

**TEAM COHESION AND ITS CONTRIBUTION IN ENHANCING
TEAM PERFORMANCE THE CASE OF: WOLITA DICHA MEN
FOOTBALL CLUB.**

By:

AFEWORK ASALE

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE
STUDIES OF ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTERS OF SCIENCE IN SPORT SCIENCE.**

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the contribution of team cohesion and its contribution in enhancing team performance in addition to the changes that occur in club athletes' perceptions of team cohesion and collective efficacy and performance during a season. Additionally, the strength and direction of the relationship between collective team performance and team cohesion was tested. To test these relationships, for Wolaita Dicha Sport Club a series of questionnaires were administered to 26 Club Player's and three coaches, organized interview were asked club team leader, directorate director and president and sequenced observation go ahead in their practical session period in the early season. Multivariate multiple regression analyses indicated that increases in players' perceptions of team cohesion and collective team performance over the season were positively correlated with perceptions of their coaches, team leader, director and president.

The findings from this study indicate certain aspects of coaching behavior that were related to athletes' perceptions of team dynamics, as well as the changes that occur in these perceptions over the course of a season. These results then provide support for the notion that coaches play a significant role in the psycho-social development of athletes, as well as within team environments. The actual team cohesion of Wolayita Dicha Sport Club was uncountable. The results indicate that cohesion has a moderate-strength relationship with team performance and a high-strength relationship with team satisfaction. A number of constructs were identified as moderators to these relationships. The results from this study can be applied in practice. Organizations and virtual team leaders should invest time and effort in developing cohesion within their virtual teams. Conditions such as being in a globally distributed team environment and multiple communications media choices require a more cohesive virtual team.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

A primary focus within the field of sport psychology is to enhance the athletic experience for those that are involved. In order to enhance the athletic experience, it is important to first be aware of those factors that may impact, both positively and negatively, an athlete's perception of his or her experience. Team cohesion focuses on how being a part of a group influences performance as well as how psycho-social factors influence group behavior, group performance better and group members are most satisfied when they are cohesive that is, they stick together remain united in pursuing goals. Cohesion is facilitated by emphasizing uniqueness or a positive identity related to group membership and also when individual team members understand and accept their role within group.

For most athletic experiences, athletes are members of groups or teams. These groups have a strong impact on the members of the group. Although this impact can be both positive and negative, an athlete's involvement in a group is inevitable. Carron, Hausenblas, and Eys (2005) have defined a sport team as a collection of two or more individuals who share a common fate, have structured patterns of communication, and hold common perceptions about group structure. When looking at sport teams, the substitute player, coach, team captain and team clown all have something in common besides belonging to a team. Each of these persons has a certain role that he or she is expected to fulfill on their team. Roles have been defined by a number of researchers as a set of expectations about certain behaviors for a specific position in a particular social context (e.g., Biddle & Thomas, 1966; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Shaw, 1971). Carron, Hausenblas, and Eys (2005) noted that in groups whose purpose is to strive towards peak performance, roles make a crucial contribution to the structure of these groups.

Although the research on roles in sport groups is growing, much of the research that has been done is drawn from the organizational and business/industrial literature. That being said, the research that has been conducted in the sport domain has highlighted the importance of individual roles within the environment of the sport team (Eys, Beauchamp, & Bray, in press). If athletes have specific roles they are expected to fulfill and they do not accept or are not satisfied

with these roles, then they may view the team as less cohesive or they may not be satisfied with their athletic experience.

Chelladurai and Riemer (1997) defined athlete satisfaction as a positive affective state that results from a complex evaluation of the structures, processes, and outcomes associated with the athletic experience. Athlete satisfaction with sport is important for several reasons. Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) noted some of these reasons, such as the link between satisfaction and performance, the importance of the athlete to athletic programs, and the relationship between satisfaction and other constructs in the group dynamics framework (e.g., cohesion and leadership).

Wolaita have a long history related with football and the famous club Wolaita Tussa has emerged in 1998 which initiates the people of Wolaita by winning different competition and the club stays only three years. Wolaita Tussa Club disappears by the problem of team cohesion and the administration, coaches and players coordination. Since 2009 the Wolaita people struggle is to re-build the disappeared team and their aim was successful in this year with Wolaita Dicha Sport Club.

1.2. Statement of the Problems

The study deals with the team cohesion and its contribution in enhancing team performance and tried to investigate the problem of group dynamic, social and task cohesion, team structure, athlete satisfaction and interpersonal relationships.

Hence it is necessary to clearly understand and to find out the problems of team cohesion with coach and players interests to improve the player's participation and knowledge, through a research.

So, what are the interests of players towards team cohesion process of the club and with an ultimate aim of developing the physical and mental qualities the player, what does the training process of football contribute to the realization of the objective of physical education program.

Hence, this research is the issues that the researcher needs to deal on selected club and sodo and Boditti city in Wolaita Zone.

1.3. Basic Research Questions

The study would answer the following basic research questions.

- ❖ What is the actual team cohesion within the team?
- ❖ Do coaches have enough knowledge about the importance of team cohesion and its contribution in enhancing team performance?
- ❖ Is there any social and task cohesion, in the case of degree with which one has a contribution?
- ❖ How is the interpersonal relationship of a team and a coach?

1.4. Objective of the Study

1.3.1. General Objective

To study the team cohesion and its contributions in enhancing team performance in selected Wolyita Dicha Football Club.

1.3.2. Specific objectives:

- To assess the team cohesion in relation to their performance
- To find out the social and task cohesion of the team.
- To investigate the range of a coach in enhancing the performance using the team cohesion
- To measure the relationship between the coach and players in enhancing their performance.
- To investigate whether team cohesion can be able to enhance the team performance in the team and psychological change in a club.

1.5. Significance Of The Study

The concept of cohesion in relation to performance in sport is a complex and important area of research for the sport.

- The study helps to know the influence of athletes' behavior on Team cohesion.
- The findings of the study may help the coaches in finalization of training Schedules which suits to athletes' environment.

- The results of the study may be helpful to find out the weakness and drawbacks of different teams for positive group environment.
- The study will reveal the extent to which success of a team is influenced by group cohesion.
- It can also be used as the reference for study of similar subject for the next generation.

1.6. Delimitation of the study

The study is delimited in scope in terms of study area. Regarding the study area, it is restricted to Wolaita Dicha Sport Club in sub-cities Sodo and Boditti in Wolyita Zone is purposively selected because social stratification, cultural practices, transport accessibility, compiling the whole Zone and experiences among Wolaita people are almost similar throughout the zone. In addition, since the researcher is the part of the study area, it was be easy to see and analyze the data from reality.

1.7.Limitation of the Study

Some of the problems which limited my study are:

- ❖ Lack of update reference materials in the study.
- ❖ Lack time constrain.
- ❖ Financial problem.
- ❖ Unwillingness of players in fulfilling the question on time returns the questionnaire back.

1.8. Definition of Key Terms

Group: - a number of people or things that are located, gathered, or classed together.

Group cohesion: - is a dynamic process where the group tends to remain together and united in the pursuit of its goal for the satisfaction of the affective needs of group members.

Performance: - the accomplishment of a given task measured against preset known standards of accuracy, completeness, cost and speed.

Social Cohesion: - the level of friendship and mutual trust and support between team members.

Sports: - an activity that is governed by a set of rules involving physical exertion and skill in which an individual or team competes against another or others.

Tactic: - an action or strategy carefully planned to achieve a specific end of disposing armed forces in order of battle and of organizing operations.

Task Cohesion: - the level of commitment to work together as a team to achieve common objectives.

Team: - refers to groups of people who interact through interdependent tasks guided by a common purpose.

Team cohesion: - it focuses on how being a part of a group influences performance as well as how psycho-social factors influence group behavior, group performance better and group members are most satisfied when they are cohesive that is, they stick together remain united in pursuing goals.

Technic: - a way of carrying out a particular task, especially the execution or performance of an artistic work or a scientific procedure.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter begins with an overview of group dynamics, followed by an overview of roles within sport teams, and then progresses to a review of the literature regarding team cohesion, the contribution of team cohesion, and role acceptance and role satisfaction.

2.1.Groups

As social animals, we spend a considerable amount of our time in groups. A group has been defined by Moorhead and Griffin (1998) as ‘two or more persons who interact with one another such that each person influences and is influenced by each other person’ (p 291). A team is more than just a group. Moorhead & Griffin define a team as ‘a small number of people with complementary skills who are committed to a common purpose, common performance goals, and an approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable’ (p 293). A team in the broader sense is not *necessarily* a group, because the members of a team can be working for a common aim without ever coming into contact with one another. For example, the British Olympic Team is clearly devoted to a common purpose, but it is not necessarily a group, because its members *could* fulfill their team roles without swimmers, boxers and long-distance runners ever meeting and directly influencing one another. Usually, however, when we refer to a team in sport psychology we are also referring to a group of people who play together and have a powerful influence on each other. For this reason, the terms *group* and *team* are sometimes used interchangeably.

Social groupings are part of the human’s relationship with society. Groups have power and a culture, distinct to itself. Groups contain characteristics that are common to every other group, but they also possess characteristics unique to the group in question (Eys, Burke, Carron, and Dennis, 2006). A group has a common fate to its members, a mutual benefit for members, social structure, group processes, and self-categorization. Common fate means that the whole team wins or the whole team loses. It is the team identity. Mutual benefit refers to the victory, the individual recognitions, and the privileges of participation in the group. The social structure incorporates the roles, positions, and the status of respective members. The group processes refers to the communication, cooperation, task performance, and the social interactions within

the group. This is personal and task interdependence. Self-categorization is the individual value a person feels in the collective group, making the person part of the team.

A group is not merely a collection of people. The latter is a crowd. Alvin Zander (cited in Eys et al., 2006) describes a group as a set of individuals who interact and depend on each other. He further describes group members as being willing to help other group members and relying on help from other group members. These group members refer to their group as *we* and other groups as *they*. To this end, coaches are advised to emphasize the reference to *us*, not *me and them*. The terms *group* and *cohesion* are tautological; if a group exists then cohesion exists.

2.2.Group formation

Merely placing a collection of individuals together does not in itself create a group or a team. Tuckman & Jensen (1977) suggested that when groups come together they go through five distinct stages. In the first, *forming* stage, the group members get to know each other, and basic rules for the conduct of group members are established. In the second, *storming* stage, members compete for status in the group, and group members take on different roles. In the third, *forming* stage, the group settles down, and group members develop attachments to each other and to the group. In the fourth, *performing* stage, the group members become oriented toward the task they have come together for, and begin to achieve their goals. In the final, *adjourning* stage, the task of the group has been accomplished, and it drifts apart. As Sutton (1994) points out, although this model of group formation is useful, not all groups operate in this manner. For example, in football, unless a new team is being started, it is unusual for a group to form in the way described by Tuckman & Jensen (1977) because new players join the team at different intervals. For an individual player joining an *existing* team, things are likely to be rather different.

2.3.Group cohesion

The word cohesion literally means *sticking together*. Festinger et al (1950) defined group cohesion as the sum of the forces that influence members in whether to remain part of a group. A highly cohesive group is likely to be more united and committed to success than a group low in cohesion. It is often said that a team is more than just the sum of the individual players. This is because the cohesiveness of a team can be just as important as the talent of individual team members.

If you are a follower of football or rugby, you might have noticed that, in certain seasons, teams composed of brilliant individual performers collectively underperform. This is probably due to the fact that the team members have somehow failed to ‘gel’ together. This is an example of lack of cohesion.

Group cohesion is a dynamic process where the group tends to remain together and united in the pursuit of its goal or the satisfaction of the affective needs of group members (Paskevich, Estabrooks, Brawley, and Carron, 2001). It is multidimensional, dynamic, instrumental, and affective. Individual and group aspects of cohesion are based on the beliefs and perceptions of individual group members. Group integration concerns the beliefs that individual members hold about the team. Individual attractions to the group relates to the member’s beliefs about what attracted him to the team. These two categories are each subdivided into task and social orientations. These things together create an individual and group sense of team cohesion. A highly cohesive group is more likely to be united and committed to success than a group with low cohesion (Jarvis, 2006).

2.3.1. Collective efficacy

High cohesiveness is likely to be a function of members’ beliefs that, together, they can effectively accomplish the tasks they need to for their team to be successful. Such beliefs have been labeled collective efficacy (Bandura, 1986) and defined as a team property that reflects the members’ confidence that collectively they can perform a particular task or mission well (Zaccaro, Blair, Peterson, & Zazanis, 1995). As members feel more confident in their team’s capabilities, they are more motivated to work hard for the team, persist in the face of collective obstacles, and are willing to accept more difficult challenges. Such teams also set more difficult goals and are more committed to these goals (Weldon & Weingart, 1993).

Consequently, under extreme adversity, highly efficacious teams should perform better than groups having low collective efficacy.

A common theme in this literature is that higher collective efficacy enhances the likelihood that team members will approach, persist at, and ultimately succeed on difficult team tasks. A rationale for the influence of collective efficacy can be derived from an extension of the resource allocation model (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989) to team performance processes. The resource allocation model has been used to explain attention allocation by individuals to different tasks in

performance situations. When in such situations, individuals make choices first about whether to allocate attention and resources to goal attainment and task performance.

Such choice making reflects distal motivational processes. Once the choice is made to allocate resources to performance (i.e., to engage the task; Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989), individuals then decide on the amount and distribution of attention and effort among performance requirements. This second choice process reflects proximal motivational processes. Proximal motivational processes are regulated in part by the judgments and beliefs individuals have about their competency to achieve desired performance levels (i.e., their self-efficacy).

Similar processes operate in teams when confronting performance tasks. Teams decide to allocate resources to performance and engage the task. Then, decisions are made among team members about where to allocate team resources across performance requirements. We argue that an important extension of the resource allocation model to team performance is that the allocation of ‘team attention’ to performance reflects not only a cognitive process occurring within team members, but also an interpersonal process occurring across team members. The allocation of team effort influences communication dynamics among team members and increases (or decreases) their correspondence with team performance. In effect, team resource allocation toward or away from the task influences the degree of process loss (Steiner, 1972) that is reflected in team communication.

Strong collective efficacy beliefs result in a higher likelihood that team members will engage the task and choose to allocate attention and team resources to its accomplishment (i.e., such beliefs influence distal motivational processes). We would also argue that collective efficacy is linked to the degree of process loss exhibited in team communication—specifically, high efficacy increases the correspondence between particular team communication processes and team performance. This influence reflects proximal motivational processes that regulate team action in the face of emerging team goal–performance discrepancies. Strong efficacy beliefs heighten team members’ attention to performance cues, in particular, whether the team is meeting the sub-goals necessary for overall success. Such beliefs facilitate a more fine-grained attunement to changes in ongoing performance conditions, leading to corresponding changes in team communication processes. The result is that the frequency of certain communication patterns is linked to increased or decreased performance.

