contingent technical instruction: instructing and demonstrating to player how to correct a mistake he or she has made.
- c. Punishment: a negative reaction, verbal or non-verbal following mistake.
- d. Punitive technical instruction: technical instruction following a mistake given a punitive or hostile manner.
- e. Ignoring mistakes: failure to respond to a player mistake. Responses to Misbehavior
- a. Keeping control: reactions intended to restore or maintain order among team members.

## 2. Spontaneous Behaviors Game-Related

- a. General technical instruction: spontaneous instruction in the techniques and strategies of the sport (not following a mistake).
- b. General encouragement: spontaneous encouragement that does not follow a mistake.
- c. Organization: administrative behavior that sets the stage for play by assigning duties or responsibilities.

## Game- Irrelevant

- a. General communication: interactions with players unrelated to the game (Smoll & Smith, 1989).

The CBAS has been the most widely studied system for observing and documenting coaching behaviors in youth sports. Research with the CBAS has revealed a number of interesting relationships. When they are working with the youth sport athletes, the dominant behaviors of coaches are positive reinforcement, general technical instructions, and general encouragement. The behaviors of keeping control and administering punishment are perceived by players to occur much more often than they usually do. Another interesting finding is that coaches of youth sport teams spend a great amount of their time providing technical instruction and feedback to low-expectation youth than to high-expectation youth (Cox, 1998).

## **2.6 Leadership Studies by Using Leadership Scale for Sport**

Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) to assist in the testing of the Multidimensional Model of Leadership developed the Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS). The LSS was developed to measure leadership behaviors, including the athletes' preferences for specific behaviors, athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behaviors, and coaches' perceptions of their own behavior (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). The LSS has five dimensions:

- a. Training and Instruction: coaching behavior aimed at improving the athletes' performance by emphasizing and facilitating hard and strenuous training; instructing them in the skills, techniques, and tactics of the sport; clarifying the relationship among the members; and by structuring and co-ordinating the members' activities (Chelladurai, 1990).
- b. Democratic Behavior: coaching behavior which allows greater participation by the athletes in decisions pertaining to group goals, practice methods, and game tactics and strategies (Chelladurai, 1990).
- c. Autocratic Behavior: coaching behavior which involves independent decision making and stress personal authority (Chelladurai, 1990).
- d. Social Support: coaching behavior characterized by a concern for the welfare of individual athletes, positive group atmosphere, and warm interpersonal relations with members (Chelladurai, 1990).
- e. Positive Feedback: coaching behavior which reinforces an athlete by recognizing and rewarding good performance (Chelladurai, 1990).

Several authors have dealt with some of the antecedents elements of the Multidimensional Model of Leadership in their research and in the recent years, the LSS has been mostly used in coaching leadership studies (Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986; Schliesman, 1987; Garland & Barry, 1988; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Riemer & Toon, 2001; Ipinmoroti, 2002).

Individual Differences Erle (1981) assessed the effects of sex, experience, and motivation on the leadership preferences of university and intramural players. He found that males preferred training and instruction more than females. Also, athletes high on task motivation preferred more training and instruction, on the other hand, athletes high on affiliation motivation and extrinsic motivation preferred more social support. Moreover, the greater experience the higher the preference for positive feedback in competitive sports. Chelladurai and Carron (1983) examined the high school midget, high school junior, high school senior, and university level basketball players' preferences – a paradigm thought to reflect the maturity level of the subjects. Trend analysis revealed two significant results. First, preference for training and instruction progressively decreased from high school midget through junior to senior levels and increased at the university level. Secondly, the preference for social support progressively increased from the high school midget level to the university level.

Garland and Barry (1988) examined the influence of personality traits and perceived leader behaviors on performance in collegiate football. Garland and Barry considered the grouping of athletes into regulars, substitutes, and survivors as a performance measure. They found that personality traits and leader behaviors taken together contribute significantly to the prediction of performance. Players who were more group dependent, tough-minded, extroverted, emotionally stable and who perceived their coach as offering more training and instruction, having a democratic decision style, being more socially supportive, and offering more positive feedback were associated with higher levels of performance. Whereas, players who perceive their coach as having an autocratic decision style were associated with lower levels of performance.

### **Situational Variables**

Chelladurai, Imamura, Yamaguchi, Oinuma, and Miyauchi (1988) studied the effects of culture (a situational variable) on sport leadership. This study explored the difference between Japanese and Canadian university level male athletes in their leader behavior preferences and perceptions of leader behaviors, their satisfactions with leadership and personal outcome, and the relationships between leader behaviors and satisfactions. The results showed that a) the Japanese athletes preferred more autocratic behavior and social

support while the Canadian athletes preferred significantly more training and instruction, and b) the Japanese athletes perceived higher levels of autocratic behavior while the Canadian athletes perceived higher levels of training and instruction, democratic behavior, and positive feedback. Another study to mention effects of situational variables on leadership behavior patterns was performed by Ipinmoroti (2002). This study was to find out whether type of sport would be a predictor of coach leadership behavior. Subjects in this study consisted of team sport coaches and individual sport coaches. Findings of this study did not show any significant differences in coach leadership behaviors of team and individual sport coaches.

### **Consequences of Leadership**

Some authors have dealt with the consequences of leadership. For example, Chelladurai (1984) examined the relationship between the discrepancy between preferred and perceived leadership and athlete satisfaction in varying sports on the basis of task variability and/or task dependence. The results showed that discrepancy in leadership for athletes in various sports were associated with three measures of satisfaction: satisfaction with team performance, with leadership, and overall involvement. Further, discrepancies in training and instruction and positive feedback were the most common dimensions of leader behavior affecting the athletes' satisfaction in all three sport groups (basketball, track and field, and wrestling). Horne and Carron (1985) examined the relationship between coach-athlete compatibility and athlete performance and the relationship between coach-athlete compatibility and athlete satisfaction on university volleyball, basketball, track and field, and swimming athletes and their coaches. They found that the discrepancy between athletes' perceptions and their preferences for positive feedback and autocratic behavior were the best discriminators of compatible and incompatible dyads. Further, the results showed that the discrepancies in training and instruction, social support and positive feedback were significant predictors of athlete satisfaction with leadership.

In Schliesman's (1987) study of university track and field athletes, perceived democratic behavior and social support were positively related to general satisfaction with leadership. Also discrepancy scores in training and instruction, social support, and

positive feedback were significantly related to satisfaction with the three leader behaviors. The higher the perception of those behaviors relative to the preferences, the higher the satisfaction. In addition, Schliesman mentioned that the perceived democratic behavior and social support were slightly better predictors of satisfaction with general leadership than the corresponding discrepancy scores. Weiss and Friedrichs (1986) examined the relationship of university basketball players' perceptions of coach behavior, coach attributes, and institutional variables to team performance and athlete satisfaction. They found that neither institutional nor coach attribute variables were significantly related to team performance or satisfaction. On the other hand, leader behaviors were found to be significantly related to these team outcomes. Positive feedback was found as the most predictive of team satisfaction. Analysis with individual satisfaction scores revealed that size of school, coach attributes, and leader behaviors were predictive of athlete satisfaction. Moreover, coaches who engaged in more frequent reward in behavior, social support behavior, and democratic behavior produced more satisfied athletes. In their study, Riemer and Chelladurai (1995) the differences between the offensive and defensive personnel of football teams in preferred leadership, perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership, and also, the relationship among preferred and perceived leadership, their congruence, and satisfaction with leadership were examined. The results showed that defensive players preferred and perceived greater amounts of democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, and social support than did offensive players. Also, the congruence preferred and perceived leadership in the dimension of social support was critical to enhancing member satisfaction. On the other hand, perceived leadership in training and instruction as well as positive feedback was stronger determinants of satisfaction with leadership than either the preferred leadership or the congruence of preferred and perceived leadership in these dimension.

The authors Riemer and Toon (2001) investigated the congruence between preferred and actual leadership behavior that enhance member satisfaction in tennis players competing at NCAA Division I and II Tennis Championship level. Results indicated that athlete satisfaction was not dependent on the congruence between preferred and perceived leadership behavior.

Previous findings related to central thesis of the Multidimensional Model of Leadership have been inconsistent. While some indicated a significant curvilinear relationship between discrepancy scores of leadership behavior and satisfaction with leadership, others indicated a significant linear relationship or no relationship.

Riemer and Chelladurai, 1995 suggested that the inconsistencies in the direction and pattern of the reported significant relationship may stem from the problems associated with the use of discrepancy scores.

## **2.7 Football Coaching Style**

Coaching style is the manager in which the coach works with the players and his/her team. There are a lot of coaches who are successful by using different coaching styles. Dewitt J. (2001:8) also states that coaching philosophy is the set of beliefs that guide the coach as he/she coach and administer his/her team. Many of the coaches philosophies will come from his/her own personal experience.

When looking the coaching style and its effect on the degree of success, it is difficult to identify effective coaching style. In relation to this idea Borrie A. (1996:248) comments:

*It is now accepted that there is no universal behavior pattern that produces optimal coaching effectiveness in all situations. The majority of researchers now agree that three factors interact in determining what pattern of coaching behavior will produce the best results. These interacting variables are the coach, the player who being coached and the situation in which the coaching is done. All these have an influence on the effectiveness of various coaching styles in producing good competitive performance and satisfied players.* Thus, coaching styles have their role in the outcome or success of the training program. According to Dewitt J. (2001:9) there are three types of coaching styles. The details of each coaching styles is discussed as follows:

### **An Authoritarian Coach**

An authoritarian coach makes all the decisions for the team. There are little or no rooms for questioning, and players must complete every task the coach assigns. The coach is the boss, and it is his/her role to tell athletes what to do. Therefore, it is the athlete's role to listen, absorb, and perform. There are times when an authoritarian is necessary and desirable, such as when a new skill is being introduced or when the team is having

trouble concentrating. The authoritarian coach has firm beliefs on how things should be done and expects players to confirm. Many authoritarian coaches have enjoyed success using a particular method or approach and believe that there is no need to try other methods or playing styles.

### **The Chief Executive Officer (CEO)**

The chief executive officer is one who runs his/her team as if it were a corporation. The bottom line for the CEO Coach is production, and production is determined by the coach's philosophy. The CEO Coach is very flexible, willing to try new and different methods to increase or enhance productivity, he/she always be the person making the final decision. It is not uncommon for a CEO Coach to ask for suggestions from colleagues or players. The CEO approach works well when the coach wants to give players the opportunity to feel empowered and to be a part of the decision-making process.

### **The Friendly Coach**

The friendly coach is one who places a priority on relationships on individuals. The friendly coaches treat all players as individuals. Unfortunately, being a friendly coach is sometime sin effective because the line of authority is blurred. A friendly coach works well when the players need to fell that they have someone whom they can tern to for understanding and support. But a coach is a person who makes others do things that they do not want to do in order for them to improve.

## **2.8 Specific Leadership Strategies of Athletic Coaching Inspired Through the Theory of Play**

In the process when coaches lead athletes, if the game played is true and not false, then good leadership results can be achieved. Referencing Gadamer's theory of play, leadership strategies for athletic coaches are as below:

### **2.8.1 Establishing Team Situation as the Main Body of Leadership**

While the main members of a sports team are the athletic coaches and the athletes, they are not the main body. The team situation is the main body of the sports team. Coaches

and athletes have initiative, but at the same time, need to adapt to the situations faced by the team (passiveness) and work together to reach the common goals of growth together and winning championships. In fact, even with common goals, there is sometime conflict between the coach and athletes or between the athletes. One of the reasons for the former is that the coach self-regards as the main body of the team and leading as one pleases, while the athletes can only follow orders and instructions. The coach communicates very little with the athletes, sometimes only with the captain. As a result, detachment and conflict is prone to happen.

Coaches can establish that neither coach nor athlete is the main body of the team. By helping the athletes learn and grow by not instructing, the coach and the athletes grow together as well as unite to face the situation faced by the team. On the basis that the athletic coach puts away the concept of “I am the main body”, the inspired leadership strategies are: communicating with athletes through various methods; setting mutually recognized game rules; interaction that requires friendship.

### ***Communicating with athletes through various methods***

Communication between the coaches and athletes is mainly about the problems and thoughts which they see with each other, as well as the awareness and views of the situation. Although many people believe that communication is necessary, few know how to communicate with each other. On the basis of mutual respect, the possible methods of communication: (1) effective questions: the coach can ask questions such as why everybody is on the team, how to be on the team, or how to achieve the team’s goal to enhance observation and responsibility. (2) text communication (exchange, clarify): although coaches and athletes see each other almost every day and seem familiar with each other, sometimes direct face-to-face communication is what makes it difficult to precipitate the thought of both sides or listen to the intent of others. Text communication can allow for more time to think over each others thoughts. Former NBA Lakers coach Pat Riley used this method often when communicating with players. (3) show empathy: empathize that the observed hard work of the training athletes, as well as the pressure and struggle when facing competitions, is not understood by people who have not been in this

kind of situation. Therefore, one needs to show empathy towards the emotional reactions of the athletes in this situation and allow the exchange of feelings.

### ***Setting mutually recognized game rules***

A game must have game rules. It is part of the situation. Coaches and athletes alike must follow the rules (the mutually recognized game rules), and intitiatively implementing under the conditions of the rule on one hand, while passively limited by the rules on the other. Any coach or player breaching the rules will be subjected to handling by the rules. If the coaches self-regards as the main body and sets rules of their own, then it would be hard for the athletes to play a true game or for the true side to be presented. Therefore, coaches and athletes should set mutually recognized game rules. In the game where the coach leads the athletes, it is an interactive situation. The coach plays over, while the athletes and team situation truly plays back. It is through this back-and-forth process that provides the athletic coach with several true messages, and allows the coach to take further action using these messages and correctly handle issues in the process.

### ***Interaction that requires friendship***

There are no class distinctions between the coach and athlete, nor are there any subjective and objective distinctions. There are only differences in roles and responsibility dimensions. A coach does not use the attitude of an authoritative ruler to train and excoriate athletes, but instead should lead the athletes in a friendly and equal manner, especially during the time besides training and competitions. Although in a leadership situation, there is a relationship of leader and the led, both sides are independent entities that have mutual respect, and after confirming each other's duties, can accomplish the duties together in a friendly interactive manner, as well as gain recognition from the athletes.

## **2.8.2 Leading with the Seriousness of Play**

Athletic coaches holding responsibility for the results must face the strong pressure of the competitions, and athletes pursuing the best often face fast changing situations with a serious attitude. Sometimes caring too much about the purpose and outcomes as well as how other see oneself can result in the frequent occurrence of faulty seriousness,

including excessive seriousness and false seriousness. Excessive seriousness is the behavior of verbal abuse or physical punishment towards athletes during training when the athletes have a bad attitude, do not follow instruction, or do not meet requirements. At this point, some athletes will have fear while others accumulate unsatisfactory emotions. False seriousness is the coach leading with seriousness only in form and on the surface, but not truly focused or serious in every process. The purpose is led others to believe that they are serious and responsible coaches.

Therefore, the coach should always reflect on faulty seriousness that may happen at any time, and use the leadership strategies with the seriousness of play to handle issues with training the athletes, the competitions, and other problems.

***Reflect on faulty seriousness that may happen at any time***

In the process of leading, the coach should try as much as possible to avoid faulty seriousness. Whether in training, competition, or any other time, this reminder should be always in mind. More attention should be paid during competitions, because the emotions and performance of the athletes in a highly pressured competition situation directly effects the athletic coaches. If the coach scolds the negative emotions and bad performance of the athlete too harshly, faulty seriousness can easily occur, injuring the athlete as well as the coach, and the athlete may be reluctant to express their thoughts or situation towards the coach. Therefore, when athletes do not perform as expected, the coach must be self-controlled to avoid possible faulty seriousness.

***Use the leadership strategies with the seriousness of play***

Coaches should naturally merge into the leadership situation when leading, and when instructing training or competitions, naturally seriously focus on facing and paying attention to the situations that happen. When a problem occurs, focus on solving the problem and how to do better. Every problem should be handled with sincerely, regardless of the size. No problem should be ignored because it is a small problem. For example, when family, life, or relationship issues effect the emotions of the athlete, it should be dealt with the seriousness of play and as an important issue. In addition,

attention should be paid to the seriousness of the competition process. Seriously and actively complete it, then accept the results.

### **2.8.3 Showing the Self-Presentation of a Leader**

The coaching job is different from the average physical education. It does not have the authority of most physical education teachers. The self-presentation of the athletic coach is not with authority nor when leading. It is conveyed through the team situation, and mainly through the self-presentation of the athletes. Specifically speaking, the coach creates the learning and growth situations for the athletes, in addition to the self-presentation of promoter for the athletes during training and competitions, and not the self-presentation of heroism. This leadership attitude will bring forth the following strategies:

#### ***Bring out the power of support and assistance***

During training and competitions, the self-presentation of the coach supports and assists the athletes to achieve their best self-presentation. In other words, the best self-presentation of the athlete is also the best self-presentation of the coach. The coach needs to often think about how to bring out the best status of the athletes.

#### ***Respect the self-presentation of the athletes***

Each athlete has an unique self-presentation, especially in the performance of unique skills. For example, the forehand stroke of star tennis players Roger Federer and Rafael Nadal is the presentation of one's uniqueness. Sometimes when the coach insists on changing or eliminating the unique physical operation of the athlete, bad results happen (performance fall). On the other hand, when the coach instructs without coaching too much and allowing the athlete's body to be experimented more, it is respecting the self-presentaion of the athlete's body. For instance, when children first learn how to walk. Is it the result of parental guidance? No, it is physical ability that we were born with, and sometimes too much talk interferes with this ability. In other words, the coach trusting the athletes is respecting the self-presentation of the athletes, and they will also trust the coach. To do so, the coach must have a more optimistic attitude than usual and see the

dormant abilities within the athletes. However, this does not mean that the athletes should be left on their own to try and practice when the coach train skills.

## **2.9 Athletic Coaches**

Athletic coaches play a main role in leading athletes and sports teams. Their objective is to lead and assist athletes to enhance professional athletic abilities, gain the best athletic achievement, as well as maintain peak athletic performance for as long as possible. They deal primarily with matters relating to people (the athletes). Whether it be training, living, interpersonal, or competition related, everything must be taken care of, because these are possible factors that could effect performance. Although the main duty of athletic coaches is the role of trainer who instructs and trains athletes on athletic skills, they also sometimes become counselor that advise on emotional, interpersonal, and relationship matters, teacher to assist with cultural and personal growth, parent to take care of the athletes, and friend that is mutually supportive. Hence, the role and leadership of the athletic coach is not unchanging but complex and variable ( Wu, 1998). As Liu (1990) mentions, compared with other occupations, the athletic coach is high risk, highly challenging, highly creative, and highly complex job that is also very uncertain and conflicting. Therefore, a successful coach is extremely valuable.

Related research regarding athletic coaches focus mainly on understanding how athletic coaches train and lead to achieve the three general indicators of a successful athletic coach mentioned by Martens (1997): operate winning team; help athletes to have fun; assist the mental, psychological, and social development of the athletes. Which type of coach is more likely to succeed? There are some researches that have analyzed the characteristics, style, and behavior of athletic coaches: Wooden and Carty (2005) believed that a successful coach would have twenty-five qualities which include active, diligent, emulous, trusting, team player, adaptation, and others; Martens (1997) seperated coaching styles into the three categories of command, submissive, and cooperative; Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) stated that there are five coaching behaviors - democratic, autocratic, training and instructive, socially supported, and positive feedback. These

studies can provide reference to those who would be looking to become athletic coaches when learning to become a successful coach.