2.4. Elements of group cohesion

Widmeyer et al (1985) distinguished between two different aspects of team cohesion. Each member of a team has a view of the team as a unit (this is known as the members' *group integration*) and of every individual within it (this is called the *individual attractions*). The members may also have different perceptions of the team and its members as regards their sporting performance and their social interactions. In other words, you can think of your teammates quite differently as individuals and as a team, and as people and co-competitors. We might, for example, see them as socially unpleasant both individually and collectively but as effective co-competitors. Carron et al (1985) devised a psychometric test, the Group Environment Questionnaire (GEQ), which can be used to measure team cohesiveness. The GEQ considers group integration and individual attractions, and both the task achievement and the social life of a team.

2.5. Group Dynamics

The term "group dynamics" is used in research on sport teams because teams are groups characterized by energy, vitality, growth, and development; and they are dynamic, in that they are always changing (Carron, Hausenblaus, & Eys, 2005). Within group dynamics, frameworks have been proposed to aid in the examination of the groups. Frameworks, or models, are very useful tools in that they are a simplified representation of reality (Carron, Hausenblaus, & Eys, 2005). They allow us to simplify complex topics into concepts that are more easily explained and understood. Frameworks also allow us to make assumptions about how individual components of models are related. This aids in giving us direction for research because it helps clarify what is known and unknown about certain phenomenon. Finally, outputs refer to individual outcomes such as individual satisfaction and adherence and group products, such as team outcome (e.g., performance) and group stability. This study was focus on how the group structure, specifically roles within groups, impact and/or relate to team cohesion, and also how group structure and team cohesion impact individual outcomes, specifically athlete satisfaction. Athlete satisfaction and team cohesion are being studied as a starting point for examining the nature of the interactions within this model because they are prominent outcomes in sport and exercise psychology and because it is not possible to examine every aspect of the model in this study.

Groupthink

The presence of others affects us in many ways, not just in our arousal levels and efforts. One other way in which we differ when alone or in a group is in the way we make decisions. Janis (1982) identified the phenomenon of groupthink, which occurs when group cohesion is so great that it prevents group members, from voicing opinions that go against the majority. Groupthink can cause serious problems for teams, because the entire team can become so focused on a particular goal that important considerations of practicality and safety are abandoned.

Janis (1982) described the symptoms of groupthink. The group feels that it cannot make a wrong decision, and that fate will support it. Group members decide not to 'rock the boat' by arguing with the majority. Those who do argue are made to conform, or ignored. Searle (1996) suggested that groupthink might have contributed to the loss of six climbers on K 2 in 1995. Three combined teams of climbers continued to press on toward the summit, despite clearly dangerous and worsening conditions, resulting in the deaths of six climbers. One of the survivors was quoted as saying, 'The most dangerous thing about groups is that everyone hands over responsibility for themselves to someone else.' It appears that, because of the desire to complete the climb, the group went into groupthink and ignored the danger.

2.6. Leadership and Group

Leadership has been defined by Moorhead and Griffin (1998) as 'the use of non-coercive influence to direct and coordinate the activities of group members to meet a goal' (p 352). Leadership may be informal or formal. When we appoint a team coach and a captain, we know that they have formal leadership roles. However, other team members might also take on informal roles in which they influence and inspire others. For many years, psychologists have been concerned with who becomes a leader and how they carry out their role. In the remainder of this chapter, we shall examine both of these issues.

2.6.1. Leadership style

There is more than one way to lead people. An early but still influential distinction is that between authoritarian, laissez-faire and democratic styles of leadership (Lewin et al 1939). The *authoritarian* leader makes decisions alone and expects unquestioning obedience from the group. This approach has advantages and disadvantages in support. The main advantage is that team members can still be directed toward purposeful action when they are exhausted, stressed and disillusioned.

However, an authoritarian leadership has its costs. Other group members are often denied what would be useful input to decision making, and, in the absence of the leader, the members may have difficulty in motivating themselves.

By contrast, the *laissez-faire* leader leaves group members to get on with the task at hand without interference. Such leaders may assist individuals, but do not attempt to organise or motivate the group as a whole. Whilst being a member of a group with *laissez-faire* leadership might allow you to explore your talents without being unnecessarily restricted, leaders who can operate *only* in a *laissez-faire* manner often fail to motivate groups to achieve their potential or cope with crises.

Lewin's third category, the *democratic* leader, can be seen as a halfway house between authoritarian and *laissez-faire* styles. The democratic leader takes decisions and enforces them, but decisions always take account of the views of the rest of the group. Democratic leadership can cause difficulties when very rapid decision making is required in an emergency, but in most cases this is the most successful style of leadership. Lewin has offered a useful approach to understanding how leaders may operate. This does not mean, however, that a leader can operate in only one way. Lewin believed that each style of leadership works in different situations, and that the best leaders can use all three styles as appropriate.

2.6.2. Theories of leadership

2.6.2.1. Trait theories

Early psychological approaches to leadership emphasized the importance of being a certain type of person that is, having certain *personality traits* (see Chapter 2), in order to be a good leader. This great-person approach depends on three main assumptions. Firstly, all successful leaders have certain personality traits in common.

Secondly, the rest of us 'mere mortals' do not share the characteristics of great leaders. Thirdly, the traits that make someone a leader in one situation will also enable that person to lead successfully in quite different situations. Researchers have attempted for many years to find out what traits make a good leader. Although there appears to be no set of personality traits that are necessary to be a leader, there are certain characteristics that are found in a large number of successful leaders, and which appear to be helpful in leading others. Kirkpatrick & Locke (1991) identified the following eight characteristics associated with successful leadership: drive (ambition and persistence), honesty, motivation to lead, self-confidence, intelligence, expertise in

the purpose of the group, creativity (imagination and originality) and flexibility. Kirkpatrick & Locke concluded that 'leaders do not have to be great men or women by being intellectual geniuses or omniscient prophets, but they do need to have the "right stuff" and this stuff is not equally present in all people' (1991: p 58).

The trait approach has failed to identify a combination of personality traits that will invariably lead to a person's becoming a successful leader. However, it has been quite successful in the more modest aim of identifying characteristics that are likely to be *helpful* to leaders.

Looking at Kirkpatrick & Locke's list of characteristics associated with successful leadership, you can see how it might be useful to bear these in mind when choosing a leader, such as a team captain. If someone you are considering as captain lacks a number of these attributes, it is perhaps unlikely that they will turn out to be a good choice. The main problem with the trait approach is that it neglects the importance of the *situation* in which the leader is operating. Different leaders do best in different circumstances. In the next theory we shall look at, Fiedler has aimed to explain how leaders might be matched to their particular task.

2.7. Team Cohesion

Team cohesion is the ingredient that molds a collection of individuals into a team (Cox, 2007). Carron wrote of determinants of team cohesion (Cashmore, 2002). Situational factors such as living with or near each other, sharing hobbies and activities, similar uniforms and clothing, rituals of group cohesion, and a unique distinctiveness as a group. Personal factors, such as commitment and satisfaction, leadership factors, and a democratic style of leadership also support team cohesion. Team factors that support cohesion include the clarity with which each member understands and accepts his role with the team. Another factor is success. Success in competitive sports increases team cohesion. Further, as was discovered by other researchers, Carron concluded that smaller teams are more cohesive.

Carron and Hausenblas (cited in Eys et al., 2006) described the correlates of team cohesion as being: environmental factors, team factors, leadership factors, and personal factors.

Physical proximity, or being physically close to others, creates a greater tendency to form personal bonds (Eys et al., 2006). However, that is not necessarily sufficient. There has to be distinctiveness, with commonality, oneness, and unity among the group. This may also be created through an organizational culture, mottos, uniforms, and initiation rites. Team size can play a role, where a moderate size is most effective for creating cohesion.

There are several correlates of cohesion in sport (Paskevich et al., 2001; Eys et al., 2006).

These include: (1) environmental factors, such as normative pressures; (2) personal factors, such as a personal sense of responsibility for negative outcomes; (3) leadership factors, such as the task versus person orientation; and (4) team factors. Environmental factors that may affect the team include the level of the competition and the size of the team. There are more pressures at a state championship, and larger teams have more team members to communicate and coordinate with. Personal factors may include issues such as social loafing, which is identified by team members not contributing their share to the team effort. Leadership factors consist of the leader's decision style and leadership behavior. A team with greater instruction, social support, positive feedback, and a democratic style of coaching will produce higher levels of cohesive behaviors from team members. Team factors include role involvement, group norms, and collective efficacy. Role involvement is the clarity of an athlete's role, acceptance of that role, and his performance in that role. A group norm is a link between group cohesion and conformity, where there is a positive correlation between the two. Collective efficacy is a sense of shared competence among the team, where greater task cohesion contributes to greater team performance.

Widmeyer, Brawley, and Carron (1985) devised the conceptual model of team cohesion.

This is a four quadrant diagram. On the athlete's perception of the team, there are categories of group integration or individual attraction. On the group orientation, there are the categories of social and task orientations. The perception of the team is what is trickier to measure and understand (Cox, 2006). Is the athlete thinking of the team as a collective whole, or is he merely reflecting his affinity toward the team.

Successful teams have a code or standards that are accepted by all, in a process known as norming (Cashmore, 2002). These norms may include adherence to a routine or engaging in certain eating habits prior to a game. Successful teams are comprised of players who have high levels of self confidence. They do not blame themselves when their team loses and they share in the credit for winning. Players sabotage team cohesion when they make excuses for failure.

Further, giving blame or making excuses for failure while taking sole and personal credit for success is self-handicapping and harms the team's cohesion.

Competition is the essence of sports (Cashmore, 2002). It provides a setting where two groups or teams provide resistance that inadvertently develops the potential, performance, and capabilities

of their opponents. Both parties ultimately profit from the competition, by developing skill and self-efficacy. Each team is forcing the other to produce their best efforts.

Leadership is a relationship of influence, especially since coaches and captains cannot control how athletes think, feel, or relate to one another (Cashmore, 2002). Coaches are left to influence, inspire, or direct athletes. Many approaches to identifying and practicing good leadership have been developed. There are trait models, successful attributes, personality, contingency models, situational factors, path-goal theory, or models that focus on followers.

Focusing on followers and their development is the premise of servant leadership. Coaches do well to lead by serving, by coaching, training, and developing their athletes in every manner.

There is a multi-dimensional model that incorporate many of these factors, such as factors of the situation, the leader, the followers, leader behavior, preferred behaviors, and consequences of combining those factors. The team is challenged to perform well, and it cannot do so without a competent coach to pull the resources of the individual team members together.

Learned helplessness occurs when athletes attribute failures to a lack of ability or luck, factors which they cannot control (Cashmore, 2002). Athletes in this state may concede defeat, quit participating in sports, and avoid challenges because they sense no hope of improving. It is a close relation to attribution theory. Athletes have to be trained and motivated to turn failures into successes. Attribution retraining empowers team members with a feeling that they can control and improve outcomes. Athletes are taught to replace the sense of learned helplessness with a development of self-efficacy. If perceived competence is low, it can have a negative effect on extrinsic motivation (Lavalley et al., 2004). The perceived competence and control over the game will decline. Athletes will develop an external locus of causality, and will focus more on the ultimate outcome rather than the processes of getting there.

Social facilitation explains how an athlete's performance is facilitated and enhanced by the presence of others (Cashmore, 2002; Lavalley et al., 2004). The presence of others instills a competitive instinct, or a desire to at least keep up. This is social facilitation. The presence of other competitors and observers increase drive or arousal level. The conscious awareness of the presence of others drives an athlete to perform better. It creates a conscious anxiety.

Experiments with group behavior have shown that behavior and attitudes can be manipulated.

Achievement goal theory acknowledges the influence of others on goal orientation, such as from coaches and significant others (Lavalley et al., 2004). Individuals with a high task orientation

place importance on relationships with other team members, whereas those with a high ego orientation focus more on winning.

Being a team player is a skill all its own (Cashmore, 2002). Individual athletes must accept and play according to team norms. He must perform in a role or function that facilitates the accomplishment of team goals. While being a team player does not have to contradict with individual performance or individuality, it is important to use the individual's talent toward team goals and the development of cohesion and synergy. The individual must be empowered with more authority and responsibility, in developing his own skill and in building his bond with the team, as part of developing group dynamics.

Social loafing is the inclination to reduce effort when working toward a team goal (Cashmore, 2002; Lavalley et al., 2004). Individuals tend to be lazy or contribute less and ride on the coattails of others. In smaller teams, each athlete sees the value of his contribution.

Logically, it follows that individual athletes will strive to perform better if the athletes know that their performance is being evaluated. To minimize social loafing in the team, it is important for every athlete to appreciate his contribution to the team and his role in achieving success.

Vicarious achievement is on the opposite end of the spectrum from social loafing.

Vicarious achievement or fandom occurs where team members take satisfaction and pleasure from the success of other team members or the team as a whole (Cashmore, 2002). Another way of looking at social loafing is when athletes protect their self-esteem through self-handicapping (Cox, 2006). Victories are internalized, while failures will be described by any number of external explanations.

Socialization is the process by which individual athletes become members of a culture or team (Cashmore, 2002). Individuals learn behavior from other team members and adopt the behaviors and norms of that team. Socialization is a learning process. It is social cognition, a learning process that is influenced by an individual's social context. Socialization includes the immersion into a chosen sport and the learning of specialized skills relevant to that sport.

Groups are dynamic (Eys et al., 2006). Group members may be in harmony and at times in conflict. Communication may range from excellent to nonexistent. Goals and purposes may vary over time. But in it all, the group remains, revealing its cohesive properties. Festinger, Schachter, and Back (cited in Eys et al., 2006) stated that cohesiveness is the sum of all forces that cause members to remain in the group. Group cohesion may be based on the basis of task unity or for

social purposes, but all groups have some purpose (Eys et al., 2006). Even in high task-oriented groups, such as sports or the military, social cohesion generally develops as a result of members' instrumental and social interactions. Group integration represents the individual's perception of the group, while an individual attraction to the group represents a personal connection and desire to be in the respective group.

Cohesion can be measured directly or indirectly (Cox, 2006). Indirect measurement involves team members telling their feelings about other members, using some basic question.

Summed scores represent the team's cohesion. Direct measurement involves team members indicating how much they like playing for the team and indicating how well they feel the team performs as a unit. The indirect approach has generally failed to find a relationship between team cohesion and team or individual behavior.

As such, the indirect approach is rarely used. A number of inventories or assessments have been used to measure team cohesion in athletics. Some of those are:

- Sports Cohesiveness Questionnaire
- Team Cohesion Questionnaire
- Sport Cohesion Instrument
- Group Environment Questionnaire
- Team Psychology Questionnaire

The ultimate interest in studying team cohesion is its relationship to athletic performance (Cox, 2006). Absolute performance links cohesion to the number of wins and losses, and the changes in that absolute performance. Relative performance refers to a link between cohesion and all of the factors of athletic performance. The latter requires an assessment and comparison over time of each player, the plays, number of touchdowns, number of yards run, number of interceptions, and a myriad of possible performance measures. This research requires a great deal of measures and statistical measures which can be correlated to determine whether or not there is a statistical significance between cohesion and improvements in performance.