### **2.9.1 Leadership of Athletic Coaches**

Current documents regarding the leadership of athletic coaches focus mainly on leadership behavior and leadership performance. Chelladurai (1993) stated that leadership behavior models include the Multidimensional Model, the Multidimensional Model, and the Normative Model of Decision Style in Coaching, while Feng and Peng (2006) attributed the leadership of coaching into three types - authoritative, democratic and hands-off type. These studies provide the whole picture on the leadership behavior of athletic coaches and can be used by coaches in the process of training athletes and also for reference in related research (Cheng, 1995). In addition to the general classification, leadership strategies and behaviors differ specifically with the characteristics of each coach, and sometimes appear in the form of written biography. Such is the case with Duke University basketball coach Krzyzewski. His several leadership strategies and methods include attention to time management, emphasis on communication and cooperation, development of trusting relationship, strengthen individual responsibility, develop winning attitude, respect for authority, and many others (Krzyzewski & Phillips, 2000). Attention is gradually being called upon case studies relating to leadership experiences of individual coaches (Lee, 2006; Wu, 2008; Liang, 2006). Due to the diversity and different categories of sports, the actual leadership behaviors differ with coaches in different categories, and hence, the many related researches on the leadership of coaching in the sports field. For example, Kang (2005) investigated the leadership behavior of baseball coaches and proposed that the factor structure consisted of five dimensions – authoritative leadership, concern and support, fair responsibility, teamwork, inspiration and motivation. In addition, studies on the leadership behavior of coaches in wrestling, tennis, taekwondo, table tennis, badminton, football, and others (Chou & Chen & Yeh, 2008; Hung, 2007; Hung & Kuo & Liao, 2007; Teng & Chen & Li & Chuang, 2009; Jang & Chen & Chia, 2009; Dooug & Wu & Tai & Han, 2006) compared with the

leadership behavior of different coaches in the same field appeared more often. The different items and different leadership behaviors of coaches exhibited are all worth exploring. In short, how athletic coaches effectively handles matters relating to athletes depends on good leadership strategies, and how to choose among the many leadership strategies the most effective to use for the situation depends on the judgement and quick thinking of the coach. In addition to referencing leadership theories, one can think and decide through the theory of play in the next section. It is not for the exploration of a specific sport, but the reference for coaches in every field of sports and leadership performance. Chelladurai (1993) stated that leadership behavior models include the Multidimensional Model, the Mediation Model, and the Normative Model of Decision Style in Coaching, while Feng and Peng (2006) attributed the leadership of coaching into three types - authoritative, democratic and hands-off type. These studies provide the whole picture on the leadership behavior of athletic coaches and can be used by coaches in the process of training athletes and also for reference in related research (Cheng, 1995). In addition to the general classification, leadership strategies and behaviors differ specifically with the characteristics of each coach, and sometimes appear in the form of written biography. Such is the case with Duke University basketball coach Krzyzewski. His several leadership strategies and methods include attention to time management, emphasis on communication and cooperation, development of trusting relationship, strengthen individual responsibility, develop winning attitude, respect for authority, and many others (Krzyzewski & Phillips, 2000). Attention is gradually being called upon case studies relating to leadership experiences of individual coaches (Lee, 2006; Wu, 2008; Liang, 2006). Due to the diversity and different categories of sports, the actual leadership behaviors differ with coaches in different categories, and hence, the many related researches on the leadership of coaching in the sports field. For example, Kang (2005) investigated the leadership behavior of baseball coaches and proposed that the factor structure consisted of five dimensions – authoritative leadership, concern and support, fair responsibility, teamwork, inspiration and motivation. In addition, studies on the leadership behavior of coaches in wrestling, tennis, taekwondo, table tennis, badminton, football, and others (Chou & Chen & Yeh, 2008; Hung, 2007; Hung & Kuo & Liao, 2007; Teng & Chen & Li & Chuang, 2009; Jang & Chen & Chia, 2009; Dooug

& Wu & Tai & Han, 2006) compared with the leadership behavior of different coaches in the same field appeared more often. The different items and different leadership behaviors of coaches exhibited are all worth exploring. In short, how athletic coaches effectively handles matters relating to athletes depends on good leadership strategies, and how to choose among the many leadership strategies the most effective to use for the situation depends on the judgement and quick thinking of the coach. In addition to referencing leadership theories, one can think and decide through the theory of play in the next section. It is not for the exploration of a specific sport, but the reference for coaches in every field of sports.

## **2.10 The Multidimensional Model of Leadership**

Coaches 'leadership behavior is an important factor affecting athletes 'psychological outcomes. The multidimensional model of leadership proposes that group performance and member satisfaction are functions of the congruence among three states of leader behavior: required, actual, and preferred behavior (Chelladurai, 1980, 1990, Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). According to Chelladurai, effectiveness of coaching behaviors is a function of situational, member, and leader characteristics. Situational characteristics (i.e., parameters of the organization and/or its environment, such as the goals of the team, the formal organizational structure of the team, social norms, and cultural values) would require that the coach behave in certain ways. Member characteristics (e.g., age, gender, ability) primarily influence athletes 'preferred coaching behaviors, while the coach's personal characteristics (e.g., gender, age, personality characteristics, and years of experience) influence the coach's actual behaviors (Chelladurai, 1980, 1990, 1999; Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). Multidimensional Model of Leadership: Coaching Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ) Evolving from the sport leadership research on the coding of observed coaching behaviors and the multidimensional approach to leadership, Martin and Barnes (1999) developed the Coaching Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ). Along the same lines as with the LSS, the CBQ was developed to measure three states of leader behavior: (a) *required*, (b) *actual*, and (c) *preferred*. The CBQ is comprised of two parts: (a) a 12-item demographic section, and (b) a 48-item coaching behavior section. The 12-item demographic section includes questions about the athlete's age, gender, race,

education level, sport most played, and number of years participating in the sport most played. In addition, items were included that related to preference of coach gender and age. Therefore the 12-item demographic section contains items related to the athlete and athlete preferences of coach characteristics. The 48-item coaching behavior section includes twelve subscales of coaching behaviors. The same 48 items are used for all three versions of the CBQ, only the stem to the items change. The *required version* starts with —A coach (at this level) . . . , the *actual version* begins with —My coach . . . and the *preference version* starts with —I prefer a coach who . . . . The twelve subscales are based upon the twelve coaching behavior categories represented in the CBAS (see above; Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977). Therefore, the CBQ integrates the multidimensionality of the LSS and the coaching behavior categories utilized in the CBAS to measure self-reported states of leadership behaviors.

Kravig, Ludtke and Martin (2002) administered the preference version of the CBQ to high school and college female athletes. They used the classification system developed by Cox (1990) to separate athletes based on the type of sport in which they participated. The classification system places sports on various points of a continuum based on interdependence among team members. Sport teams with low interdependence are considered *coactive*, which denotes that the tasks performed by members of the team require little interaction among them for success (Goldman, Stockbauer, & McAuliffe, 1977). Coactive sports include bowling, golf, and wrestling. Bowling provides a perfect example of this, since the performance of team members is unrelated to how well they interact (Cox, 1990). On the other end of the spectrum, sport teams with high interdependence are considered *interactive*, which signifies that the tasks performed by members of the team require considerable interaction among them for success (Cox, 1990). Interactive sports are those such as basketball, soccer, and volleyball. Volleyball provides a good illustration of this, since success depends on both team and individual performance (Cox, 1990). For example, successful spiking is related to the quality of the set delivered by the setter and the setter's performance is related to the quality of the —bump made by the athlete receiving the serve (Cox, 1990). There are, of course, degrees of coactive and interactive sports. *Mixed* sports such as track and field, and

swimming contain both interactional demands in the relays and independent functions in various field events, diving, and individual races (Cratty, 1989). Teams may also vary as to the degree to which roles are similar or differentiated (Cratty, 1989). For example, pairs rowing contains highly similar role requirements, whereas American football or baseball contain highly differentiated roles (Cratty, 1989). Therefore, the CBQ integrates the multidimensionality of the LSS and the coaching behavior categories utilized in the CBAS to measure self-reported states of leadership behaviors. The CBQ is comprised of twelve behavioral categories:

## **2.11 Athlete Satisfaction Model**

Satisfaction is an integral part of sport participation and enjoyment. Without satisfaction, athletes would turn to other sources for potential success and enjoyment (Maday, 2000). Satisfaction in sport has been studied extensively in combination with several variables, mostly leadership (Chelladurai, 1984; Chelladurai et al., 1988; Coffman, 1999; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Horne & Carron, 1985; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Riemer & Toon, 2001; Schliesman, 1987; Sriboon, 2001; Yusof, 1999). Several scholars in sport psychology have included athlete satisfaction as an antecedent or outcome variable in their work. For example, the multidimensional model of leadership (Chelladurai, 1980, 1990) includes satisfaction as an outcome variable along with performance. Studies based on the multidimensional model of leadership (Chelladurai, 1980, 1990) have been largely concerned with linking leadership dynamics with athlete satisfaction. Satisfaction as an outcome has been employed in different leadership studies based on the multidimensional model of leadership (Chelladurai, 1984; Chelladurai et al., 1988; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Eichas, 1992; Horne & Carron, 1985; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Riemer & Toon, 2001; Schliesman, 1987; Sriboon, 2001). In the multidimensional model (Chelladurai, 1980, 1990), leadership behaviors were suggested to be antecedents of member satisfaction. The model suggests that the discrepancy between athletes' perceived and preferred leadership style would impact their level of satisfaction. In 1997, Chelladurai and Riemer proposed the model —A Classification of Facets of Athlete Satisfaction. The purpose of the model was to study the needs, benefit, and treatment that were provided for intercollegiate athletics. Based on Chelladurai and Riemer's (1997) classification of

facets of athlete satisfaction, Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) developed, a multiple-item, multiple-dimension scale to measure athlete satisfaction, the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ). The development of the ASQ resulted in a final scale with 15 facets, or subscales, and a total of 56 items on the scale. The format of the scale allows researchers to include those dimensions of satisfaction most salient for a particular situation (Riemer & Toon, 2001). satisfaction was evaluated using 4 of the ASQ's 15 subscales: training and instruction satisfaction, personal treatment satisfaction, team performance satisfaction, and individual performance satisfaction. The first two subscales concentrate on satisfaction with the process of coaching behavior, while the second two assess satisfaction with outcomes associated with the processes of leadership (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). *Training and instruction satisfaction* refers to satisfaction with the training and instruction provided by the coach. *Personal treatment satisfaction* refers to satisfaction with those coaching behaviors that directly affect the individual yet indirectly affect team development. It includes social support and positive feedback. *Team performance satisfaction* refers to athlete's satisfaction with his or her team's level of performance. Task performance includes absolute performance, goal achievement, and implies performance improvements. Finally, *individual performance satisfaction* refers to athlete's satisfaction with his or her own task performance. Task performance includes absolute performance, improvements in performance, and goalachievement (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998) **Training and Instruction Satisfaction:** Refers to satisfaction with the training and instruction provided by the coach (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). **Personal Treatment Satisfaction:** Refers to satisfaction with those coaching behaviors that directly affect the individual yet indirectly affect team development. It includes social support and positive feedback (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). **Team Performance Satisfaction:** Refers to athlete's satisfaction with his or her team's level of performance (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). **Individual Performance Satisfaction:** Refers to athlete's satisfaction with his or her own task performance (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998).

Is Performance Related to Coaching Behaviour? While there are various aspects of performance that affect the manner in which the sports team will perform, a critical aspect of coaching is considered to be the manner in which the coach behaves. The behaviour of the coach can make a significant difference to the performance of the team

as well as the psyche, the motivation and the team bonding too. **Performance:** is quite central to the level to which a sportsperson or an athlete can perform. The coach is responsible for five key areas of performance coaching viz tactical, technical, mental, physical and lifestyle and also social outcomes as a result of their coaching behaviour. This can have a positive or negative effect on the performance of the athlete and the team. Coaches need to be aware how each of their actions can affect the team dynamics. Sadly, most coaches themselves seem to be fairly oblivious of the kind of effect their behaviour has on their team. There are many philosophies regarding coaching behaviour. Behaviour that has worked in one specific setting or situation for a coach may not work in another setting or team environment. In fact, sometimes a coach needs to be able to modify his behaviour based on the needs of a specific player. The coach needs to align his/her coaching behaviour with his or her coaching philosophy and then ensure whether these behaviours are consistent throughout the season. Many coaches have strong beliefs about the manner in which they go about their coaching. Some tend to make assumptions about the manner in which athletes want to be trained. Instead the coach should attempt to understand the needs of the players. Athlete or player-centric performance of coaching requires the coach to continuously focus on understanding on the strengths and weaknesses of the individual and team. An effective coach should revisit his behavior and have his coaching behavior assessed by someone in his management team or an external individual. This is important feedback to ensure that the coach is on track. Assuming that one coaching style is the best is a mistake many coaches make. There does not a specific model that is best suited for performance of coaching at all levels. However, one critical aspect of coaching must be kept in mind at all times:

A good coach needs to understand how the players interpret his coaching behavior. A coach needs to have an awareness of his own coaching behavior and the consequences of his actions as well as get feedback of what the players think about coaches behaviors to ensure performance achieved.

## **2.12 Coaching Behavior and Players Performance in Sport**

To achieve improvement in athletic performance, it may be necessary for the coach to engage in coaching behaviors to which the athlete is receptive. What may be an

appropriate coaching behavior to one athlete may be an ineffective approach for another. Similarly, specific behavior by the coach may be more productive of certain outcomes than others (Tinning, 1982). Different needs and preferences from individual athletes within the team confront coaches of team sports. The coach may adopt either a homogenous approach that treats all athletes equally, or alternatively create a heterogeneous style that provides differential treatment to individual athletes. As a result of this, it is important for the coach to be aware of the coaching preferences of his/her athletes in order to provide satisfactory experiences and improve athletic performance. According to Chelladurai and Carron (1978), if a coach adapts his or her behavior to comply with the athletes' preferred behavior, the athlete may be more readily inclined to repay the coach through an improved performance. Effective coaching behavior varies across specific contexts as the characteristics of the player and the prescribed situation change (Chelladurai, 1978). The context of the sport situation and the characteristics of the coach and the players themselves dictate appropriate coaching behavior. To achieve improvement in athletic performance, it may be necessary for the coach to engage in coaching behaviors to which the athlete is receptive. What may be an appropriate coaching behavior to one athlete may be an ineffective approach for another. Similarly, specific behavior by the coach may be more productive of certain outcomes than others (Tinning, 1982). Different needs and preferences from individual athletes within the team confront coaches of team sports. The coach may adopt either a homogenous approach that treats all athletes equally, or alternatively create a heterogeneous style that provides differential treatment to individual athletes. As a result of this, it is important for the coach to be aware of the coaching preferences of his/her athletes in order to provide satisfactory experiences and improve athletic performance. According to Chelladurai and Carron (1978), if a coach adapts his or her behavior to comply with the athletes' preferred behavior, the athlete may be more readily inclined to repay the coach through an improved performance.

### **2.13 Factors Affecting Coaching Behavior**

Coach's personal characteristics Here we have to consider any of the coach's personal characteristics that could have a positive or negative influence on the coaching process.

These could include the coach's philosophy, style, beliefs, perceptions and even personal life. Each of these can impact on the coaching process and therefore directly affect the attainment of the goal. Athlete's personal characteristics and level of development The athlete's character and level of development can have a direct effect on the attainment of the goal; indeed the nature of the athlete will have a direct bearing on the coaching process adopted by the coach. Within this component, we need to consider such issues as the athlete's learning style, stage of learning, motivation, personal abilities, identity and acquisition of skills. Contextual factors A saying often applied to sport is 'control the controllable'. Many aspects of the coaching process may be controlled. Some, such as illness and environmental conditions, may not be fully controllable but can still be addressed by both the coach and the athlete. Those factors that neither the coach nor athlete can control are termed contextual factors. An example of a contextual factor would be losing a competition as a result of a poor ruling from an official or referee. The athletic component may have been controlled, but the decision of the *official* is not controllable, and may be something that has to be accepted without necessarily agreeing with it. Contextual factors can have a profound positive or negative effect on the coaching process and the attainment of the goal. Team coaching Team coaching is an act of leadership, but it is not the only one or necessarily the most consequential one. Team leaders engage in many different kinds of behaviors intended to foster team effectiveness, including structuring the team and establishing its purposes, arranging for the resources a team needs for its work and removing organizational roadblocks that impede the work, helping individual members strengthen their personal contributions to the team, and working with the team as a whole to help members use their collective resources well in pursuing team purposes. Leaders vary in how they allocate their time and attention across these activities, depending on their own preferences; what they believe the team most needs; and the team's own level of authority, initiative, and maturity. Only the last two sets of activities (helping individual members strengthen personal contributions and working with the team to help use resources well) are coaching behaviors, however, focusing respectively on individual team members and on the team as a whole. In this paper we deal exclusively with the fourth—team coaching— which we define as direct interaction with a team intended to help members make coordinated and task-appropriate

use of their collective resources in accomplishing the team's work. Although team coaching is a distinct and often consequential aspect of team leadership, recent evidence suggests that leaders focus their behavior less on team coaching than on other aspects of the team leadership portfolio. Leadership behaviour model the leadership behaviour model (LBM) (Smoll and Smith, 1989) is the closest example that fits with the coaching process model proposed by Côté et al (1995). The LBM attempts to knit together the coach's behaviour to the athlete's perception of the coach's behaviour, resulting in the athlete's responses to these perceptions. This approach is very similar to that proposed in the multidimensional model of leadership. There are, however, some striking differences. The LBM suggests ways in which 'the central process' can be affected by various factors, all playing a role in the coach/ athlete relationship and thereby athlete performance. The contributing factors include: coach and athlete individual differences; the coach's perception of the athlete's ability; and specific situational factors. Having viewed a number of models of leadership and coaching behaviour, we have identified several key principles, the most fundamental of which is the importance of the coach/athlete relationship. The coach/athlete relationship A strong coach/athlete relationship is associated with high levels of athlete performance and satisfaction. If we look at a poor relationship or incompatibility between the coach and athlete, we will begin to appreciate the characteristics associated with strong relationships. The two primary variables associated with poor relationships are lack of communication and lack of rewarding behaviour from the coach. Poor coach/athlete relationships are associated with lack of mutual respect, no real appreciation for either person's role and perhaps the most serious of all, lack of honesty between both parties when communication does occur. Given that it is clear what makes a poor relationship, it should be clear what makes a strong relationship: good communication, mutual respect, rewarding behaviour from the coach and a strong appreciation for each other's role. This is easier said than done, but they are fundamental to the coach/athlete relationship. Communication – the key to success Open dialogue between the coach and athlete is associated with greater degrees of athlete satisfaction and better performances. Good performances should be praised, with the coach providing insightful information on that performance. A poor performance should not be openly criticized; instead, the coach should highlight any good aspect of

the performance, no matter how minor and praise that. They should then use communication skills to apply constructive criticism to the performance, allowing the athlete to learn and theoretically correct mistakes that were made. This praise and criticism approach to coaching can only come about through a solid coach/athlete relationship built on mutual resp

## **2.14 Coaching and the Coach–Athlete Relationship**

Initial research aimed at understanding effective coach–athlete interaction focused on identifying various leadership styles of coaches and their impact on athletes. Three lines of research emerged from investigators' attempts to analyze leadership of coaches and the coach–athlete relationship: (a) the mediational model of leadership and the Coaching Behavior Assessment System (Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977; Smoll, Smith, Curtis, & Hunt, 1978); (b) coach–athlete compatibility (Carron & Bennett, 1977); and (c) 12 the multidimensional model of leadership and the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai, 1993; Chelladurai & Arnott, 1985; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). Each of these research lines used quantitative approaches to study effective dimensions of coach–athlete interactions. This research was useful for measuring specific qualities of coach–athlete relationships such as reward versus punishment and positive versus negative feedback, but failed to address how coaches attempt to develop productive and meaningful relationships with their athletes.

## **2.15 Teammate Relationships**

In addition to studying how leadership and interpersonal behavior of coaches impact athletes' experiences and performances in sport, research has also considered how the behavior of coaches impacts the overall achievement orientation within a team. Research has also considered how relationships between teammates impact athletic performance. Researchers have specifically identified and investigated: motivational orientation, collective efficacy, and cohesion as group constructs that affect both performance and experience in sport.

### **Motivational Climate**

*Motivational climate* is assumed to be a function of the goals that a group aspires to achieve, the evaluation and reward process, and how individuals are expected to relate to each other (Ames & Archer, 1988). As leaders of teams coaches are thought to have a significant impact on the motivational climate within a team. The goal perspective theory (Nicholls, 1984) has stated that there are primarily two major goal states operating in achievement situations: task and ego involvement. Walling, Duda, and Chi (1993) developed the Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire (PMCSQ) to assess the perceived motivational climate of teams. Climates that emphasize learning and development (task oriented) are referred to as *mastery oriented*, while climates that emphasize outcomes (ego orientation) are referred to as *performance oriented*. Research using the PMCSQ was initially completed with young athletes in order to determine how children were affected by perceptions of either performance or mastery environments. Research found that perceptions of a mastery climate were positively related to satisfaction with being a member on the team and negatively associated with performance worry. Meanwhile, perceptions of a performance climate were associated with concerns about failing and the adequacy of one's performance and negatively related with team satisfaction (Walling et al. 1993).

Seifriz, Duda, and Chi (1992) administered the PMCSQ to male varsity high school basketball players and also found that perceptions of a mastery environment related positively to enjoyment. A study by Smith, Fry, Ethington, and Yuhua (2005) compared female high school athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behaviors with their perceptions of motivational climate. Perceptions of task-involving environments were associated with positive feedback while ego involving climates were negatively correlated with positive feedback and positively related to punishment feedback. Results of the motivational climate research on youth athletes suggest that coaches should emphasize more mastery-oriented environments as they are associated with greater levels of satisfaction and enjoyment.