Building team cohesion is a process (Cox, 2006). It was Tuckman (1965) who wrote of the stages of group behavior: norming, forming, storming, and performing. During the forming stage, athletes experience new members coming together for a common purpose. In the storming stage, athletes struggle to learn a new team system, learn the idiosyncrasies of new members, and otherwise get the bugs out of the system. In the norming stage, team members begin to reach

agreement and unity as a team, understanding each member's role and the relationship between them. In the performing stage, the results of that new cohesion become clear. For research purposes, team cohesion should be assessed in the norming and performing stages, after all of the bugs have been worked out.

Team building is another part of the process of creating a sense of unity and cohesiveness, enabling the team to function smoothly (Newman, 1984; Cox, 2006). Yukelson

(1997) designed a direct intervention approach. A coach or sport psychologist can work directly with athletes to empower them through seminars, education, and experiences that will help the team develop a shared vision, unity of purpose, collaborative teamwork, individual and team accountability, cohesiveness, open and honest communication, and trust. His research showed promising results, as far as increasing confidence, trust, and closeness among teammates.

Carron, Spink, and Prapavessis (1997) designed an indirect intervention method, where coaches are taught to conduct team building. It is carried out in stages, using workshops followed by an application stage. Those four stages are: introduction, conceptual, practical, and intervention.

Cox (2006) offers ten specific interventions to be considered in building teams, and therefore team cohesion:

- Acquaint each player with the responsibilities of other players.
- As a coach, take the time to learn something personal about each athlete.
- Develop pride within the subunits of large teams.
- Develop a feeling of *ownership* among the players.
- Set team goals and take pride in accomplishments.
- Make sure that each player on the team learns his role and believes it is important.
- Do not demand or even expect total social tranquility.
- Avoid cliques, since they work in opposition to the goals and tasks of a team.
- Develop team drills and lead-up games that encourage member cooperation.
- Highlight areas of team success, even when the team loses a game or match.

Carron (1993) lists factors that can hurt team cohesion:

- Disagreement about team goals
- Rapid or frequent change in group members
- Struggle for authority and decision-making power in the group
- Poor communication among group members

- Unclear task or social roles among team members
- Role conflict
- Lack of a clear vision by the team leader
- Ongoing criticism of team members by the coach, blaming individuals
- Clash of personalities among team members

Francis and Young (1979) posed a list of eight lines of questions that should be asked early in the group forming stage. Answers to these questions will help leaders and team members to overcome roadblocks in building a cohesive team.

- What are we here to do?
- How shall we organize ourselves with respect to the playing positions?
- What are the roles of the coaches, assistants, captains, and team members?
- Who are our fans, and who are we accountable to?
- How do we work through our problems and are there meetings?
- In what ways do we need to work together to perform successfully?
- What are the benefits of being a team member?
- How is the team included in setting policies and sanctions for team members?

Athletes become a team through an evolutionary process (Anshel, 2003). It is a process where individuals emerge as a cohesive unit through a variety of actions, reactions, and interactions. Anshel (2003) lists general traits of an effective team, which are also important to maintaining cohesion:

- Appropriate leadership, and perhaps a shifting role of leadership;
- Suitable membership, who are proud to be members and will contribute;
- Commitment of the team, exhibiting an effort to learn and to support others;
- Concern to achieve, where the team establishes and achieves its own objectives;
- Effective work methods, with an effective way of solving problems, jointly;
- Well-organized team procedures, including roles and communication;
- Critique without rancor, allowing for open feedback;
- Creative strength, having the capacity and motivation to risk new ideas;
- Positive intergroup relations, where peers support and listen to each other; and
- Constructive climate, providing an atmosphere for direct communication

Anshel (2003) provides a list of proposed ideas for improving team cohesion, which were compiled from multiple sources:

- Acquaint players with the responsibilities of their teammates.
- Use effective communication strategies.
- Know your players.
- Look for, and communicate something positive after each game.
- Provide feedback to players.
- Teach and require interpersonal player support.
- Be consistent when setting limits.
- Try to inhibit player dropouts.
- Elect and work with player representatives.
- Leadership should be developed among team members.

Veach and May (2005) also provide a list of ideas to improve team cohesion:

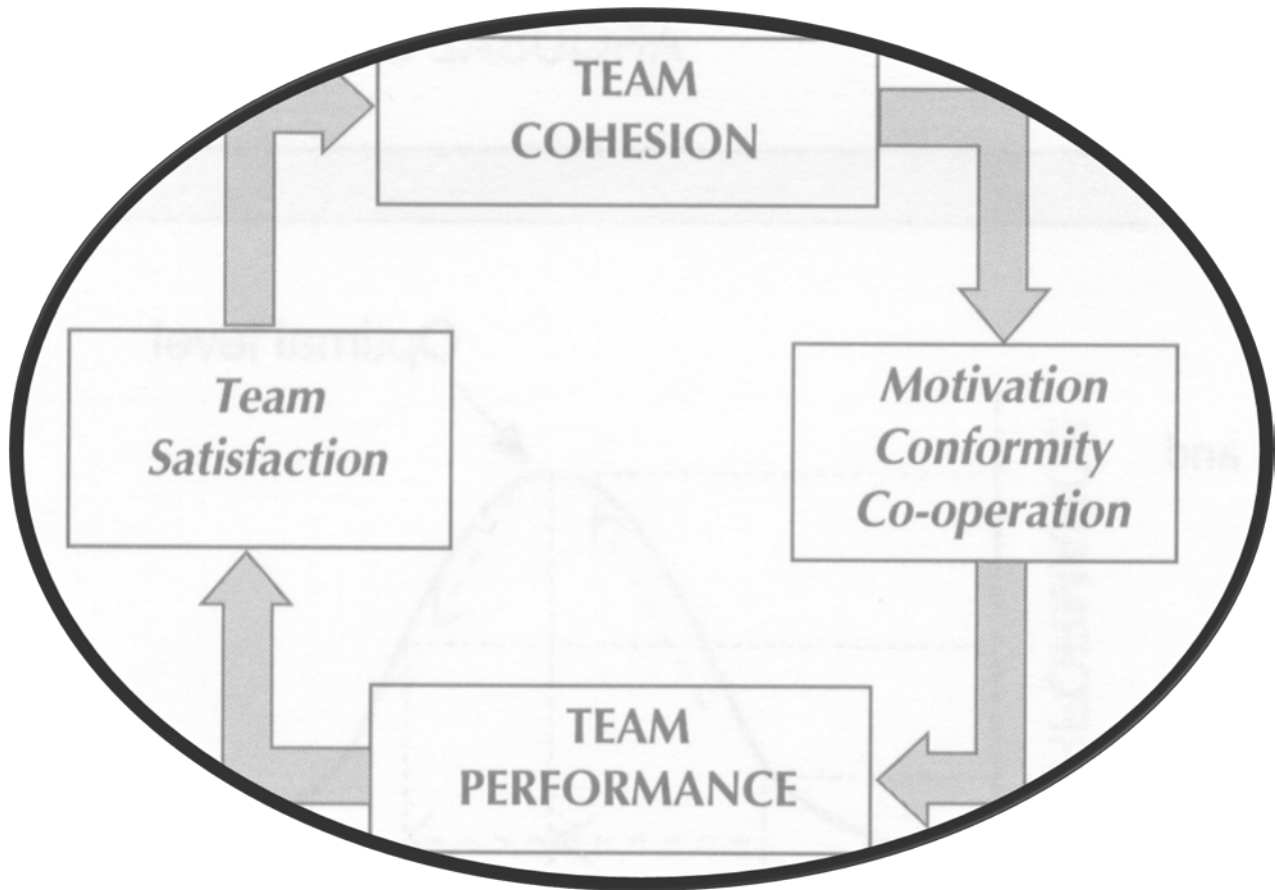
- Improve communication.
- Respect and celebrate differences.
- Use an inclusive process in developing team goals.
- Recognize outstanding role behaviors, particularly in the team performance.
- Create a vision of the team as greater than any individual.
- Establish a positive-feedback environment climate to maximize learning.
- Encourage fun activities outside routine practice drills.
- Set an example of giving of self to team efforts and self-sacrifice.
- Establish clear expectations regarding roles, with accountability and flexibility.
- Teach intellectual, emotional, spiritual, behavioral, and physical aspects of sport.

Schrage (1989) writes about the differences between teaming and collaboration, as the words are not interchangeable. Team is a buzzword in everything from job interviews to athletic teams. But the word has lost its meaning. Most people understand the real-world rendition of teaming. "If you do what I tell you, we will have good teamwork". Collaboration is a shared creation. Teams may have charismatic leaders who pull people together for a common cause, but collaboration is a complex effort by interdependent individuals. Collaboration is more than sharing information.

Collaboration is a mutual exchange, mutual support, and multiple individuals building up each other for a collective good.

Trust was mentioned earlier as a critical element of team cohesion. Robbins and Finley (2000) give an example of workplace violence where a former employee returned and executed all of his former team members. To say the least, trust had been absent within the team. It seems that no one believes trust exists anymore. Team members will not speak their minds for fear of recrimination. No one tackles big problems and team members prefer incremental changes for fear of the consequences of failure. Creating trust requires: clear goals, openness, fairness, willingness to listen, being decisive, support for other team members, taking responsibility for team actions, giving credit to other team members, being sensitive to others, respect the opinions of others, and empowering team members to act.

Group cohesion has been studied in many areas, such as sport psychology, social psychology, military psychology, etc. In looking at cohesion in sport groups, the generally accepted definition is that cohesion is a dynamic process that is reflected in the tendency of a group to stick together and remain united in the pursuit of its instrumental objectives and/or for the satisfaction of member affective needs (Carron, Brawley, & Widmeyer, 1998). This definition has several different aspects that are helpful in understanding the construct. First, cohesion is multidimensional, meaning that any number of factors can influence a group's cohesiveness, and these factors may vary from group to group (Carron, Hausenblaus, & Eys, 2005). Second, cohesion is dynamic. Any group's cohesiveness can change over time and factors that affect cohesion at one point in time may not affect it at other points. Next, cohesion is instrumental in nature, meaning that all groups are formed for a purpose. And finally, there is an affective or social element to cohesion that usually develops from the social interactions of the group members. Carron, Hausenblaus, and Eys (2005) noted four different types of factors that may influence cohesion. These include environmental factors, personal factors, team factors, and leadership factors. It is important to note that although the factors are presented separately, they are all interrelated and interwoven. In looking at the variables for this study, role involvement falls under team factors, and athlete satisfaction could fit under the other three factors. One study was conducted that looked at team cohesion in relation to role involvement, specifically role ambiguity. In this study Eys and Carron (2001) examined the relationship between role ambiguity and task cohesion and task self efficacy.



2.7.1. Factors affecting team cohesion

In a recent UK study, Holt & Sparkes (2001) studied a university football team over the course of one season. Data were gathered by means of observation and interviews. It was concluded that the following four factors affect team cohesion: a clear role for each member of the team, willingness to make personal sacrifices for the good of the team, quality of communication between team members and shared goals for the team as a whole. An additional factor may relate

to coaching style. Turman (2003) looked at a range of coaching techniques and attempted to relate these to team cohesiveness. It emerged that use of embarrassment, ridicule and *inequity*, that is, talking down to athletes, has a negative impact on cohesiveness, while athlete-directed technical assistance, motivational speeches and team prayers all had positive effects.

Thinking more broadly, Carron (1993) identified four types of factors that affect the cohesiveness of a team. *Situational factors* include the physical environment in which the team meets and the size of the group. *Individual factors* refer to the characteristics of the athletes that make up the teams. For example, the satisfaction of individuals in being in the team can have a powerful influence on cohesiveness. The third type of factor is *leadership*. Team coaches, captains and managers have a role in helping to make the team cohesive. *Team factors* include past shared successes, communication between members and having collective goals.

2.7.2. Team effectiveness

Salas, Dickinson, Converse, and Tannenbaum (1992) provided a good working definition of a “team” as: a distinguishable set of two or more people who interact, dynamically, interdependently, and adaptively toward a common and valued goal/objective/mission, who have been assigned specific roles or functions to perform, and who have a limited life-span of membership (p. 4).

This definition, echoed by other team researchers (Nieva, Fleishman, & Rieck, 1978; Orasanu & Salas, 1993), emphasizes that team members typically have different and unique roles, each representing critical contributions to collective action. This means that there exists a high degree of interdependence among team members. This interdependence requires coordination and synchronization among members and integration of their contributions to achieve team goals. During team action, members need to exchange information and resources, as well as constantly monitor the coordination of their efforts, adjusting individual and team actions when coordination breaks down (Salas et al., 1992). Thus, successful team action requires (a) the identification of appropriate individual member contributions and (b) a plan for the best way these contributions can be combined into an integrated team response (Hinsz, Tindale, & Vollrath, 1997).

Another essential element of this definition is that team interaction is expected to be adaptive with respect to environmental conditions. In essence, truly effective teams are those that are able to maintain high levels of collective performance, even as team and environmental circumstances

become decidedly adverse. Such high performance requires that teams develop norms and operating procedures that promote individual and collective flexibility and adaptability.

A number of researchers have specified determinants of team effectiveness (Gladstein, 1984; Hackman, 1987; Salas et al., 1992). Based on these models, we suggest that effective teams integrate four fundamental processes: cognitive, motivational, affective, and coordination.

2.8. Leadership and Team

Specify that the leader performance functions described earlier alter team processes that contribute to team effectiveness. For example, leader information search and meaning making can result in defining the frame of reference that team members use to understand and complete their collective tasks. The performance strategies used by team members are most likely to emerge from leader planning and coordination activities. Likewise, their motivation and choices regarding team effort should be influenced in part by leader exhortation and encouragement. In the next sections, we describe key team processes in more detail and specify how leadership functions may act to facilitate these processes

2.8.1. Team cognitive processes

A significant development in the recent team's literature has been the increasing application of cognitive theories and models to understand team performance. For example, Cannon-Bowers et al. have argued that effective team coordination and performance depends upon the emergence of accurate shared mental models of requisite team strategies and interaction tactics among team members (Cannon-Bowers, Salas, & Converse, 1990, 1993). Such team models help team members anticipate each other's actions and reduce the amount of processing and communication that is required during team performance. The result is better coordination and more efficient collective responses to immediate task requirements (Minionis, Zaccaro, & Perez, 1995). In addition, other theorists have recently argued that metacognitive and self-correction processes in teams are critical for team performance, especially in situations requiring teams to adapt quickly to dynamic environmental circumstances (Blickensderfer, Cannon-Bowers, & Salas, 1998; Kozlowski et al., 1996).