Since research using the PMCSQ had focused on youth sport and had not compared experienced male and female athletes, Navarre (1999) administered the 34 PMCSQ to four NCAA Division I soccer teams (two men's teams and two women's teams who were

each coached by different people) in an effort to determine the degree to which older, more competitive athletes perceived their environments to be mastery or performance oriented, and whether or not males and females perceived their environments similarly. Despite being in more competitive environments than youth sports the results indicated that both males and females perceived the motivational climate of their teams to be more mastery than performance oriented. Pensgaard and Roberts (2002) also found elite athletes to perceive their environment to be more mastery than performance oriented, but this study was limited by a small sample size (five males and two females). While these studies did not compare perceptions of motivational climate with overall enjoyment and satisfaction the results indicate that experienced male and female athletes have similar perceptions of the motivational climate of their teams.

These results are interesting when you consider (as will be discussed later) that *individual* differences have been found between males and females with males consistently reporting themselves to be more win-oriented compared to females who report being more goal-oriented (Gill, 2004). However research determining the actual impact of gender differences is difficult because of the myriad of factors one must attempt to control for. Additionally, there are both similarities and differences within males and females that add to the difficulty of identifying meaningful gender differences. Finally, as in the case of individual achievement orientation independent variables may not be mutually exclusive; athletes and coaches can be both ego and task oriented. For example, a recent study involving undergraduate students participating in leisure activity 35 courses found that while women scored higher on task orientation and men scored higher on ego orientation, both males and females overall had a high task orientation (Anderson & Dixon, 2009).

In regard to athletes, one may find it odd that Division I athletes perceive their environments to be more mastery oriented than performance oriented. However, coaches must place a significant amount of attention to training and development (mastery) in order for their teams to be successful. Coaches may individually have an outcome orientation but feel compelled to create more mastery oriented climates in order for their

athletes to succeed. Future research should query coaches to determine the type of motivational climate they want to foster with their teams.

A study by Olympiou, Jowett, and Duda (2008) analyzed the interface between the coach-created motivational climate and the coach–athlete relationship in team sports. Specifically, 591 British athletes (414 men and 177 women) ranging from 16 to 36 years old with varying levels of athletic ability were administered both the CART-Q and the PMCSQ to assess the motivational significance of the coach–athlete relationship in team sports. Results revealed that scores on the subscales of the CART-Q were positively associated with the task-involving subscales and negatively associated with the ego-involving subscales of the PMSCQ. These results represent an important contribution to coach–athlete and motivational climate research because they empirically show that a perceived task-involving coach climate (cooperative learning and effort, and improvement orientations) was associated with athletes' perceptions of feeling close, being committed, and interacting in a complementary fashion with their coach. This study did not include the gender of the coach as a variable and did not differentiate between ability levels of athletes in the analysis; however it illustrates that how athletes perceive their coaches motivational climate orientation directly relates to the degree of interpersonal connection they *feel* toward their coach.

Another study by Martin, Rocca, Cayanus, and Weber (2009) looked at the relationship between coaches' use of behavior alteration techniques (BATs) and verbal aggression on athletes' motivation and affect, and did compare sex of coach and sex of athlete. Martin et al.'s sample consisted of 143 male and 146 female undergraduate students who played competitive high school sports and asked participants to recall their experiences with one particular coach in one sport. As expected, positive BATs were positively related to motivation and affect, while negative BATs were negatively related to motivation and affect, and verbal aggression was negatively related to motivation and affect. Results also showed that male coaches used more punishment strategies with male players than female players. Specifically, male players were more likely to be on the receiving end of the BATs of guilt, negative relationship, legitimate-coach authority and peer modeling than female players. Additionally, athletes in the male player–male coach relationship

reported their coaches being more verbally aggressive than players in the female player–male coach or female player–female coach relationships. In conclusion, when investigating competitive and motivational orientation, there are a variety of factors that must be considered, such as level of competition, perceived ability levels, and individual and collective goal orientations, as well as environmental factors such as coach expectations, coach efficacy, collective efficacy and coach–athlete 37 relationships. Behavior in sport seems to be dynamic, as it simultaneously impacts and is impacted by, the social context.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METODOLOGY**

This section of the thesis deals with the research design, data sources, sample and sampling techniques. It also presents the instrument of data collection and methods of data analysis.

#### **3.1 The Research Design**

The main objective of this study was to examine the leadership of women soccer coaches and its importance to performance outcomes and players satisfaction. To this effect, descriptive survey method was employed. This method is selected because it is helpful to identify present conditions and point to present needs, immediate status of a phenomenon and facts findings (Youesh, 2006:105). Moreover, it is economical and rapid turnaround in data collection and identifying attribute of a large population from a small group of individuals (Kothari 2004:35). Therefore, the first approach of the data study was to gather data, to examine the leadership and its effect of Ethiopian women premier league clubs coaches.

#### **3.2 Research Method**

In order to attain objectives of the study, valuable information was gathered from different sources. Besides, triangulation of various data gathering tools was used to obtain relevant information. Intensive review of related literatures was made to support the study with empirical knowledge in the area.

#### **3.3 Sample and Sampling Techniques**

The sample size of each target population was determined by what Kothari (2004:58) suggest, “ The ideal sample size of a target population is large to serve as an adequate representative and small enough to be selected economically in terms of both time and complexity of analysis.” In Addis Ababa, there were 8 women premier league clubs each

of which have 25 players or a total of 200 players. In this study 100 (50%) of players or 4 women premier league clubs and their coaches were included. The selection of 4 women premier league clubs(Dedbit, St. Mary University, St. Gorge, Ethiopia Commercial Bank) was conducted using simple random sampling techniques. This sampling technique is selected because it gives equal and independent chance for all clubs in the defined population of being selected as a sample.

### **3.4 Data Collection Instruments**

In order to collect the data necessary for analysis, the researcher used observation, questionnaire and unstructured interview. Triangulation, a multi-method approach is implemented to maintain the validity of the study and to acquire information from different sources. The use of different tools helped to see the situation in-depth. The detail of each data collection instruments is discussed as follows:

#### **Observation**

In order to obtain information about coach leadership behavior on the basis of principles of training applied by the coaches, observation has been used by the researcher. However, majority of the teams players have been found free and relaxed completely from coach during their program of the training session. This was because of the coach told to them about the researcher . Therefore, the researcher forced to the number of observations made to be more than four consecutive training sessions.

#### **Questionnaire**

Questionnaires were also used to collect relevant information from players and coaches. Open and close-ended questions were distributed and collected from the respondents. Out of the total questionnaires distributed to the target population, 70(70%) from players and 4 (100%) from coaches were returned. Since the majority of players and all of the coaches returned the questionnaire then the analysis was made using the responses of 70 players and 4 coaches.

## **Interview**

Interview guide has been prepared and conducted in order to gain information about coaches leadership behavior, players performance outcomes and their satisfaction.

### **3.5 Procedures of Data Collection**

After designing the research instruments (observation checklist, questionnaire and interview) the research sites and sample size of participants were identified. Then, observation of the training session took the first step in data collection. This is because to gain first hand information the usual principles, method and character of the team and the coach leadership during the training session. Secondly, date and times of contact were determined and questionnaires were distributed to selected clubs team players and their coaches. The interview session followed with coaches. After completing the data collection, processing the raw data or analysis follow suit.

### **3.6 Methods of Data Analysis**

The results of data collected through questionnaire, interview and observation were interpreted using percentage, count and descriptive statements.

### **3.7 Pilot Study**

Before the actual study was carried out, a pilot study was conducted with 15 respondents who were not part of the sample group. The purpose of the pilot study was to assess the relevance of the questionnaires designed to collect data for the study. The objective was also to check the clarity of the questionnaire items. Accordingly, 15 questionnaires were distributed to 15 players. On the basis of the feedback of the pilot study and expert's comments some modification was made on the questionnaire.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **ANALYSIS OF DATA AND PRESENTATION**

This chapter deals with presentation and analyzing of the data collected through questionnaire, observation and interview. The data are presented in tables, analyzed using percentage and textual description. To supplement and enrich the information, drawn using questionnaire, the data from open-ended questionnaires, interviews and observation checklists were used.

#### **4.1 Background Information**

Coaches were asked to indicate their background information through questionnaire. Responses on their sex, age, years of experience in coaching, their current level of coaching license, educational level or qualification and availability of performance enhancing courses are summarized in table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Background information of the coaches

NO	ITEM	ALTEFERNATIVE	COACHES	
			Alternatives	%
1	Sex	1.Female	1	25
		.2. Male	3	75
2	Age	1.21-30	2	50
		2.31-40	2	50
		3.41-50		
		4.51-60		
		5.61-70		
3	How many years of experience Do you have in coaching?	1.Less than one year		
		2.1-5 years	2	50
		3.6-10 years	2	50
		4.Above 10 years		
4	What is your educational level?	1.Grade 10 complete		
		2.Grade 12 complete	1	25
		3.certeficate		
		4.Diploma	2	50
		5.Degree		
		6.Masters and above	1	25
5	What is current level of coaching license	1.First level		
		2.Second level		
		3.A		
		4.B	3	75
		5.C	1	25
6	If your educational level is above is above diploma, what was your Area of study?	1.Football coaching		
		2.Physical education		
		3.Teaching other subject		
7	Did you have a chance of getting improving leadership behavior?	1.yes	1	25
		2.no	3	75
8	If your answer for question Number 7 is yes, how many times A year?	1.One times a year		
		2.Two times a year		
		3.It is not known		
		4.With in some years	1	25

Table 4.1 presents that, 3(75%) of the coaches are male and 1(25%) of coach is female. This shows that football/soccer coaching of Ethiopian premier league clubs is dominated by male coaches. Concerning the age of coaches, table4.1 reveals that 2(50%) of the coaches and 2(50%) of the coaches are found between the age of 20-30 and 31-40 respectively. From this, one can conclude that all of the coaches are found in the young age .With regard to their experience in coaching as a main coach, 2(50%) have an experience of range between 1-5,2(50%) have an experience of range between 6-10 years. Pertaining the educational qualification, table 4.1 depicts, 2(50%) of the coaches have diploma in physical education, and 1(25%) grade 12 complete, and 1(25%) of coaches have masters in Football coaching. However, as shown on the above table their chance or opportunity of getting leadership improvement courses from the Football Federation is very low which is only 1(25%) of the coach take this courses.

#### 4.2 Importance of Coaches' Perception Their Own Behavior

Coaches have great role to performance of players and team result due to this they must be identify at what time and in what condition to react.

Table 4.2 coaches response on their own behavior

NO	As a soccer coach	Alternatives	Coaches	
			No_ of respondent	%
1	Ask for the opinion of the athletes on Strategies for specific competition.	1.Yes	3	75
		2.No	1	25
2	Help athletes with their personal problems.	1.Yes	4	100
		2.No	0	0
3	Help members of the group settle their Conflict.	1.Yes	4	100
		2.No	0	0
4	Plan relatively independent of the athletes.	1.Yes	4	100
		2.No	0	0
5	Appreciate the athlete when the athlete does a particular good job.	1.Yes	4	75
		2.No	0	25
6	Let the athletes share in decision making.	1.Yes	2	50
		2.No	2	50
7	Encourage athletes' to make suggestions for ways to conduct practice.	1.Yes	1	25
		2.No	3	75
8	Motivate players to play hard and practice diligently.	1.Yes	4	100
		2.No	0	0
9	Ask for the opinion of the athletes on important coaching matters.	1.Yes	4	100
		2.No	0	0

10	Encourage close and informal relation with athletes.	1.Yes	0	0
		2.No	4	100
11	Speak in a manner which discourages questions.	1.Yes	3	75
		2.No	1	25

The data available in table 4.2 shows the responses on strategies on specific competition participation by the players. Accordingly, 3 (75%) of respondents (coaches) have responded that players were participate on strategies of competition, 1(25%) of respondent (coach) has responded players were not. From this data most of the coaches have good quality about the strategies because of taking players as part of their work to participate on strategies of competition. 4(100%) of respondents (coaches) have responded that actively participate on players personal problems, conflict resolution between team members, they (coaches) were prepared the plan independent of the athlete and they were appreciate when the player did a particular job. From the above results coaches were deeply follow their players. This is very important to players and coaches to improve team and individual performance. But on the other side coaches are serious on the practices and games plan. This is not advisable for coaches at this moment because players are not a part they can be reluctant on the training session. . 2(50%) of respondents (coaches) were participate players on decision making but 2(50%) of respondent (coaches) were not participate on decision making. In this case the later coaches can be right because players do not make decision in every aspect. 3(75%) of the respondents (coaches) were motivate players to give suggestion but 1(25%) of the respondent (coach) was not. this is very important issues, coaches must give chance to players due to gathering ample information and can be analyzed players attitude. 4(100%) of the respondents (coaches) were motivate players to play hard and practice diligently, they were asked players opinion on important coaching matters, and they (coaches) discourage players about informal relation from the coach. unnecessary relation is not advisable but some degree it is good because players may share about different issues that may help teammates and club result. With regard to manner 3(75%) of respondent (coaches) were not disappointed by players discourages questions, 1(25%) of respondent (coach) was angry with them. This indicate majority of coaches control their temper. Coaches must control his/her temper to create conducive atmosphere.

### 4.3 Approach of Coaches Characters

Players are very much worry about the character of his/her coach qualities to give attention his/her philosophy.

Table 4.3 Players opinion on their coaches characters

No	As soccer coach	Alternatives	players	
			No of respondent	%
1	Holds ethical beliefs and makes genuine Attempt to apply them in treatment of his players.	1.Yes	60	85.7
		2.No	10	14.3
2	Is able to exercise discipline without Being overly authoritarian?	1.Yes	65	92.85
		2.No	5	7.15
3	Has ability to resolve difference between players?	1.Yes	50	71.42
		2.No	20	28.58
4	Is able to motivate players to play hard And practice diligently?	1.Yes	70	100
		2.No	0	0
5	Sets a good example in terms of players Behavior and habit?	1.Yes	30	42.85
		2.No	40	57.15
6	Make decisions with welfare of entire Team in mind make genuine attempt to Be impartial and fair?	1.Yes	50	71.42
		2.No	20	28.58
7	Is able to use different types of leadership Styles depend on the situation?	1.Yes	35	50
		2.No	35	50
8	Is innovative, imaginative, realistic in Choosing system of operation?	1.Yes	55	78.57
		No	15	21.42
9	Does the coach appreciate when the Athlete did a particular job?	1.Yes	65	92.85
		2.No	5	7.15
10	Does he/she personal favors for the Athlete?	1.Yes	40	57.14
		2.No	30	42.85

As can be shown in table 4.3: on the base of ethical attempt to apply in treatment of their players, 60(85.7%) of the respondents (players) were happy with their coaches, 20(14.3%) of respondents did not. This indicate majority of players believe on ethics of their coaches. This is important because players may be dream to look like their coaches. 65(92.85%) the respondents (players) said that their coaches were not authoritarian, 5(7.15%) of the respondents (players) said their coaches were authoritarian. From this someone can conclude authoritarian leadership style did not prefer by those players.

With related to the ability to resolve differences among players, 50(71.42%) of the respondents (players) said their coaches were very nice in this regard, 20(28.58) of the respondents said their coaches were poor. 70(100%) of the respondents (players) said their coaches were motivate them. in this case coaches must be try explore different technique because it is critical to individual and team performance. 30(42.85%)of the respondents (players) said that their coaches were gave examples of good behavior players,40(57.15%) of the respondents (players) said their coaches were not gave examples good behavior. coaches must give examples about good behavior because it is very important to players. 35(50%) of the respondents (players) said their coaches were good in the aspect of used different leadership behavior depend on the situation, 35(50%) of the respondents (players) said their coaches were not used. Coaches have to use different types of behavior based on the situation due to enhance players interest at training session. 55(78.57%) of the respondents said their coaches were dynamic on system operation, 15(21.42%) of the respondents (players) said that their coaches were not dynamic in all aspects. Coaches dynamicity is important because players actively participate on the training and game time.65 (92.85%) of the respondents (players) said their coaches were appreciate when the player did a particular job, 5(7.15%) of the respondents (players) did not agree with them. Coaches must be appreciate due to players create another big moment. 40(57.14%) of the respondents (players) said their coaches did not make favors to players, 30(42.85%) of respondents (players) said they did. It is advisable sharing personal problem of the players.

#### **4.4 Players opinion on the coach -Athlete Relationship**

Coach-athlete relationship can have an effect on performance outcomes and players satisfaction. So that coaches give attention and carefully manage it.

No	As soccer player	Alternatives	players	
			No of respondent	%
1	Are you close to your coach?	1.Yes	45	64.28
		2.No	25	35.72
2	Are you committed to your coach?	1.Yes	58	82.85
		2.No	12	17.15
3	Are you motivate on training session?	1.Yes	61	87.14
		2.No	9	12.86
4	Are you trust with your coach?	1.Yes	62	88.57
		2.No	8	11.43
5	Do you think that your sport carrier Promising by your coach?	1.Yes	45	64.28
		2.No	25	35.72
6	Do you appreciate your coaches' Sacrifice in order to improve Performance?	1Yes	54	77.14
		2.No	16	22.86
7	Do you appreciate your coaches' Sacrifice in order to improve behavior?	1.Yes	40	57.15
		2.No	30	42.85
8	Are you adopt a friendly stance?	1.Yes	62	88.57
		2.No	8	14.43

As can be shown table 4.4 With regard to coach- athlete relationship 45(64.28) of the respondents (players) had good relationship from their coaches, 25(35.72%) of respondents (players) did not. It indicates there is understanding between them. Even if it is good coaches must be manage their relation. 58(82.85%) of the respondents (players) were committed on training session, 12(17.15%) of the respondents (players) were not committed on training session. It indicates there is gap on the plan which means coaches must be participate players at the time of plan preparation. 45(64.28%) of respondents (players) said their coaches had a role to be promising player with soccer, 25(35.72%) of respondents (players) said did not. It indicate coaches can't bring performance of players. 40(57.15%) of the respondents (players) were improved their behavior with aid their coaches, 30(42.85%) of the respondents (players) said did not. this shows good relationship has an impact on players 62(88.57%) of the respondents (players) had friendly stance from their coaches, 8(14.43%) of respondents did not.

Table 4.5 Coaches opinion on the coach - Athlete relationship

No	As soccer coach	Alternatives	coaches	
			No of respondent	%
1	Are you close to friendly to all your Players?	1. Yes	4	100
		2.No	0	0
2	Do you trust to all your players?	1. Yes	3	75
		2.No	1	25
3	Are you try to motivate your Players?	1. Yes	4	100
		2.No	0	0
4	Are angry if the players can't Perform well?	1. Yes	4	100
		2.No	0	0

As can be shown table 4.5 With regard to coach- athlete relationship from coaches perspective 4(100%) of the respondents (coaches) agree that there were friendly relationship from their players. When it compare coaches response from players response there is a gap between the two. This indicates one of the group gave wrong response. 3(75%) of the respondents (coaches) were believe with their players, 1(25%) of the respondent were not. It indicate majority of players selected by the coaches. 4(100%) of the respondents said at training and competition time they were tried to motivate their players. This indicates coaches know motivation is a key for performance enhancing. On the other side 4(100%) of the respondents (coaches) were angry when players couldn't perform well. It indicate all coaches need well performed players but all players can't be perform well so that coaches control their temper.

#### **4.6 Coaches Responsibility from Players Perspective**

The responsibility of the coach crucial for players because those players do not think with different direction. They try only to satisfy their emotion so coaches must follow them and give proper direction.

**Table 4.6 Coaches responsibility**

No	As soccer coach	Alternatives	Coaches	
			No of respondents	%
1	Are you treat each players fairly?	1.Yes	4	100
		2.No	0	0
2	Are you provide a safe environment for the players?	1.Yes	4	100
		2.No	0	0
3	Are you contribute positively to the development of each players self-esteem?	1.Yes	4	100
		2.No	0	0
4	Do you give regular feed back to the player	1.Yes	3	75
		2.No	1	25
5	Do you respect referees decision all time?	1.Yes	2	50
		2.No	2	50
6	Do you conduct respectfully from others coaches?	1.Yes	4	100
		2.No	0	0
7	Do you distribute a schedule of practices and games in a timely manner?	1.Yes	1	25
		2.No	3	75

As can be shown table 4.6 With regard to coach responsibility 4(100%) of respondents (coaches) said they were fairly treat all the players. This is nice for coaches and players to improve team performance, satisfaction of players, free from back bit etc. In the same way 4(100%) of respondents (coaches) were tried to provided safe environment for their players. This is coaches responsibility it is a must for coaches to give protection their players. 4(100%) of respondents (coaches) were contribute positively to the development of players self esteem. Coaches give advice to players not only about soccer but also their personal life. 3(75%) of the respondents (coaches) were give regular feed back to the players, 1(25%) of the respondent (coach) did not. Immediate and regular feedback is important to reduce their problems. So all coaches expected to tell feedback immediately. 2(50%) of the respondents (coaches) were respect referees decision, 2(50%) of the respondents (coaches) did not.4(100%) of the respondents (coaches) said there were nice time from other coaches. Only 1(25%) of the respondent (coach) were distribute schedule of practices and games in timely manner.