2.8.2. Team mental models

Mental models have been defined as ‘‘mechanisms whereby humans are able to generate descriptions of system purpose and form, explanations of system functioning and observed system states, and predictions of future system states’’ (Rouse & Morris, 1986, p. 351).

Mental models organize information about systems, the environments within which they operate, and the response patterns required of systems with respect to environmental dynamics (Veldhuyzen & Sassen, 1977). With respect to a team, such mental models developed by individual team members represent knowledge and understanding about the purpose of the team and its characteristics, the connections and linkages among team purposes, characteristics, and collective actions, and the various roles/behavior patterns required of individual members to successfully enact collective action. With well-developed team mental models, team members may be better able to anticipate each other's actions and reduce the amount of processing and communication required during team performance.

These characteristics of mental models have led several researchers to argue that effective team coordination depends upon the emergence of a shared mental model (Cannon-Bowers et al., 1990, 1993; Klimoski & Mohammed, 1994). Shared mental models refer to common understandings established through experience among team members regarding expected collective behavior patterns during team action (Cannon-Bowers et al., 1990, 1993; Kleinman & Serfaty, 1989; Levine & Moreland, 1989). When such models are shared among team members, they may be better able to anticipate each other's actions and reduce the amount of processing and communication required during team performance.

Cannon-Bowers et al. (1993) suggested that four different kinds of mental models encoded by team members were applicable to team coordination and performance. One includes knowledge about the equipment used by the team in the acquisition of information from its environment or in the monitoring of its own functions (equipment model). This model also includes equipment information necessary for the conduct of collective action. Another model contains knowledge about the purpose of the team and more specifically the task requirements related to this purpose (task model). This model includes task procedures, strategies, and how the task changes in response to environmental contingencies. A third model represents knowledge about team-member characteristics, including their task knowledge, abilities, skills, attitudes, preferences, and tendencies (team model).

The final model, and the one that is perhaps the most significant in terms of regulating team action, encodes information with respect to the individual and collective requirements for successful interactions among team members. Cannon-Bowers et al. (1993) argued that to be effective, team members: must understand their role in the task, that is their particular

contribution, how they must interact with other team members, who requires particular types of information, and so forth. S.J. Zaccaro et al. / *The Leadership Quarterly* 12 (2001) 451–483 459
Related to this, they must also know when to monitor their teammates' behavior, and when to step in, and help a fellow member who is overloaded, and when to change his or her behavior in response to the needs of the team (p. 232).

When shared among team members, this model, called the team interaction model, is particularly crucial to effective coordinated action. Equipment, task, and team mental models are presumably crucial building blocks for the team interaction model. That is, the prescribed roles of team members need to emerge from a consideration of (a) the equipment or other materials that team members will use in completing subsequent collective tasks, (b) the specific task requirements that must be addressed through collective action, and (c) the task relevant characteristics of team members that help define the contributions each can make to successful collective action. The strategies and tactics that emerge from a consideration of these factors, their moderating contingencies, and specific roles of each team member in particular action plans become incorporated into the team interaction model. The quality and elaboration of this model is associated with how well team members will be able to coordinate their subsequent activities.

2.8.3. Team information processing

The most proximal cognitive influence on team coordination and performance is the collective information processing that occurs when teams confront task and problem situations. A complete review of group information processing models is beyond the scope of this article; interested readers are referred to Hinsz et al. (1997). However, some basic processes include (a) developing a shared understanding of team problem parameters and processing objectives, (b) utilizing individual and shared knowledge structures to define solution alternatives, (c) evaluating and reaching consensus on an acceptable solution, (d) planning and implementing actions that form selected solutions, and (e) monitoring the implementation, outcomes, and consequences of selected solutions (Forsyth, 1999; Moreland & Levine, 1992).

Collective metacognition represents a form of team information processing that is critical for team performance in complex environments. Metacognition refers to reflection upon the cognitive processes used in problem solving; in essence, it represents “knowledge and cognition about cognitive phenomena” (Flavell, 1979, p. 906). Sternberg et al. also define

metacognitive processes as executive functions that control the application and operation of cognitive abilities and skills (Davidson, Deuser, & Sternberg, 1994; Sternberg, 1985).

Collective metacognition refers to individual and collective reflection upon how members constructed team problems, evaluated possible solutions, and implemented selected solutions.

To achieve a high level of expertise that promotes adaptation in a dynamic operating environment, team members need to set aside time to consider, individually and collectively, the consequences of their strategies, how they considered and arrived at a team solution, and how they worked together to implement selected solutions. This is a difficult process to initiate and to complete successfully. When teams have succeeded at a task, members may not see the need for reflecting upon collective information processing and interaction patterns; likewise, when they fail, they are more likely to engage in such reflection, but it may be 460 S.J. Zaccaro et al. / The Leadership Quarterly 12 (2001) 451–483 focused on ‘fixing blame,’ with negative consequences for subsequent team cohesion and efficacy.

2.8.4. Leadership and team cognitive processes

The leadership–team process model by specifying in more detail the leadership performance functions that influence key components of team cognition. Leader information search and structuring activities provide the grist for meaning making and sense giving to team members, allowing the development of more comprehensive and effective team mental models. In addition, leadership processes likely contribute to the quality and efficacy of collective information processing, especially Meta cognition. We cover these relationships in more detail in the subsequent sections.

2.8.5. Leadership and team mental models

A major responsibility of the team leader is to facilitate for team members an accurate shared understanding of their operating environment and how, as a team, they need to respond. There has been little, if any, research linking team leadership to the development of effective team mental models. However, shared mental models of expected team and member actions serve as key mechanisms by which leader's structure and regulate team performance.

Leaders inculcate in team members an understanding of the team's mission, the action steps necessary to complete the mission and the role requirements for each member in collective performance. In essence, team leaders convey their own understandings and mental models of the problem situation as derived from their boundary spanning activities. Thus, leadership

processes and the quality of a team leader's mental models become key determinants of subsequent team mental models. Further, team mental models mediate the influence of leadership on team coordination and team performance.

The critical point of this leader-team influence is the leader's sense-making activities on behalf of the team. Sense making can be defined as being “‘about such things as the placement of items into frameworks, comprehending, redressing surprise, constructing meaning, interacting in the pursuit of mutual understanding, and patterning’” (Weick, 1995, p. 6).

Sense-making and sense-giving processes include extracting important environmental cues, placing these cues in a team's performance context, and embellishing the meaning of these cues into a coherent framework. This framework provides to team members an enriched mental model of cue-response contingencies, linked to environmental events, and includes the meaning or rationale for why certain collective actions are more or less appropriate in different situations. It is this last feature of sense making that produces shared mental models promoting team adaptation in a dynamic environment.

These arguments suggest a process of leader-team performance that begins with the development of a leader's mental representation of a problem situation. This mental model reflects not only the components of the problem confronting the team, but also the environmental and organizational contingencies that define the larger context of team action.

Here, the leader develops a model of what the team problem is and what solutions are possible in this context, given particular environmental and organizational constraints and resources.

The above model emerges from the information search and acquisition leadership functions, and indeed represents how the leader structures (i.e., makes sense of) acquired information. The problem model developed by the leader then drives the development of a team interaction model that encodes how the team ought to respond to the problem situation.

The leader forms this second model from his or her understanding of team capabilities and the resources of individual team members in the context of the problem at hand (Zaccaro et al., 1995), this model resembles the team interaction mental model proposed by Cannon-Bowers et al. (1993) as critical for team coordination and performance.

The next step in this process of leader-team performance is the communication of the leader's mental model of team action to team members. This step is a critical one for team leaders because if they develop a perfect plan for team problem solving, but cannot communicate the

model or plan effectively to the team, then the team response is likely to be inadequate. If this communication is successful, then team members are likely to form and share an accurate model of expected behaviors and role requirements in accordance with their assigned mission and the problem they need to confront.

Two recent studies have documented the influence of leader sense making and team communication, or sense giving, on team mental models. Marks, Zaccaro, and Mathieu (2000) manipulated the quality of leader communications to a team performing multiple missions of a computer-simulated military task requiring adaptation. They found that the communication by leaders of enriched task information to the team resulted in more similar and more accurate mental models formed among team members. Both mental model similarity and accuracy influence subsequent team performance. Burke (1999) and Burke and Zaccaro (in preparation) extended this study by looking more closely at the content of leader communications. She examined different levels of leader sense making on team mental models and team adaptation, on the same task used by Marks et al. (2000). She found that more similar and accurate mental models accrued among team members when team leaders provided information linking environmental cues to appropriate team responses. More importantly, Burke found that teams were most successful in adapting to changing performance conditions when leaders provided along with cue-contingency information, a rationale for such linkages. This embellished sense giving resulted in deeper shared and accurate team mental models, which, in turn, fostered greater team adaptation.

2.8.6. Leadership and collective information processing

Team leaders are also responsible for facilitating the information processing activities engaged by the team as it accomplishes its task. The most potent leadership processes that foster collective information processes include encouraging and coaching team members to engage in problem identification, diagnosis, solution generation, and solution selection activities (Kozlowski et al., 1996). Early in the team's development, team leaders may need to model and structure these activities for team members (Kozlowski, 1998, Kozlowski et al., 1996). Kivlighan (1997) demonstrated that leader structuring behaviors were more important early in the group's tenure; consideration and relationship behaviors become more effective as groups become more efficient and experienced on the group task.

As teams mature and move from a training / learning focus to a more action or performance orientation, leader roles shift to fostering team self-management, particularly in terms of problem-solving activities. Kozlowski, (1998) argues that as teams enter performance environments, ‘leaders are not so much responsible for directing specific team actions as they are responsible for developing the underlying individual and team capabilities that enable teams to self-manage their actions’ (p. 134). Tannenbaum, Smith-Jentsch, and Behson

(1998) note that leaders can foster team learning in discrete performance episodes by facilitating team planning activities and the metacognitive processes that should follow team performance.

Recent conceptual models, then, emphasize the role of participative leadership in facilitating several phases of collective information processing. They also highlight the coaching, modeling, and encouragement activities of team leadership, rather than directive or structuring activities. Thus, team leaders encourage the team members to take over a number of team leadership information search, structuring, and utilization activities.

The leader can often ‘take back’ several of these processes, including problem construction, the definition of solution alternatives, and implementation planning when team performance environments become particularly complex and multifaceted.

In addition, research has shown that team information processing becomes more centralized (i.e., localized in the leader), when teams are under stress, threat, or are operating under conditions of temporal urgency (Argote, Turner, & Fichman, 1989; Gladstein & Reilly, 1985; Isenberg, 1981). However, even these conditions do not obviate other team members from information processing responsibilities. Indeed, in constructing team problems, deriving solutions, and planning their implementation, team leaders draw heavily on the functional expertise and diversity within the team. In effect, they coordinate the contribution and combination of team knowledge and information resources; where ‘gaps’ occur, they make interpretations and decisions that move the team along (Hinsz et al., 1997; Kozlowski et al., 1996).

A number of recent studies have documented the importance of participative leaders in fostering effective collective information processing. For example, Kahai, Sosik, and Avolio (1997) found that team leaders who engaged in participative leadership had team members who generated more problem solutions than team leaders who displayed directive leadership.

They also found, however, that these effects were true for moderately structured tasks, but were reversed on highly structured tasks (i.e., directive leadership resulted in more solution generation

among team members). This suggests that leadership effects on team information processing will depend in part on the nature of the team task.

Forms of participative leadership also facilitate other aspects of collective information processing. Larson, Foster-Fishman, and Franz (1998) reported that leaders who shared problem-solving responsibilities fostered more information sharing among team members than directive leaders. Tesluk and Mathieu (1999) found that when team leaders encouraged team self-management, team members engaged in more problem management actions / strategies to reduce performance barriers than members of teams in which leaders did not encourage self-management. These action / strategies included such information processing as problem diagnosis, solution generation, and implementation; Tesluk and Mathieu found that such actions/strategies were significant determinants of work crew effectiveness.

Fostering effective collective “met cognitive” processing in the team, especially after major task engagements (Kozlowski et al., 1996), represents perhaps one of the most potent ways leaders facilitate team effectiveness. Such processing needs to be coupled with collective feedback to and among team members that reflects the conclusions emerging from met cognitive reflection upon team performance processes. While met cognition can remain a latent cognitive process for individual performers and still have potent effects, in teams met cognitive musing must be verbalized in order to produce changes in team members’ knowledge and capacities. Accordingly, team leaders can facilitate collective met cognition by providing critical performance feedback to team members and encourage collective reflection upon team processes. Tannenbaum et al. (1998) argue that such reflection needs to occur within the context of performance plans and goals. They describe “pre-briefs” and “post action” reviews as key components of the team learning cycle. Pre-briefs are team meetings prior to initiating performance that “provide an opportunity to the team to confirm its performance strategies, clarify team members’ roles and expectations, discuss anticipated events, and focus on key performance issues” (p. 250). Post action reviews reflect the “systematic process of sharing observations and interpretations about team functioning (i.e., processes) and performance” (p. 252). To the degree that post action reviews include reflection upon how team members engage in collective information processing, then they reflect collective met cognitive processes as well. We would argue that effective team leaders develop the basis for effective engagement of these two processes by team members.

They do so by developing key member capabilities to perform these tasks, motivating team members complete pre-briefs and post action reviews, and providing feedback (and ‘feed-forward’) information to facilitate these processes.

What specific leader behaviors facilitate this team learning process? Tannenbaum et al. (1998) offer the following prescriptive leadership activities (pp. 253–259):

- Provide a self-critique early in the post action review.
- Accept feedback and ideas from others.
- Avoid person-oriented feedback; focus on task-focused feedback.
- Provide specific, constructive suggestions when providing feedback.
- Encourage active team member participation during briefings and reviews and not simply state one’s own observations and interpretations of the team’s performance.
- Guide briefings to include discussions of ‘teamwork’ processes, as well as ‘task work.’
- Refer to prior pre-briefs and team performance when conducting subsequent debriefs.
- Vocalize satisfaction when individual team members or the team as a whole demonstrate improvements.

Tannenbaum et al. examined these leader behaviors in a training study and found that teams with leaders who were trained to display these behaviors were more likely to engage in collective met cognitive processes (i.e., more likely to engage in discussions about teamwork behaviors, to critique themselves, and to offer suggestions to others). Teams whose leaders encouraged collective met cognitive processes outperformed teams whose leaders did not engage in such behaviors.

2.8.7. Team motivational processes

Team effectiveness is grounded in members being motivated to work hard on behalf of the team. This motivation derives in part from the cohesion of the team and from its sense of collective efficacy.

2.9. Cohesiveness and performance

Numerous studies have shown that there is a relationship between team cohesiveness and success; that is, more successful teams tend to have greater cohesion. In one study, Gould et al (1999) interviewed athletes and coaches from the U S Olympic teams in a range of sports,

assessing a number of factors including team cohesion. It was found that teams with low cohesiveness were more likely to underperform.