#### 4.7 Coaches Responsibility from players Perspective

It obvious that coaches have responsible for his/her players. They have to committed at every aspect otherwise players may be out of their control.

**Table 4.7 Players opinion on their coaches responsibility**

No	Item	Alternatives	Players	
			No of respondents	%
1	Does the coach treat each players fairly?	1.Yes	55	78.57
		2.No	15	21.43
2	Does the coach provide a safe environment to the players?	1Yes	65	92.85
		2No	5	7.15
3	Does the coach contribute positively to the development of players self-esteem?	1.Yes	46	65.71
		2.No	24	34.29
4	Does the coach give regular feedback to the players?	1.Yes	52	74.28
		2.No	18	25.72
5	Does the coach respect decision of the referee?	1.Yes	52	74.28
		2.No	18	25.72
6	Does the coach conduct respectfully from other coaches?	1.Yes	55	78.57
		2.No	15	21.43
7	Does the coach distribute a schedule of Practices and games in a timely manner?	1.Yes	5	7.15
		2.No	65	92.85

As can be shown table4.7 With regard to coaches responsibility with respect to players opinion 55(78.57%) of the respondents (players) said their coaches were treat each players fairly , 15(21.43%) of respondents (players) said they did not. It indicates there is gap between coaches and players. So that coaches identify the problems and solve as soon as possible. Otherwise they can disturb team sprit. 65(92.85%) of the respondents (players) said that coaches committed to provide safe environment, 5(7.15%) respondents said did not. It shows that majority of coaches did best by prepare facilities. 46(65.71%) of the respondents (players) said that their coaches help them to develop with different aspect. ,24(34.29%) of the respondents (players) said did not. It indicate coaches did not work hard with players selfesteem development. in case of regular feedback and respect decision of referee 52(74.28%) of the respondents (players) said their coaches were give feedback and respect decision of referee, 18(25%) of respondents (players) said did not. It indicates coaches didn't knows the importance of feedback but coaches must be

exercise give feedback to their players. 55(78.57%) of the respondents(players) said coaches were respect others, 15(21.43%) of respondents said not. 65(92.85%) of the respondents (players) said that their coaches were not distribute schedule of practices and games in timely manner, 5(7.15%) of respondents said that they did. Coaches must be distribute the schedules to players due to ready themselves for games and training.

#### 4.8 Players Satisfaction

Players satisfaction highly related to players performance outcomes and team result. Coaches must be try to satisfy his/her players otherwise they can reluctant at the training and game time.

**Table 4.8 Players opinion on satisfaction**

No	As a soccer players	Alternatives	Players	
			No of respondents	%
1	Do you fell free on the selection of best 11 players?	1.Yes	53	75.71
		2.No	17	24.29
2	Are you happy with players treatment by the coach?	1.Yes	54	77.14
		2.No	16	22.86
3	Do you feel happy with coaching philosophy of the coach?	1.Yes	52	74.28
		2.No	18	25.72
4	Are you happy with team performance?	1.Yes	58	82.85
		2.No	12	17.15
5	Are you happy with individual teammates performance?	1.Yes	56	80
		2.No	14	20
6	Are you satisfied with coach leadership behavior?	1.Yes	53	75.71
		2.No	17	24.29
7	Are you prefer/satisfied with female coaches?	1.Yes	25	35.71
		2.No	45	64.29
8	Are you satisfied/prefer with male coaches?	1.Yes	58	82.85
		2.No	12	17.15

As can shown table 4.8 With regard to players satisfaction on the perspective of players 53(75.71%) of the respondents (players) were happy on the selection best 11players, 17(24.29%) of the respondents (players) were not. It indicate coaches try to satisfy those players but he/she must solve the rest of the players otherwise may disturb the team.

54(77.14%) of the respondents (players) said that they were satisfy players treatment by the coaches, 16(22.86%) of the respondents (players) were not. In similar manner coaches have to solve the problems of the rest of players.52 (74.28%) of the respondents (players) were happy with coaching philosophy of their coaches, 28(25.72%) of the respondents (players) were not. this indicate coaches must revise or think about their philosophy.58(82.85%) of the respondents (players) were happy with their own team performance, 12(17.15%) of the respondents (players) were not. this can be dependent on club result. 56(80%) of the respondents (players) were satisfy individual teammates performance, 14(20%) of the respondents (players) were not. It holds true for this also. the issue which is related to leadership behavior 53(75.71%) of the respondents (players) were satisfy , 17(24.29%) of the respondents (players) were not. Attitude of players on leadership vary through process .It may not be clearly understand about it.

#### 4.9 Leadership Styles

Coach leadership style is the key for players as well as the team result. There are so many benefit for players, coaches, clubs, even nation wide. so coaches must be careful about their leadership style.

Table 4.9 Players opinion on leadership styles of coaches

No	As soccer player	Alternatives	Players	
			No of respondent	%
1	Is autocratic leadership is better for Performance outcomes than others?	1.Yes	12	17.14
		2.No	58	82.86
2	Is participatory leadership is better for performance outcomes than others?	1.Yes	67	95.71
		2.No	3	4.29
3	Is motivational leadership is better for performance outcomes than others?	1.Yes	68	97.14
		2.No	2	2.86
4	Is laissz-faire leadership is better for performance outcomes than others?	1.Yes	3	4.29
		2.No	67	95.71

5	Is decision making leadership is better for performance outcomes than others?	1.Yes	70	100
		2.NO	0	0
6	Is democratic leadership is better for performance outcomes?	1.Yes	69	98.57
		2.No	1	1.43

As can be shown table 4.9 With regard to leadership behavior styles on the perspective of players, only 12(17.14%) of the respondents (players) were prefer autocratic coach, 58(82.86%) of the respondents (players) were not. This imply that autocratic coach are not preferable. Almost all 67(95.71%) of the respondents (players) were prefer participatory coach, only 3(4.29%) of the respondents (players) were not. In similar manner 68(97.14%) of the respondents (players) were prefer motivational coach, 2(2.86%) of the respondents (players) were not. On the contrary only 3(4.29%) of the respondents (players) were prefer laissz-faire coach, 67(95%) of the respondents (players) were not. all of the respondents 70(100%) of them prefer decision making coach. 69(98.57%) of the respondents (players) were prefer democratic coach, 1(1.43%) of the respondent (player) were not. Except laissz-faire all the remaining styles are highly prefer all most by all players.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

This chapter deals with an overview of the purpose and procedures of the study, major findings, conclusions and recommendations forwarded.

#### **5.1 SUMMARY**

The game of soccer is one of the most popular team sports worldwide. Now a day's soccer is a function of quality (scientific) leadership styles. Scientific (quality) leadership styles are complex but important issue in competitive sport, especially in sports like soccer in which the ability to organize has significant commercial implications for clubs and players as well as for the country. However, little is known about how Coaches conceptualize quality (scientific) leadership styles for successful performance outcomes and players satisfaction.

The purpose of this study was examine the role with relationship of leadership styles to performance outcomes and players satisfaction of women premier league soccer clubs coaches participant in Addis Ababa Administrative city.

In this study all possible efforts were made to get the most probable answers to the basic questions by making strong review of related literature, collecting relevant information through questionnaire, unstructured interview and observation. To this end, this study has the following specific objectives:

Identify the effect of leadership styles on performance outcomes

Provide coaches with a better awareness of the effect of leadership styles

Provide a healthy competitive atmosphere, recognition of respect towards others

Research questions

1. What types of leadership styles of soccer have great effect on performance outcomes
2. What are leadership strategies of athletic coaching
3. What are the relationship between coaching styles and leadership styles

#### 4. What is the impact of coach leadership on female development through soccer

The study employed descriptive survey method. Relevant literatures were reviewed and data collecting instruments were designed and used to collect information from different sources. Questionnaire was the major instrument of data collection. To increase the clarity of questionnaires, check the clarity of language and pilot testing has been carried out. After identify collecting the responses from respondents, necessary correction and modifications were made before distribution of the actual data gathering. Four women premier league participant clubs (St. Gorge, Dedebit, St. mary university and Commercial Bank of Ethiopia) of Addis Ababa Administrative city women premier league clubs (coaches and players) were included in the sample area of the study. The subjects of the study were selected from four clubs. 100 club players, 4 coaches were included as a source of information for the study.

From the data analysis the major findings obtained are summarized as follows:

1. The study showed that 3 coaches are male only 1 is female sex.
2. With regard to year of experience in coaching, from the total of four coaches, 2(50%) 1-5 and 2(50%) of in the range between 6-10 years.
3. While the current level of the coaches license indicated that, 3(75%) of coaches have B coaching license, and 1(25%) of coach C coaching license.
4. With regard to the educational level and qualification of coaches, 2(50%) diploma in physical education and sports, 1 (25%) grade 12 complete, and 1 (25%) masters in football coaching. In addition to this, the study indicated that, all coaches have less opportunity getting leadership enhancing courses.
5. According to the respondents about responsibility of their players 4(100%) of the coaches were responsible. this shows that they give attention to players.
6. With regarding the responsibility of coaches on the perspectives of players and coaches there is slight gap. Which means the response compatibility is low. 4(100%) of coaches said that they were very much responsible to their players but 57(81.14%) of players said that their coaches were responsible.
7. Findings indicated that, all coaches assume that they were follow professional leadership but majority of coaches lead their players with traditional way.

8. Findings also indicated that, players focuses on their performance to be selected in best 11 squad than others important variables like discipline, respect, and humbleness.
9. With regarding to relationship respondents respond 62 (88.57%) players said that there were friendly stance from their coaches but 4(100%) of coaches responds there were close relationship from their players.
10. Regarding to satisfaction majority of the players satisfied on selection of best 11 players and others issues but there are numbers of players were not satisfied.
11. As it has been observed in leadership style all of 70 (100%) of players were prefer decision making coach. This shows that players are inspire with confidential coach.

## **5.2 Conclusion**

The main goal or objective of women soccer should be the development of coaches. This program must be contribute to the main clubs as a source of coaches; hence, it should focus on leadership styles of coaches, and players need to keep in mind in decisions that are made at the club or the team.

One of the aspects that help to assure quality (scientific) leadership to develop the performance outcomes of soccer is the effectiveness of coaches. The coach is the most important resource in a leadership system of a modern society. He /she play a major role in the delivery of quality leadership which has a scientific base. The essential condition for the development of soccer performance thus depends on the specific improvement on general leadership preparation for the highest level. This is particularly an important requirement in the game of soccer, where the players have to master complex techniques if their performance has to reach excellence.

The majority of coaches and players were not clearly understand coaching philosophy and leadership. Because both of them integrated from one another. On the other hand 2(50%) of coaches did not give great attention on their leadership but both of them very much careful on formation and selection of players. Coaches ‘that understand their own athletes‘ preferences for coaching behaviors may be more effective at maintaining and/or improving athlete satisfaction. The main purpose of this study was to investigate what

effect has come to players due to coaching behavior of their coach, the relationship between coaches' behaviors, and levels of satisfaction experienced by soccer players in the country and to examine how coaches' behavior were related to satisfaction. The many varied managerial function of coach including, organizing, budgeting, scheduling, recruiting, public relations, leadership, etc. Of these, leadership is defined by as the behavioral process of influencing individuals and group towards set goals is the most significant because others functions are performed away from the actual coaching context. The leadership provided by the coach is mainly instrumental in enhancing the motivational state of the group and in turn the motivational state of the group is the ultimate basis of performance effectiveness. Decision making and democratic leadership styles are best for performance outcomes and other issues. Most of the players prefer male coaches than female. It is not depend on gender difference rather their character and players handling techniques of female coaches are poor. On the other side most male coaches also highly concentrate on their coaching philosophy than leadership. But leadership is a key factor on modern soccer so that coaches must be think about it. Most of coaches know theoretical concept of leadership but they are not apply practically exhaustively. Majority of coaches did not apply leadership strategies in a proper manner.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

Based on the conclusions derived from the findings of the data analyzed, the following recommendations were made as possible ways of the problems observed.

- Coaches must give grate attention for leadership styles because coaching philosophy alone does give or provide the ultimate goals or objectives.

Some of the players did not participate actively on the training, so that coaches must be identify his/her players problems the reason why players do not actively participate on training.

- Coaches must ready to be learn from their players at the training or competition time.
- Coaches must give the chance of players to participate the schedule of practices and games. Because if players be apart they do not complain

about it. On the other side players very much to participate on training session.

- Decision the coaches must fair to all players to make the team spirit nice.
- The relationship between coaches and players must have some gap otherwise at some point may not follow coaches instructions.
- Coaches must use scientific ( quality) of leadership depending up on .a particular situation. Unless you have to use this most of the players are bored about it.
- To enhance the performance of players coaches must understand players behavior to use different types of leadership styles.
- The responsibility of the coaches is not limited they must be give great attention to support the players in different aspects.
- Coaches and players must think about quality, leadership and character of the individual than gender.
- Coaches must be understand the difference between athletic caching and leadership.
- Coaches have a chance to change their players with many aspect being themselves smart.
- Sport federation must be arrange courses about sport leadership for the coaches at once in a year.
- Now a day scientific leadership important to improve not only the performance but also their personalities. So coaches uses different types of coaching leadership styles.
- coaches must understand about leadership strategies and follow it properly
- coaches try to develop their players not only physically but also mentally.
- Coaches must be integrated athletic coaching from their leadership in order to enhance players capability
- There is no single type of leadership style that has an effect of performance outcomes. Coaches must use different types of leadership styles depending up on the situation.

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7. What is your educational level and qualification?

Grade ten complete

Twelve complete

Certificate level

Diploma

Degree

Masters and above

8. If your educational level is above diploma, what was your area of study?

Physical education

Teaching in other subjects

Coaching

If it is out of the above please write it \_\_\_\_\_

9. Did you have a chance of getting performance enhancing course?

Yes

No

10. If your answer is yes for question number 9, how many times a year?

Please specify it \_\_\_\_\_

11. Do you have an assistant coach?

Yes

No

12. If your answer is yes for question number 11, what is his/her educational level?

Grade 10 complete

Twelve complete

certificate

Diploma

Degree

master and above

## **Appendix-2**

**Addis Ababa University  
School of Graduate Studies  
Faculty of Life Science  
Department of Sport Science**

### **Part Two: coaches' perception of own behavior**

**Direction Two: Each of the following statement describe a specific behavior that a coach my exhibit. For each statement there are five alternatives.**

1. Always
2. Often (about 75% of the time)
3. Occasionally (50% of the time)
4. Seldom (about 25% of the time)
5. Never

For each item, please check the appropriate response indicating which behavior best represents your leadership style in football. There are no rights or wrong answers. Your first response is most likely the best response. Your spontaneous and honest responses are important for the success of the study.

Thank you for participating.

<b>As a foot ball coach</b>	<b>never</b>	<b>seldom</b>	<b>occasionally</b>	<b>always</b>
Ask for the opinion of the athletes on strategies for specific competitions.				
Help athletes with their personal problems				
Explain to each athlete the techniques and tactics of sport.				
Plan relatively independent of the athletes.				
Help members of the group settle their conflicts				
Tell an athlete when the athlete does a particularly good job.				
Let the athlete share in the decision making				
Encourage athletes' to make suggestions for ways to conduct practices.				
Do you able to motivate player to play hard and practice diligently?				
Ask for the opinion of the athletes on important coaching matters				
Encourage close and informal relations with athletes				
Keep aloof from the athletes.				
Speak in a manner which discourages questions.				

## Appendix-3

**Addis Ababa University**  
**School of Graduate Studies**  
**Faculty of Life Science**  
**Department of Sport Science**

### Questionnaire for players

This questionnaire is designed to gather data to coaches/ leadership styles and its contribution to them. The case of Addis Ababa women premier league football participant clubs. Since the success of the study depends on the response that you provide. I will ask your genuine and accurate response to each of the items. I would like to assure you that your response and answers remain strictly confidential.

### Part one:

**Direction one:- The following questions are about coaches leadership styles to aid the coaches in becoming a more effective coach.**

Name of the coach being evaluated Sport \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

### Instruction to Rater

1. Do not put your name on this form
2. Make sure your assessment of the coaches performance applies only to the season just completed this is the period of present.
3. Rate the coaches' ability on each item 1 thoughts as follow or circle number 6 which indicates that the item does not apply in the sport being dealt with.

1. Excellent
  2. Good
  3. Average
  4. Below average
  5. Poor
  6. Item does not apply.
4. check your squad status \_\_\_\_\_ Regular \_\_\_\_\_ substitute
  5. Indicate your year in club \_\_\_\_\_

1	2	3	4	5	6	1. Holds ethical beliefs and makes genuine attempt to apply them in treatment of his players.
1	2	3	4	5	6	2. Makes decisions with welfare of entire team in mnds makes genuine attempt to be impartial and fair.
1	2	3	4	5	6	3. is able to exercise discipline without being overly authoritarian.
1	2	3	4	5	6	4. Has ability to resolve differences between layers.
1	2	3	4	5	6	5. is innovative, imaginative, and realistic in choosing systems of operation (offense, defense, etc)
1	2	3	4	5	6	6. is bale to motivate players to play hard and practice diligently.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7. sets a good example in terms of personal behavior and habits.
1	2	3	4	5	6	8. is able to use different types of leadership styles depend on the situation.
1	2	3	4	5	6	9. tell an athlete when the athlete does a particularly good job.
1	2	3	4	5	6	10. do personnel favors for the athlete.

**Appendix-4**  
**Addis Ababa University**  
**School of Graduate Studies**  
**Faculty of Life Science**  
**Department of Sport Science**

**Direction: Open ended questions.**

1. What is the response of your coach when you are late on training program?

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2. Does the coach develop a strong team attitude and sprit among team members?

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3. What types of leadership best to you? Justify?

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4. Do you think that a leadership style has positive or negative effect on performance of the athletes and outcomes of club result? If you say yes, how?

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5. What are your thoughts concerning “relationship building?”

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**Part Two. The coach – Athlete Relationship questionnaire.**

Direction Two: this questionnaire aims to measure the quality and content of the coach athlete relationship. Please read carefully the statements below and circle the answer that indicates whether you agree or disagree. There is no right or wrong answers. Please respond to the statements as honestly as possible and relevant to how personally feel with your principal coach.

Thank you!

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Moderately agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
1. I am close to my coach	1	2	3
2. I am committed to my coach	1	2	3
3. I like my coach	1	2	3
4. I trust my coach	1	2	3
5. I think that my sport carrier is			
Promising with my coach	1	2	3
6. I appreciate my coaches' scarifies			
in order to improve performance	1	2	3
7. When I am coached by my coach,			
I adopt a friendly stance.	1	2	3

## Appendices-6

observation check list

No	item	alternatives	
		Yes	No
	1.1. Responsibility of coaches		
1	Does the coach provide a safe environment to		
	The players?		
2	Does the coach give regular feedback to the		
	Players?		
	1.2.Coache-athlete relationship(as of players)		
1	Are you close your coach?		
2	Are you adopt a friendly stance?		
3	Are you trust with your coach		
	1.3. Players satisfaction		
1	Are you happy on the selection of best 11		
	Players?		
2	Are you players treatment by the coach?		
3	Are you satisfied with coach leadership behavior?		
4	Are you prefer male coach than female?		
	1.4. Coaches behavior		
1	Help the athlete with their personal problem?		
2	Plan relatively independent of the athlete?		
3	Encourage athletes to make suggestions for		
	Ways of conducting practice?		
	1.5. Leadership styles		
1	Are you prefer an autocratic coach?		
2	Are you prefer decision making coach?		
3	Are prefer democratic coach?		
4	Are you prefer motivational coach?		

## **Appendix-7**

**Addis Ababa University**

**School of Graduate Studies**

**Faculty of Life Science**

**Department of Sport Science**

### **Unstructured Interview Guide for coaches**

1. Is there any similarity between coaching philosophy and leadership styles?
2. Does it have an advantage that you apply different types of leadership styles with in different situations?
3. What do you think about the contribution of leadership styles to performance outcomes and players satisfaction?
4. What do you understand about leadership strategies?
5. Does coach leadership has an impact on female players through soccer?

## Declaration

I declared that this thesis is my own original work and has not been presented for any degree and that all sources of materials used for the study have been duly acknowledged.

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

This thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as a university advisor.

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_