There is a logical problem of studies like this, however; they do not tell us whether the teams became more successful *because* they were already more cohesive, or whether, instead, they *became* highly cohesive because of their shared success. Actually, it is quite possible that both of these relationships hold true. Slater & Sewell (1994) measured team cohesion in 60 university hockey players, representing three male and three female teams, early in, midway in and at the end of the season. The researchers were able to see how early cohesion related to later success and how early success related to later cohesion.

It was found that, whilst early success was related to later cohesion, the stronger relationship was between early cohesiveness and later success.

Interestingly, not all studies have supported the relationship between cohesiveness and performance. In one experiment, Grieve et al (2000) randomly assigned 222 male university student basketball players to three-person basketball teams, and manipulated the interactions of each team in order to create either high or low levels of team cohesiveness. Each team was then assessed for cohesiveness, given a series of games and then assessed again for cohesiveness. In this study, there was no relationship between early cohesiveness and later performance; however, successful early performance was associated with high levels of cohesiveness at the end of the games. This suggests that cohesiveness does not influence performance but that performance *does* influence cohesiveness.

2.10. Developing team cohesion

Making a group of individuals into an effective team is an important part of a coach's task, particularly in highly individualist cultures such as Britain and the USA, where we do not tend to be taught as children to put the greater good of our groups above our individual needs. Strategies to develop team cohesion are known as *team building*.

Carron et al (1997) offer a four-point model for team building, which aims to increase team distinctiveness, for example, by training attire; to increase social cohesiveness, for example, by social events; to clarify team goals, for example, by having collaborative 'goal of the day' sessions; and to improve team communication, for example, by holding regular meetings.

Team building has been tested in a number of experimental studies, but the results have been equivocal. Moran (2004) suggests that one reason for this is that team building can improve

cohesiveness only if the team lacks it in the first place. Thus, studies on already cohesive teams encounter a ceiling effect and have little impact.

2.11. Social facilitation

We have already discussed how being in a strongly cohesive team appears to improve the performance of team members. There are several other ways in which the presence of other people can affect our behavior and performance. Under some circumstances, the presence of other people, such as competitors, enhances our performance.

However, under other circumstances, our effort and our ability to make decisions can be adversely affected by others, leading to poor performance. The term ‘social facilitation’ describes the ways in which our performance can be affected by the presence of others.

2.12. Negative effects of team membership

2.12.1. Social loafing

In the 1880s, the French engineer Ringelmann discovered that when a group of men pulled together on a rope, each pulled considerably less hard than when pulling alone. When eight men were pulling, each man averaged half the effort he put in when pulling alone. This effect, known as *social loafing*, has since been demonstrated in a variety of settings, including team sports.

In view of this effect, an obvious question to ask is, ‘How do we know whether, in a given situation, social facilitation or social loafing will occur?’ Aronson et al (1994) identified two factors that affect which response takes place: the complexity of the task and the possibility of observers successfully seeing how much effort you make. If your individual efforts can be evaluated easily, you will tend to be highly aroused, and therefore you are likely to do better on simple tasks and worse on complex tasks. If people cannot tell to look at you how hard you are trying, your arousal levels will tend to be lower, and therefore you should do worse at simple tasks and better at complex tasks.

This identify ability effect has been demonstrated in a study by Swain (1996), in which 96 15-year-old boys ran a 30-metre sprint under three conditions. In the first condition, they ran individually; in the second, they ran in teams, but each boy’s time was recorded. In the third condition, they ran in teams, but only the team time was recorded, and therefore each boy’s own performance was not identifiable.

Overall, the boys ran slower in the third condition; however, this masked considerable individual differences in the boys. It emerged that *goal orientation* (see p 85 for a detailed discussion) was

the major factor – task-oriented boys ran equally fast in the three conditions, but ego-oriented boys slowed down when they believed their individual times were not being measured. Other factors apart from goal orientation may affect on social loafing behavior. Heuze & Brunel (2003) conducted an experiment in which students threw darts under four conditions. In one condition, they had no opposition. In the other three conditions, fictitious opponents were created who were inferior, equal or superior in standard. Performance was best against an opponent of equal standard and worst against a superior opponent. This suggests that we tend to indulge in social loafing in situations where we are not expected to succeed, but less so when expectations of us are higher.

2.13. Athlete Satisfaction

Chelladurai and Riemer (1997) define athlete satisfaction as the positive affective state that arises when an athlete evaluates the structures, processes, and outcomes that are related to the athletic experience. In other words, an athlete's level of satisfaction can be seen as a reflection of how well the athletic endeavor meets the athlete's own personal standards. Chelladurai and Riemer (1998) note that athlete satisfaction is important for three reasons. First, an athlete's satisfaction with his or her sport should naturally be linked to his or her performance in that sport. For example, an athlete who is more satisfied will put out more effort and persistence during competition. The second reason that athlete satisfaction is important is because satisfaction can be seen as a precursor or outcome in the conceptual frameworks of other constructs, such as cohesion. The final reason, which is central to the rationale behind this study, is because athletic satisfaction is a key concern in athletic programs. The humanistic view suggests that the athletic experience needs to be enjoyable and instrumental to further the development of athletes, and development is a primary outcome, at the college level. That being said, athlete satisfaction has both theoretical and practical implications.

One construct that could have quite an impact on athlete satisfaction is role ambiguity. Bray, Beauchamp, Eys, and Carron (2004) looked at the need for role clarity as a potential moderator variable between role ambiguity and athlete satisfaction. To examine this relationship, Bray et al. had 112 male ice players complete the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire, the Role Ambiguity Scale, and a measure that assessed the athletes' need for role clarity. Their correlation results showed that greater ambiguity was associated with lower athlete satisfaction, which is consistent with the results from Eys and colleagues (2003). They also found that the relationship between

role ambiguity and the various facets of athlete satisfaction were only apparent in the athletes who had a higher need for role clarity. It is important to note that the authors elected to use the subscales of the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire that related to the individual as opposed to the team (Bray, Beauchamp, Eys, & Carron, 2004). Their reason for doing this was because they were concerned with athlete satisfaction as it related to the primary role sender (i.e., the coach) based on Jackson and Schuler's (1985) meta-analytic findings from the business literature that showed that job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision were the dimensions of satisfaction that correlated the strongest with role ambiguity.

2.14. Roles within the Sport Team

When looking at roles within sport teams, two primary categorizations have been used to define the types of roles. The first categorization refers to the degree of formality of the role. Roles may be either *formal* or *informal* (Mabry & Barnes, 1980). Formal roles refer to a certain position and the prestige associated with that position. These roles are also often prescribed by the group or organization to the individual. For example, a captain on a team or a forward in soccer would be a formal role. An informal role would be a role that develops as a result of the associations and interactions between group members. Examples of informal roles in sport would be the work horse of the team, the team clown, or the spark player off the bench.

The second categorization of sport roles relates to the primary objective of the role. Objectives of roles can be either task or social. Task-oriented roles focus on performing the responsibilities that are related to the group accomplishing its objectives; whereas socially-oriented roles focus on promoting harmony and integration among group members (Eys, Beauchamp, & Bray, in press). There have been a few attempts in the literature to look at more specific types of roles and role responsibilities, taking into account the different categories, such as formal and informal and task and social. In an effort to get a more detailed look at roles with sport teams, Eys (2000) conducted focus groups with members of interdependent and independent sport teams. Eight general categories of roles emerged including: positional, formal leadership, informal leadership, social, communication, motivational, or ganizational, and guidance roles. With all the different roles possible on a sport team, confusion often results from unclear or conflicting expectations.

2.15. Coaching Behavior and Team Dynamics

In the first study in this area, Westre & Weiss (1991) examined the relationship between athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behaviors and athletes' perceptions of their team's cohesion. The

study sample included sophomore, junior, and senior high school male football players representing six public high schools in the same district.

The study examined not only the relationship between athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behavior and team cohesion, but also tested whether this relationship was a function of perceived team and individual success, player status, and position played. The researchers used the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) to measure perceived coaching behaviors and the Group Environment Questionnaire (GEQ) to measure athletes' perceptions of their team's cohesion. This study found that athletes who perceived that their coaches employed a more democratic leadership style and provided higher levels of social support, positive feedback and training and instruction also perceived and reported higher levels of team cohesion. This initial study, then, provided support for the hypothesis that coaches' leadership styles are related to team cohesion.

In a corresponding study, Gardner, Shields, Bredemeier, & Bostrom (1996) examined the relationship between perceived coaching behaviors and team cohesion among baseball and softball players. This study represented an expansion of that conducted by Westre & Weiss (1991) because it examined two sports and included both male and female athletes from two different academic levels. Specifically, the sample in this study consisted of 55 male high school baseball players and 56 female high school softball players as well as 134 junior college male baseball players and 62 junior college female softball players. The athletes in this study ranged in age from 13 to 33 years. This study was designed to examine the relationship between perceived leadership behaviors and team cohesion in high school *and* junior college baseball and softball players. Again, the researchers used the LSS and the GEQ to measure perceived leadership behaviors and team cohesion, respectively. Statistical analyses of the data did show a significant relationship between perceived coaches' leadership style and perceived team cohesion.

Specifically, athletes who perceived their coaches to be high in training and instructional behavior and to exhibit a democratic leadership style (along with low levels of autocratic behavior) and to provide high frequencies of social support and positive feedback also indicated high perceptions of team cohesiveness. Further, the study showed significant gender and competitive level main effects as well as a significant gender by competitive level interaction effect. That is, male athletes perceived their coaches to be higher in autocratic behavior than did females, and females perceived their coaches as giving significantly more training and instruction, democratic behavior and positive feedback than did males. Also, junior college

players perceived their teams as higher in social cohesion and social support than did the high school athletes (Gardner, Shields, Bedemeier, & Bolstrom, 1996). This study builds upon Westre & Weiss' original research in that it examined the effects of coaching behaviors across gender, level (high school and college), and across sport (although softball and baseball are very similar). The results of this study also found significant differences between male and female athletes in their perceptions of their coaches' behaviors and in their evaluations of their team's level of cohesiveness. As the authors of this study indicate, these results suggest that further research on possible gender differences in regard to the relationship between coaches' behavior and team cohesion is necessary.

The third and final study reported in the literature thus far on the topic of coaching behavior and team cohesion employed a different research approach. This study, conducted by Turman (2003), was designed to identify the techniques and strategies that coaches use to either promote or undermine team cohesion. This study was conducted in two phases. In the first phase, the researcher used open-ended questionnaires to assess athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behavior. In the second phase, in-depth interviews (early and post-summer practice sessions) were conducted with individual athletes.

2.16. Theoretical Model of Sport Team Cohesion

Carron's (2001) original conceptual model of cohesion in sport teams provided a framework for describing the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of cohesion in sport teams. It was comprised of three parts: the inputs (antecedents of group cohesion; environmental, personal, leadership, and team factors), the throughputs (types of cohesion in sport groups; task and social), and the outputs (the consequences of group cohesion; specified in terms of both group and individual outcomes). This initial model has been revised several times. The most recent and comprehensive version of this model was published by Carron and Hausenblas in 1998. This model provides an overall framework for identifying, describing, and examining the correlates of cohesion in sport teams. The model is based on the assumption that there are a large number of factors that are related to and/or are predictive of group cohesion. These factors are divided into four categories: environmental factors, personal factors, leadership factors, and team factors. Details regarding each of these four categories of factors are presented in the following paragraphs.

2.16.1. Environmental factors:

As illustrated in the model, environmental (or situational) factors are one of the hypothesized correlates of cohesion in sport teams. These factors can be divided into two categories: cultural and organizational considerations and geographical considerations. Cultural and organizational considerations include contractual responsibility, organizational orientation, normative pressures and level of competition. Contractual responsibility refers to the obligations and/or restrictions that are placed on a team. Examples of this would be eligibility or transfer rules, contractual obligations (pertaining to professional contracts), and geographical restrictions (such as playing locations/proximity for amateur sports). Normative pressures are also situational conditions that affect cohesion. Due to society's low regard for those that quit, pressures to maintain membership among a team or group also play an important role in a team's cohesiveness. The organization's orientation is another situational/environmental factor which affects, or is related to, a group's cohesion. This orientation factor refers to the different goals, achievement processes, and demographics of the participants within the group. In investigating this factor, Spink & Carron (1992) found that social cohesion was high among members of exercise groups within private fitness clubs while task cohesion was high among exercisers in groups within university settings. Thus, individuals' perceptions of group cohesiveness may vary across contexts or settings. The final aspect of cultural and organizational considerations is level of competition. It is possible, for example, that task cohesion may be more important to the team's success and satisfaction at higher and/or more competitive playing levels while social cohesion may be more important at lower, or more recreational, levels of play.

The second category of environmental/situational factors which may affect a group's cohesion includes geographical issues. This facet includes physical and functional proximity, a group's permeability, and the size of the group. Physical and functional proximity concerns the actual physical closeness that the athletes have when participating in the sport, whether it is playing position or locker location. Research has revealed that when teams are closer in physical proximity, friendships and relationships are more apt to develop which contributes to the social cohesion of the group. A group's permeability, or the degree to which it is open to other groups, also influences the team's cohesion. This aspect refers to the degree to which teams interact with other groups or individuals. When a group isolates itself totally, it is unable to utilize outside sources to fulfill its psychological needs and thus draws upon its own membership. Although this

is not mentioned as a positive or negative aspect, it does affect the way in which a team unites. The size of the group also plays an important role in how the team coheres in order to work together. This is explained in more detail within the collective efficacy section, but research has shown that the size of the group does affect its cohesion (see review of this research by Widmeyer, Brawley, & Carron, 2002). When the size of a group increases beyond its optimal potential, the group's cohesion begins to decline. Specifically, as a group increases in size, individual participation decreases, the frequency of arguments and disagreements increases, and members begin to feel as though their individual input or contribution to the group's task is no longer important. Oftentimes too, as the group size increases, social loafing, or the reduction in individual effort when working in groups as opposed to working alone, tends to increase. These provide examples of environmental/situational factors that might contribute in a positive or negative way to a sport team's cohesion.

2.16.2. Personal factors:

According to the model, a second set of factors affecting cohesion includes a variety of personal factors. This set of factors can be divided into three categories: demographic attributes, cognition and motives, and behavior. Demographic attributes pertaining to team cohesion relate to individual differences. These are differences found between members of a group, such as age, sex, race, personality, etc.

These factors are relevant to the cohesiveness of the group because similarity in personal attributes of group members has been associated with greater cohesiveness. Therefore, factors such as age, gender, or race may play an important role in the group's overall cohesion, depending on the perceptions, attitudes, or beliefs of the individual members of the group. It is also important to identify that this arrow is bi-directional, in that a group's cohesiveness may also affect the individuals' differences.

2.16.3. Leadership factors:

The sets of factors that are hypothesized within the model to lead to, or affect, cohesion are leadership factors. The mediating influence of leadership is found in leadership behaviors, leadership decision-making styles, the coach-athlete personal relationship, and the coach-team relationship. This antecedent factor is of particular importance to this study because it provides for the possibility that coaching behaviors influence and predict cohesion in sport groups. The coaches' characteristics include types and frequencies of feedback, training and instruction,

social support, type of leadership (autocratic or democratic), and reactions to game/pressure situations. The few research studies that have been conducted to examine the link between coaching behavior and team cohesion have been developed in many ways.

2.16.4. Team factors:

The final correlates of group cohesion are team factors. These factors that affect group cohesion are group size, status, role involvement, group norms, and collective efficacy (Carron & Hausenblas, 1998). Group size has been previously discussed as a factor which influences cohesion. As the size of the group or team increases, the unity of the group is affected. How individuals on the team understand and accept their roles and become involved in their role affects how a team operates. Role clarity, or the extent to which the athlete understand their role and role acceptance are important aspects of team functioning and thus, team cohesion. Group norms that are developed are more likely to be adhered to when cohesion is higher amongst the group.

Finally, collective efficacy, or the beliefs and attitudes about the team's competence, is the final aspect of team factors that are associated with team cohesion. All of these team aspects affect and influence the way in which the team coheres as a unit. As previously mentioned, a leader's behaviors are correlated to a team's cohesion, as well as the collective belief in team competence.

Many of you will consider this a question with a boringly obvious answer: surely there must be a link between team cohesion and competition success? Anyone who has played in a team where everyone gets on well and communication is good feels this has a lot to do with how well the team plays.

However, this assumption is based on feelings and perceptions which may not be borne out in reality. Just because you enjoy the team atmosphere does not necessarily mean you are definitely going to win more games. The key research question for sport psychology is to prove that teams with greater cohesion are more successful. And this is a question that various researchers have been grappling with for around 30 years.

Famously, a German researcher called Hans Lenk") disproved the notion that only cohesive groups could win by showing data collected from the notoriously dysfunctional German rowing eight that was successful in the 1968 Mexico Olympic Games. Anecdotally, Olympic rowing

provides another famous example of how low cohesion and success can mix, as 1988 GB gold medalists Holmes and Redgrave were supposedly not the best of pals! In subsequent

Games (1992 and 1996), however, winners Redgrave and Pinsent were highly cohesive (from an outsider's viewpoint at least).

These examples cast doubt on the assumption that the greater the cohesion the greater the team success, although a reasonable amount of research carried out in the 1970s and 1980s supported this assumption. But if the relationship between cohesion and success is not cut and dried, this raises more questions:

If winning is possible without cohesion, how important is cohesion to the winning formula?

Are there specific aspects of cohesion that are crucial for team success and others that are less important?

To provide reliable answers to these questions, psychology researchers need to be able to analyse and measure team cohesion with validity. In science, the term validity refers to how well your measuring tool actually assesses what you are aiming to measure. In physical terms a ruler is obviously a highly valid measure of length; but in the realms of psychology, in which variations in individual perceptions are involved, validity is not so easy to establish. A research team led by Albert Carron" concluded that much of the early research on cohesion was limited by the less than- rigorous Sport Cohesiveness Questionnaire in use at this time. He and his colleagues set about developing a sounder tool, known as the Group Environment Questionnaire (GEQ).

These researchers aimed to base this new tool on a sound concept of what cohesion actually involved for sports teams. They argued that previous research had oversimplified the concept of cohesion by measuring one particular aspect, such as the perceived attraction of the group members to each other. There is clearly more to the dynamics of the formation and workings of groups than how much the individual members like each other.

Carron et al's model of cohesion identified four key contributing factors that interact to facilitate social or task cohesion: environmental, personal, team and leadership.

The model measures the following categories of cohesion:

1. Individuals' perception of the 'group integration social';
2. Individuals' personal attraction to 'group social';
3. Individuals' perception of group task ('group integration task');
4. Individuals' personal attraction to group task.

The GEQ comprises four or five questions under each category. And the researchers' belief that it can effectively measure cohesion by analyzing its different components has been endorsed by other research teams.

Interestingly, research into cohesion using the GEQ suggests that 'task' cohesion is more important for team success than 'social' cohesion.

And this could explain the equivocal results of earlier cohesion studies, and why it is sometimes possible for successful team mates to actively dislike each other and still win. Most coaches and athletes prefer team mates to like each other, but it appears that as long as they are completely focused on their common task and share the same goals and beliefs success is possible even without social cohesion. Another example of this principle at work is the Chicago Bulls team, which dominated the NBA in the 1990s: the team members allegedly didn't speak to each other off court, but practiced and competed together with 100% professionalism and commitment.

With this example in mind, Carron *et al* recently set up a new study to examine the relationship between task cohesion and team success in elite basketball and football teams (4), measuring just the group integration task and group attraction to task categories of cohesion from the GEQ. Produce a team cohesion score, then related these scores to an indisputable measure of team success. All things considered, this unique study goes further than any before it to examine the importance of cohesion for success in team sports.

The implication of these findings is that coaches and sport psychologists would be well advised to assess team cohesion and develop team-building strategies to improve task cohesion. Specifically, coaches could work on making sure that team members are clear about and happy

with team goals and the level of shared commitment. They could also work on developing team communication and shared responsibility - developing the 'we' mentality.

In his book on football psychology, Sven- Goran Eriksson talks a great deal about how the 'we' mentality can raise the performance of all the players in a team and help reduce the pressure associated with big matches. He describes eight key attributes of an effective team, and I invite you to note that all are task oriented and have nothing to do with social relationships. The 'good team', according to the

England Manager has:

1. A common vision
2. Clear and definite goals which go hand-in-hand with this vision
3. Members who share their understanding of strategy and tactics
4. Great inner discipline (meaning they act professionally together)
5. Players with characteristics which complement each other
6. A good division of roles among the players, with all members treated equally
7. Players who put the common good before their own interests
8. Players who take responsibility for the whole team, with everyone accepting mistakes as long as people do their best.

2.17.1. Team dispersion:

The analysis conducted shows that team dispersion significantly modifies the relationship between cohesion and virtual team outcomes, with cohesion being a stronger influence on outcomes in globally distributed teams. As indicated in the literature review, inherent in globally distributed teams are the cultural, language, and time zone differences. Adler (1977) hypothesized that teams with high cultural and language differences have high potential in performing complex tasks but often fail to realize this potential. Virtual teams with members from different cultures and languages do not share similar social interaction norms. This impedes communication among team members. Time zone differences add another layer of complexity as

well; setting up suitable meeting times are more challenging and delayed responses to inquiries occur.

2.17.2. Face-to-face meetings:

The analysis shows that the opportunity to meet face-to-face at least once throughout the project duration modifies the relationship between cohesion and team performance, with cohesion being a stronger influence on performance for virtual teams that are able to meet face-to-face.

There are two possible explanations for this particular result. First, virtual teams that have the opportunity to meet face-to-face are more susceptible to subgroup identifications due to individual differences.

Individual differences such as those based on ethnicity and nationality, are more visible during face to face meetings. Thus, virtual team members are more likely to create subgroups based on these differences (Fiol & O'Connor, 2005). A high level of subgroup strength has been known to negatively influence virtual team performance (DeSanctis & Jiang, 2005). As such, virtual teams that are able to meet face to face must be cohesive to overcome the negative influence of subgroup formations, and ensure higher performance.

Second, it is possible that the significantly stronger relationship between cohesion and performance in virtual teams that meet face-to-face occasionally is due to the differences between the inherent characteristics of the two types of team. In this meta-analysis, studies categorized as having teams with face-to-face meetings are all based on surveys of teams in the field. As noted by Cramton (2001), such teams typically confront tasks that are relatively more complicated with less information available, and for longer durations. Therefore, these teams require higher cohesion among team members to ensure higher performance.

2.17.3. Communication tools:

The analysis shows that the communication tools being used significantly modifies the relationship between cohesion and virtual team performance, with cohesion being a weaker influence on performance when the virtual teams communicate using purely synchronous communication tools. In a purely synchronous communication, there are fewer opportunities for miscommunication.

Issues can be resolved immediately, and cohesion becomes less important to ensure performance. In addition, the analysis shows that the communication tools being used significantly modifies the relationship between cohesion and virtual team satisfaction; with cohesion being a stronger

influence on satisfaction when the virtual teams communicate using both synchronous and asynchronous communication tools, as opposed to when the virtual teams are limited to only one type of communication tool. Cramton (2001) observed that in a virtual team setting, conflicts could arise when team members have to select among different communications media. Conflicts occur when team members' choices differ due to preferences or situational contexts (e.g., online chats are the preferred method for team members in location A since they encounter low bandwidth to support richer communication tools).

Conflicts that are not properly managed and/or resolved will reduce positive feelings among team members and with the virtual team experience (Ocker, 2001; Ocker, 2002). In this situation, a higher level of cohesion among team members could ensure that the satisfaction level remain high.

The analysis shows that the research method being used significantly modifies the relationship between cohesion and virtual team performance, with cohesion being a stronger influence on performance when the study involves a survey of virtual teams in the field. In experiments, cohesion seems to have a significantly less influence on performance. As stated before, teams in the field typically confront tasks that are more complicated with less information, and for longer durations. It is plausible that experimental research in virtual teams does not capture the pressure and intensity of the working environment. When engaging in a project in the real world, cohesion becomes more critical in determining performance.

2.17.4. Performance measurement:

The analysis shows that the performance measurement significantly modifies the relationship between cohesion and virtual team performance, with cohesion being a stronger influence on performance when the measurement involves perceptions rather than objective measurements. It is possible that the team member's cohesiveness with his/her teammates can affect his/her perception of performance.

The results show that the analysis level significantly modifies the relationship between cohesion and virtual team outcomes. This is in parallel to the argument made by Short et al. (2005) that constructs in virtual teams are multilevel. Analyses based on individual versus team levels would produce different results.

This study contrasts with a recent meta-analysis by Lin et al. (2008), demonstrating significant relationships between cohesion with performance and satisfaction. Lin et al. (2008) incorporated

results from online communities; however, it can be argued that online communities are unlike virtual teams since communities do not necessarily interact through interdependent tasks to achieve a purpose.

Furthermore, Lin et al. (2008) did not examine potential moderators to the relationships. In other words, the authors took a broad approach in their work as opposed to the in-depth approach presented in this study (a meta-analysis of cohesion to virtual team outcomes, with potential moderators for the relationships).

Presenting the results of a meta-analysis provides several benefits. The meta-analysis technique enables researchers to estimate the overall effect size as accurately as possible, and to report its robustness across a large body of studies (Borenstein et al., 2009). If the effect sizes vary substantially, the meta-analysis technique enables researchers to quantify the variance. Thus, meta-analysis is a tool for researchers to elegantly summarize and present research findings across a large body of studies. In addition, the meta-analysis technique alerts that it provides researchers with a more disciplined approach to reviewing the research literature and is more objective since it only looks at empirical data (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001).

Each of these strengths applies to this study. First, the meta-analysis aggregated the findings between cohesion and virtual team outcomes into overall mean effect sizes, which are easier to interpret.

These findings originate from fifteen independent studies. Second, this study follows the step-by-step procedures as suggested by Borenstein et al. (2009) and Lipsey & Wilson (2001); other researchers can follow the same steps and achieve similar results. And finally, in selecting and coding the data, none of

the author's biases come into play. Studies that fit into the selection criteria and did not have missing information were selected, coded and analyzed.

Nevertheless, this meta-analysis suffers from several limitations. First, additional studies could have been included. The author identified six relevant studies with missing information. Most emails to the authors were unanswered. Furthermore, there is also the potential file-drawer problem (i.e., unpublished studies due to journals' tendency to publish results with significant findings). Again, email solicitations to key figures in the virtual team research area were largely unanswered. This study would have benefited greatly if it had included more relevant studies.

Second, there is also the question of garbage-in-garbage-out. Since articles were not prejudged based on research designs or their quality, this meta-analysis is vulnerable to lower quality research.

Nevertheless, the author would stress that all of the fifteen studies included were published in peer reviewed journals, peer-reviewed conference proceedings, or part of a doctorate dissertation requirements.

Third, meta-analyses do not draw on findings from qualitative studies. In the area of virtual team research, many studies involving actual teams were conducted by using the case study method (Powell et al., 2004). And lastly, some of the possible moderators were not tested due to the limited number of studies. For example, team size is a possible moderator between cohesion to virtual team outcomes (Grevins, 2002). Regrettably, there was not enough variation in team size among the studies to support a moderator analysis. Another example is the moderating effect of research method to the relationship between cohesion and satisfaction. Again, this moderating effect was not analyzed due to insufficient data.

2.17. Managerial Implications and Future Research

The practical implications of this research for organizations as they consider implementing more and more virtual teams are:

(1) Organizations should invest in activities that increase cohesiveness in virtual teams. A previous study by Beranek and Martz (2005) shows that training in effective communication increases virtual team cohesiveness, and in turn, results in a more positive outcome.

(2) Certain conditions require more cohesive virtual teams. This is especially true in a globally distributed virtual team setting. Organizations and team leaders should be sensitive to this issue, and promote activities to increase group cohesion.

(3) Despite the positive relationships to performance and satisfaction, cohesion is also related to group think. Janis (1972, p. 9) argued that group think is a mode of thinking that people engage in when they are deeply involved in a cohesive in-group, when the members' strivings for unanimity override their motivation to realistically appraise alternative course of action.

Therefore, team leaders must balance developing cohesion with ensuring those teams members do not indulge in group think to the detriment of virtual team outcomes.

As for future research, researchers should take note of the different results that one might produce using different methods, or different measurements. A large number of virtual team

studies were conducted using student participants. This meta-analysis brought forth the question of whether the results from student teams reflect actual virtual teams in the field. A second issue concerns with the measurements for satisfaction and cohesion. Researchers could undertake work to further refine these measurements and ensure that the results are not affected by common-method bias.

Another avenue is to examine diversity as a potential moderator for the relationship between cohesion and virtual team outcomes. The results of this meta-analysis alluded to the possibility that differences in terms of demographic and cultural backgrounds impact the relationship between cohesion and outcomes. A related study by Staples and Zhao (2006) found that diverse virtual teams had poorer cohesion and satisfaction compared to homogeneous teams. However, their study focused on diversity

based on birth, nationality, native language and the individualism/collectivism dimension of Hofstede's (Hofstede & Bond, 1984) measure of national culture. Future researchers could explore diversity based on

sex, ethnicity, as well as Hofstede's other four dimensions (e.g., power distance and uncertainty avoidance).

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Methodology

In order to have a clear picture about the team cohesion and its contribution in enhancing the team performance coaches and players interested about team cohesion the descriptive survey method is implied.

The method is appropriate to describe, understand and define the team cohesion around the club. To achieve the objectives of the study, valuable information were gathered from different sources. Besides, triangulation of various data gathered tools were used to obtain relevant information.

3.2. Sources of Data

The Wolaita Developmental Association has different services for the pupil. The researcher select Wolaita Dicha Sport Club purposefully based on their access to transport and availability of the time to collect the data. These are: - Wolaita Sodo and Boditti Sub-city in Wolaita Zone. The data sources for time study were: - both primary and secondary source were used to secure sufficient data/information. Primary data was collected from subjects through questionnaires interviews and observation where as secondary data were gathered from published and unpublished materials.

3.3. Population and Sampling Techniques

In this study two Sub-cities were selected by simple random selection technique out of 12 Sub-cities. These Sub-cities were: - Sodo and Boditti

The total populations of Wolaita Dicha Sport Club have 88 which include men and women volleyball, female and male football, from which the researcher used (32) male football players, coaches and administration were selected as a simple random method only primer league level.

3.4. Data Collection Instrument

The instruments used for data collection were questionnaires, interviews, and theory and practical observation. To ensure the appropriateness of the items, a pilot study was carried out in one selected football players, coaches and administration. Questionnaire was also administered to twenty six players and three coaches who were selected for the pilot study. Based on the

response obtained from the pilot study, correction and revision was made in order to avoid ambiguity of the questionnaire items and to maintain the validity and reliability of the language coherence. After that the questionnaires were distributed to football players and coaches of Wolaita Dicha Sport Club were selected for the study.

3.4.1. Questionnaire

As the major data collecting instrument closed-ended and open-ended questionnaires were employed both players and coaches. Closed-ended questionnaires consists questions that offer respondents a set of answers to choose the one that reflects their views. Open-ended questionnaire consists of questions which invite respondents to write their ideas, views, and beliefs. Both types of questionnaires were developed to be used in providing clear understanding to the knowledge of sampled respondents related to the team cohesion and its contribution enhancing performance. The content of each questionnaire was composed of statements related to team cohesion problems, player's interests, lack of awareness and skilled man power.

3.4.2. Interview

Face-to-face interview was conducted with Team Leader, Directorate director and club president. To this end, a set of unstructured open-ended interview questions were prepared. The interview items were mainly focused on the team cohesion and its contribution in enhancing performance to the players, the involvement of society and implementation of team cohesion to promote and facilitate for the successful participation of football players.

The data obtained from the interview consists of responses of the directors and the experts about their knowledge, experience, opinions, perception, and intervention concerning the development and promotion of team cohesion.

3.4.3. Observation

The purpose of theory and practical observation in football activities was to obtain and acquire information on how do coaches of Wolaita Dicha Sport Club implement and transmit knowledge and practical skills to their players in general and to support players. Getting information whether coaches understand player's self-confidence or not participating and performing in group during activities.

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

To gather the necessary data and ease of understanding, questionnaires were prepared and distributed for Wolaita Dicha Sport Club players and coaches.

Interview was conducted in Amharic language and interview and observation took place at the physical presence of the researcher himself. Then, the gathered data was tallied by hired individuals while the open-ended question items and interview responses were summarized and systematized by researcher alone.

3.6. Data Analysis

In the study, both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to analyze the information collected using different instruments from different sources.

The quantitative data obtained from questionnaire analysis was analyzed using percentage and frequency and the qualitative data were first organized into meaningful information and the data were described both as expressed by interviewees and observation by the researcher.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

This part of the study deals with the analysis of the data gathered through the questionnaires, interviews, and practical field observation from different sources followed by discussion of the findings. Furthermore, the main findings of the study are presented with the help of tables followed by descriptive statements for analysis to give answers to basic questions set in the study.

The total population of this study as indicated at the below table was 32 and of these, 26 player's, 3 coaches' 1 team leader, 1 director and 1 president.

All of the respondents were selected according to their usability that is randomly and purposively.

Lastly, interview was made with president, directors, Team leader and coaches' respectively.

Table1. Research setting and participants of the study

Types of participants in the study	Research instrument	Expert	Research setting and no of participants					Total
			Players	Coaches	Team leader	Director	President	
Player	Questionnaire	-	26	-		-	-	26
Coach	Questionnaire	-	-	3		-	-	3
Team Leader	Interview	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
Director	Interview	-	-	-		1	-	1
President	Interview	-	-	-		-	1	1
Total		-	26	3	1	1	1	32

As mentioned earlier, the participants totally male was questionnaire was distributed to 26 players and 3 coaches. All players returned the completed questionnaire. The remaining 3 administrations were politely answered which the interview was raised by the researcher. Totally the participants in this study were 32.

4.1. Results

Applying percentage and frequency were employed in the analysis of the data gathered. The data gathered are organized using table and then followed by descriptions of the results.

4.1.1. Player's Respondents Background

Wolaita Dicha Sport Club Player's attending in 2013/14 were chosen for the research as a sample.

Table 2: Information of player's Respondent

Sex		Age				Qualification				Family Occupation							
Male		16-20		21-30		10 th Complete		Diploma		Government		Farming		Merchant		Other	
No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
26	100	6	23	20	77	21	81	5	19	4	15	10	39	8	31	4	15

As indicated in the first part of this chapter, 26 players were involved in the study. As shown in table 2: 26(100%) of the players respondents are male because the research done by male football club. Concerning the age of respondents 6(23%) of them are between 16-20 years of age; 20(77%) of them are between 21-30 years of age. It can easily be concluded that the majority of the respondents are between the ages of 21-30 years. With regard to educational level of players respondents 21(81%) tenth complete, 5(19%) are diploma holders. Pertaining to family's occupation of players respondents 4(15%) are government employee; 10(39%) are farmers; 8(31%) are merchants and 4 (15) of them are working in private sector.

Table 3: Coaches, Team leader, Director and President Respondents

	Sex			Service Year						Qualification					
				1-5		6-10		11-15		Degree		Masters		Total	
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Coach	M	3	100	1	33	1	33	1	33	2	67	1	33	3	100
Team Leader	M	1	100	-	-	-	-	1	100	1	100	-	-	1	100
Director	M	1	100	1	100	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	1	100
President	M	1	100	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	1	100	1	100

According to table Three, 3(100%) of the coaches respondent, 1 (100%) of the team leader, 1(100%) of the club director, and 1(100%) of the club president are male. With respect to their qualification, 2(100%) of the coaches, 1(100%) of team leader, and 1(100%) of the club director had the first degree and 1 (100%) of the coach, 1(100%) of the club president had masters degree holders.

As to the service years of the coaches, team leader, club director and president respondents 1(33.33%) of the coaches and 1(100%) of the club director, have served between 1-5 years; 1(33.33%) of the coaches have served between 6-10 years, 1(33.33%) of the coaches, 1(100%) of team leader and 1(100%) of club president have served between 11-15 years.

Table 4: The design and organize Problems of Team Cohesion in Wolaita Dicha Sport Club Administration.

No	Item	Responses	No	%
1	Lack of awareness about team cohesion	yes	2	23
		No	4	67
2	Not giving due to attention to Team cohesion	Yes	3	50
		No	3	50
3	Lack of skilled man power	yes	2	23
		No	4	67

According to table 4, 3(50%) of the coaches indicated that the problems are not giving due to attention to the team cohesion; 2(23%) of the team leader are lack of awareness and the remaining 2(23%) of the director and president are lack of skilled man power related with sport psychology. Coaches' role was not only affecting the planned curriculum, but they should also play a significant role in developing the curriculum plan. Therefore, coaches' participation in curriculum development is crucial in any training program system for it leads to higher coaching staff moral and greater commitment. It is unrealistic to involve every coach in each training area in the development process but their views can be incorporated by any available means such as by conducting workshops, seminars and by gathering their views through different channels to which the curriculum is successfully implemented in the desired way.

Table 5: Theory participation level

No	Activities	High	%	Average	%	Low	%
1	Encouragement of coaches to Team cohesion players success in theoretically and practical activities compared with other discipline	6	23	8	31	12	46
2	Participation of players in group activities compared with other discipline	15	58	6	23	5	19
3	Players participation and answering, questions, and forwarding ideas in the group and in the field compared with other discipline	8	31	6	23	12	46
4	Players participation, interest and self-confidence to be successful compared with other disciplines	14	54	7	27	5	19

The responses regarding the level of participation (see table 5) reveal that 15(58%) of respondent s aid t hat players pa rticipation a nd self confidence t o be s uccessful t han ot her discipline is high and 12(46%) encouragement of coaches in practical and theoretical classes is still low, while 12(46%) of the respondents said participation of players in group activity is high and 14(54%) of the respondent answered participation in asking and answering questions and forwarding ideas in the class was high. From this it can be concluded that, some work should be done to improve team cohesion so confidence and coaches have to encourage players equally one with other to make them successful and mechanisms also should be designed to increase group interaction.

4.2. Practical Session Participation

Practical session is a session where players are participating in training activities performing football exercise and learn skills and rules of the games. The table below summarized the result obtained.

Table 6: Players opinion towards successful participation in training with team mate

No	Activities	High	%	Average	%	Low	%
1	Players attend frequently the Practical session with team mate	6	23	8	31	12	46
2	Demonstrating practical activities in front of the players	14	54	7	27	5	19
3	Receiving more priority, appreciation and encouragement given by coaches during practical session	15	58	6	23	5	19

According to table 6, 15(58%) of the respondents that received appreciation, while 6(23%) of the respondent responded that averagely receive appreciation. In addition 14(54%) of the respondent responded that highly demonstrate practical activity; 5(19%) of the respondent low demonstration; 7(27%) of the respondents average demonstration, 12(46%) practical session very low; while 6 (23%) of the players attend the practical session highly; 8(31%) of the players attend averagely.

From this, it can be deduced that, to reduce such assumptions and differences within team coaches of football should give opportunities and priorities to football players to increase their participation in practical activities.

Table 7: Observation done by the researcher.

No	Coach i n t heory and field (practical) work	Excellent		Very good		Good		Poor	
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Skill of a asking questions w ith simple language	2	67	1	33	-	-	-	-
2	Method of pr esenting that t he coaches used to make t he l esson attractive and participative	2	67	1	33	-	-	-	-
3	Clarity of objective	1	33	2	67	-	-	-	-
4	Ability to explain issues which are not clear	1	33	2	67	-	-	-	-
5	Encouraging all pl ayers to relate theory w ith practice and skill of participation of th e practical activities	-	-	3	100	-	-	-	-

Similarly, as indicated in the above theory and field observation checklist

- ❖ In 1(33%) of the coach are excellent clarity of objectives; 2(67) of the coaches were very good.
- ❖ In 1(33%) of the coach are excellent explanation for the issue; 2(67%) of the coaches were very good
- ❖ In 2 (67%) of the coaches were excellent presenting method; 1(33%) of the coach are very good.
- ❖ In 2(67%) of the coaches were excellent asking question with simple language; 1 (33%) of the coach are very good.
- ❖ In 3(100%) of the coaches were encouragement of the players is very good.

- ❖ Borich (1988:250) stated that, coach who had theories and practice session in which large percentage of players were off-task, talked without raising hands, talked back, moved about the training without permission, ignored rules, disrupted other and failed to complete assignments. In addition, Jozer, Violas and Sense (1993:298), explained that large squad size leads to discipline problems, less involvement of players in activities and little or no support to individual players. Because of this, players may develop an atmosphere of disinterest in their training because they do not know whether they did good or not.

Table 8: Responses of Coaches on the problems of player’s participation In Team cohesion

No	Item	Response			
		Yes		No	
		No	%	No	%
1	Lack of educational background knowledge and understanding about team cohesion contribution in game and training activities.	1	33	2	67
2	Lack of players understanding attitude towards team cohesion in football activities	1	33	2	67
3	Lack of encouragement and understanding of administration towards players participation in group wherever	2	67	1	33
4	Low attitude of coaches towards the participation of players in team cohesion within activities and competition	2	67	1	33

The findings from table 8, indicates that 2(67%) responded low attitude of coaches towards the participation of players in team cohesion within activities and competition; 1(33%) of the coaches responded lack of educational background, knowledge and understanding; 2(67%) of coaches were responded little encouragement and lack of understanding from club administration towards players participation in group wherever and to the team cohesion; while 1(33%) of the coach responded lack of players understanding and attitude towards team cohesion in football activities. Thus, it can be deduced that, the information obtained from football players and coaches can be a highlight to improve the deferring factors which occurs in the club environment and in the community by taking remedial measures and by creating awareness which encourage and gives opportunities to football players to participate in team cohesion and group activity in

the camp and out of the camp. Besides on these, the club should use intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and appreciation of football players when they are participating in sport completion by watching the match and by giving value to create belongingness to increase and promote players participation in group activities and competition

Table 9: How Team Cohesion is given in the theory and out of theory

No	Item	Players respondent	No	%
1	How of ten do the coaches relate their lesson with team cohesion with your life activities or environmental realities?	Frequently	5	17
		Rarely	12	46
		Not at all	9	37
2	How often do you discuss issues related to the team cohesion?	Frequently	6	23
		Rarely	13	50
		Not at all	7	27
3	Does your coaches advice in wide about team united?	Yes	20	77
		No	6	23

As can be seen in the Table 9, the majority of the participant of the players in the study 12(46%) of the respondents rarely coaches related their lesson with team cohesion with life activities or environmental realities; 5(17%) of the respondents said that frequently the coaches discuss issues related to the team cohesion; 6(23%) of the respondents also said the coach did not advice in wide about team united due to ineffective management of the players coming to training and too much noisy around the stadium make somehow the advice is not conducive.

Table 10: Coaches and Players responses concerning Players interest in Team Cohesion

No	Item	Response			
		Players'		Coaches'	
		No	%	No	%
1	Do you have a positive attitude towards learning team Cohesion?				
	Yes	7	27	-	-
	Partially Yes	14	54	-	-
	No	5	19	-	-
	Total	26	100	-	-
2	Do you have interested to study Psychology profession in the future?				
	Yes	8	30	-	-
	Partially Yes	12	46	-	-
	No	6	24	-	-
	Total	26	100	-	-
3	What is your opinion about players interests in team cohesion understanding both in theoretically and practically				
	Very High	-	-	-	-
	High	-	-	1	33
	Medium	-	-	2	67
	Low	-	-	-	-
	Total			3	100

According to Table 10 item number 1, 14(54%) of the players responds partially interested learning team cohesion, 7(27%) of the players responded more interested learning team cohesion the remaining 5(19%) of the players are not interested learning team cohesion. Because the players they wrote on the open-ended question lack of awareness about team united. In item

number 2 at the same table, 8(30%) of players responded interested to study psychology profession in the future related with team cohesion, 12(46%) of the players responded partially interested study psychology profession in the future, while 6(24%) of the players responded not interested to study psychology profession in the future.

In item number 3 table 12, 1(33%) of coaches' responded the players highly interested in team cohesion understanding both in theoretically and practically; 2(67%) of the coaches' responded the players medium interest in team cohesion understanding both in theoretically and practically.

From this, it can be deduced that, the majority player is not interested learning team cohesion because lack of awareness, poor educational backgrounds, less participation of group activities and competitions.

4.3. Interpretation and Analyzing of Interview

The interview was held for the directorate director of the club. The director response was summarized as follow:

1. What is your role in the club?

The first question raised by the researcher stated as follow:

- ❖ Creation of the club
- ❖ Contact with everybody including Ethiopian Football Federation in the case of club.
- ❖ Coordinate and facilitate all things as I can for the club.
- ❖ Follow-up the Team-leader, coaches' and players.
- ❖ Make discussion with all club members twice in week.
- ❖ Manage the club including supporters.

2. Is there sufficient material for the club during training session?

The interviewer said for the above question raised by the researcher stated as follows:

- The club is new for Ethiopian Primer league, by considering this it is impossible to say all materials are available. For example, among the core material the field is not standard for Primer league, due to this reason we enforced to play the first six home games in Hawass stadium and then we find another solution for this problem and we choice the second field for Wolaita Dicha Sport Club in Boditti Town and now it is functional.

3. Do you think Team cohesion affect team performance?

- Yes off course, team cohesion and performance are interrelated to me so group , cooperation and coordination, as moderators to the relationship between cohesion and team performance. In addition, because more and more virtual teams include team members from various cultural backgrounds, research in cohesion and diversity provides another interesting prospect for future researchers.
- Generally football is one of team game, individual talent coordinated by group and the group advanced to team, the result is smart.

4. What do you suggest the possible solution to minimize the individuality in the team?

The fourth question raised by the researcher to club director was stated the following possible solution to minimize the major factors:

- The first great thing in my opinion to minimize the individuality in a team is free discussion, give awareness in advance about team cohesion and its effectiveness without interruption for the team members in training and out of the game.
- Clear communication between all team members it may be in meeting, coffee ceremony, journey and etc the endeavor of team unity that helps for the team result.
- The great thing what we do in our club is we give automatic solution for the happened conflict and this helps for team cohesion in our club.

5. What is the relation between the administration and players?

In all the time the relation of all club members may be not in good manner because individuality, interest, habits, behavior and so on are different within the club members. Whatever the individuality are there our team relations in training, meeting, competition are countable.

CHAPTER FIVE

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendation

This chapter deals with the highlight of each chapter of the study.

5.1. Summary

This study was to assess a study on the team cohesion and its contribution in enhancing team performance in some selected football clubs. To this end, the study tries to answer the following basic questions.

- ❖ What is the actual team cohesion within the team?
- ❖ Do coaches have enough knowledge about the importance of team cohesion and its contribution in enhancing to team performance?
- ❖ Is there any social and task cohesion, in the case of degree with which one has a net contribution?
- ❖ How is the interpersonal of a team and a coach?

The study employed a descriptive survey method and it was conducted in Wolaita Dicha Sport Club in SNNPR Region. These samples were selected with simple random selection technique. The subject of the study was 26 players, 3 coaches, 1 team leaders, 1 directorate director, and 1 president. The information was obtained from sample respondents through questionnaires, observation, and interview. The data were analyzed using percentage and frequency. In addition, the information obtained through interview and observations were presented in complementing the data obtained by means of questionnaire. Based on the data analysis the following major findings were obtained.

1. Player's theory and practical participation, the findings in the study indicate that the majority of the football players responded that, they do not participate in team asking or answering question in the group. Similarly, coaches confirmed that, players have low participation in both theory and practical session as a team.

2. The problems of plan designed and organized in team cohesion; of the coach respondent's responded lack of awareness, the remaining one is not giving due to attention the team united and lack of skilled work force. Regarding the plan development of team cohesion, the directorate director and team leaders suggested that, during developing the plan coaches and other club specialists should take part in designing the plan to reduce team cohesion as one important issue.

3. Society support in player's participation in group activities the majority of the respondents responded society did not get support player's this may contribute to low participation of team cohesion activities

4. The problems of player's participation in team cohesion activities

- Lack of educational background knowledge and understanding about players participation in team cohesion activities
- Lack of players understanding and attitudes towards team cohesion activities.
- Lack of encouragement and understanding of administration employs towards players participation in team cohesion activities and they give main emphasis on result.
- Low attitude of coaches towards the participation of players in group activities and competition.

5. The team cohesion is given in the theory and practical is not properly given because

- The coaches rarely to give the lesson players life activities and environmental realities
- The coaches is not advice his players in wide

6. The players have low perception and interests to team cohesion because most of them fell that it is not designed for them and it has little application in their occupation and little attention give from principles and administrations for the team member. As the result of this

- The players were not positive attitudes towards team cohesion.
- The players were not interested to study psychology profession in the future.
- The players was medium interested in group activities both theoretically and practically.

5.2. Conclusion

Based on the above summary of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:-

1) The players participation in both theoretically and practically is low this indicates that;

- ❖ Low perception to the issue
- ❖ Low confidence in their ability
- ❖ Low participation group activity's and competitions
- ❖ Low participation asking and answering questions in group.

2) The coach not gives attention for the team cohesion, not discusses issues player's life activities and environmental realities, and not star. Therefore, it may be concluded that

- ❖ Players not interested for the team cohesion
- ❖ Players had little involvement in the theory and practical activities in group
- ❖ Less understanding of the team cohesion

The objective of this analysis was to synthesize quantitative findings for the relationships between team cohesion and virtual team performance outcomes. The results indicate that cohesion has a moderate-strength relationship with team performance and a high-strength relationship with team satisfaction. A number of constructs were identified as moderators to these relationships. The results from this study can be applied in practice. Organizations and virtual team leaders should invest time and effort in developing cohesion within their virtual teams. Conditions such as being in a globally distributed team environment and multiple communications media choices require a more cohesive virtual team.

For researchers, this study opens up several interesting avenues. Future researchers should examine the inter-relationships between cohesion, virtual team outcomes and other group processes.

Studies from other fields have discovered two group processes, cooperation and coordination, as moderators to the relationship between cohesion and team performance. In addition, because more and more virtual teams include team members from various cultural backgrounds, research in cohesion and diversity provides another interesting prospect for future researchers.

5.3. Recommendation

Based on the findings the following recommendations were put forwarded:

1. The study provides valuable information for coaches because it shows how significant their impact can be upon their team. Results from this study should be included in coaching education workshops so that data is provided to show how critical a coach's style and feedback can be to a team and what characteristics are most beneficial to enhancing a sense of team efficacy and unity.
2. To increase practical and theoretical interaction of team, coaches have to encourage and motivate football players to develop positive attitude and to participate in asking and answering questions in group as a team.
3. To increase player's participation in group activities by giving team cohesion effectiveness properly, by increasing players understanding and interests, encouraging players to the administration and coaches, by preparing different team interaction between in the players
4. Club president and principles have to control, evaluate, communicate and encourage coach to teach properly and give main clue about team cohesion, in addition to produce and utilize relevant training materials that leads to good team spirit.
5. To develop positive attitudes of player, the coaches and group activities should be related to their needs and interest. Therefore, as much as possible the concerned bodies should give attention and motivate the players according to the own needs and objectives of the team cohesion.
6. During observation, some of the existing facilities were inadequate. Therefore, be facilitated by using the government and society's resource investing on building stadium to reduce over crowdedness in football field, making available water supply for players after training to drink and wash, building cloth changing rooms, coins, red cross members to reduce injury, and other football materials.
7. In order to make the plan effective, coaches, community at large, non-governmental organizations, and other concerned governmental offices should be involved during designing the plan of the club, which helps to balance and avoid unnecessary things in the plan.

8. To provide additional support for coaching behaviors and feedback patterns as factors which influence athletes' perceptions of team cohesion. Additionally, this research expanded upon previous research to include collective efficacy as another possible team dynamic that is influenced by coaching behaviors. The findings from this study indicate certain aspects of coaching behavior that were related to athletes' perceptions of team dynamics, as well as the changes that occur in these perceptions over the course of a season. These results then provide support for the notion that coaches play a significant role in the psycho-social development of athletes, as well as within team environments.
9. The actual team cohesion of Wolayita Dicha Sport Club was uncountable. The results indicate that cohesion has a moderate-strength relationship with team performance and a high-strength relationship with team satisfaction. A number of constructs were identified as moderators to these relationships. The results from this study can be applied in practice. Organizations and virtual team leaders should invest time and effort in developing cohesion within their virtual teams. Conditions such as being in a globally distributed team environment and multiple communications media choices require a more cohesive virtual team.

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APPENDIX I

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF GRAGUATE STUDIES

FACULTY OF NATURAL SCIENCE

DEPARTEEMANT OF SPORT SCIENCE

WOLAITA DICHA SPORT CLUB PLAYER’S QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is designed to assess **your perceptions of your role** on your FOOTBALL team. There is no right or wrong answers so please give your immediate reaction and base your responses on how you think and feel about your team. Some of the questions may seem repetitive but please answer **ALL** questions. Your honest answers are very important to me.

Team: _____

Year in Primer League _____

Today’s Date: _____ Your Age: _____ Sex: M ___ F ___

Position: _____ Number of years playing soccer: _____

Starting Status: Starting Player: Sometimes Start/Sub: Substitute:

Approximate number of games played on this team this past season _____

Team record this past season (W/L/T) _____

The following questions help assess your feelings about your personal involvement with your team from the season that just passed. Please circle a to c to indicate how much you agree with each statement.

1. I did not enjoy being a part of the social activities of this team.
a. Never b. Moderately c. Strongly

2. We all share the same commitment to our team’s goal
a. Never b. Moderately c. Strongly

3. I invite my team mates to do things with me
 - a. Never
 - b. Moderately
 - c. Strongly
4. Some of my best friends are on this team
 - a. Never
 - b. Moderately
 - c. Strongly
5. I like the way we work together as a team
 - a. Never
 - b. Moderately
 - c. Strongly
6. I do not get along the members of my team
 - a. Never
 - b. Moderately
 - c. Strongly
7. We hang up out with one another whenever possible
 - a. Never
 - b. Moderately
 - c. Strongly
8. As a team, we are united
 - a. Never
 - b. Moderately
 - c. Strongly
9. I contact my teammates often (phone, text message, internet)
 - a. Never
 - b. Moderately
 - c. Strongly
10. This team gives me enough opportunities to improve my own performance
 - a. Never
 - b. Moderately
 - c. Strongly
11. I spend time with my teammates
 - a. Never
 - b. Moderately
 - c. Strongly
12. Our team does not work well together
 - a. Never
 - b. Moderately
 - c. Strongly
13. I am going to keep in contact with team mates after the season ends
 - a. Never
 - b. Moderately
 - c. Strongly
14. I am happy with my team's level of desire to win
 - a. Never
 - b. Moderately
 - c. Strongly

APPENDIX II

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF GRAGUATE STUDIES

FACULTY OF NATURAL SCIENCE

DEPARTEEMANT OF SPORT SCIENCE

WOLAITA DICHA SPORT CLUB COACHEING STAFF QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is designed to assess **your perceptions of your role** on your FOOTBALL team. There is no right or wrong answers so please give your immediate reaction and base your responses on how you think and feel about Woliata Dicha Sport Club. Therefore, you are kindly requested to provide the necessary information.

Thank you in advance.

- Writing name is unnecessary.
- Age _____ Sex: Male Female
- Position: _____
- Team: _____
- Year in Primer League _____
- Team record this past season (W/L/T)

Key

5. Strongly Agree 4. Agree 3. Undecided 2. Disagree 1. Strongly Disagree

Please circle 5 to 1 to indicate how much you agree with each statement for close-ended questions and give short clarification to open-ended questions.

1. I am control the player's unity only during training time

5 4 3 2 1

2. How you enjoy being a part of the social activities of this team?

3. This team gives me enough opportunities to control their performance

5 4 3 2 1

4. Our team does not work well together

5 4 3 2 1

5. How and when you spend time with your players?

6. By which means you contact your player's often (phone, text message, internet) explain?

7. As a team, we are united

5 4 3 2 1

8. Some of my best friends are on this team

5 4 3 2 1

9. You like the way you work together as a team?

a. Yes b) No

10. If your answer to question 9 is 'yes' in what way does you work together

11. We hang up out with one another whenever possible

5 4 3 2 1

12. What are your objectives of the team?

Players and coaches are working together, but not with coaching staff

5 4 3 2 1

13. I am happy with my team's level of desire to win

5 4 3 2 1

14. What kind of method and effort you used for team sprit?

15. In my team there is no enough time for me to think and infer about my lesson.

5 4 3 2 1

APPENDIX III

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF GRAGUATE STUDIES

FACULTY OF NATURAL SCIENCE

DEPARTEEMANT OF SPORT SCIENCE

The main purpose of this observation checklist is to assess the Team Cohesion and its contribution enhancing to team performance activities practiced in the Wolaita Dicha Sport Club.

I. Observation Checklist

1. Home of club -----
2. Club -----
3. League -----
4. No of players in the club -----

II. Information about the coaches

- 1 Qualification -----
- 2 Experience -----
- 3 Sex -----

III. Plan of training

1. Prepared according to players interest?
2. Observation about classroom instruction.

1. Activities of the coaches

Table 1 Activities of the coaches

No	Activities	Yes	Yes but not effective	No
1.1	Assesses player prior knowledge and Experience			
1.2	Motivates the players to articulate their experience.			
1.3	Makes the training interactive			
1.4	Organizes players in to pairs/group			
1.5	Facilitates group discussion			
1.6	Facilitates team discussion			
1.7	Encourages players to participate in group discussion			
1.8	Harmonizes team discussion			
1.9	Make players unity			

2. Players activity

Table 2. Players Activity

No	Activities	Yes	Yes but not effective	No
2.1	Players interact with coaches			
2.2	Players interact with other players			
2.3	players express ideas on different issues			
2.4	Players ask question			
2.5	Players answer question			
2.6	Players participate in group discussion			
2.7	Players present the result of group discussion			
2.8	Others			

APPENDIX - IV
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF GRAGUATE STUDIES
FACULTY OF NATURAL SCIENCE
DEPARTEEMANT OF SPORT SCIENCE

Interview Question to Directorate Director

The main purpose of this Interview is to assess the Team Cohesion and its contribution enhancing to team performance activities practiced in the Wolaita Dicha Sport Club.

Part 1

Qualification-----

Total experience-----

Age-----

1. What is your role in the club?
2. Is there sufficient material for the club during training session?
3. Do you think Team cohesion affect team performance?
4. What do you suggest the possible solution to minimize the individuality in the team?
5. What is the relation between the administration and players?

Declaration

I, here by confirm that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any university and that all resources of materials used for this thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name: Afework Asale

Signature: _____

Submission Date: _____

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

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____